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NEW SERIES.

THE

ANNUAL REGISTER,

OR A VIEW OF THE

HISTORY,

POLITICS,

AND

LITERATURE,

For the YEAR 1801.

PUBLIC LIBRARY, SPRINGFIELD

LONDON:

Printed for F. C. and J. RIVINGTON, N° 62, St. Paul's Church-Yard;

By Bye and Law, St. John's-Square, Clerkenwell.

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PREFACE.

THE Volume of the Annual Regiſter now offered to the Public being at once the continuation of a long eſtabliſhed Work, and the beginning of a new Diviſion or Series, it is neceſſary to make a few obſervations on the circumſtances which have influenced the Editors thus to change the eſtabliſhed ſyſtem.

In the year 1759 the publication of the Annual Regiſter commenced. The plan was ſo well formed, and ſo judiciouſly arranged, that, after the ſecond Volume, no alteration in the diſtribution of the matter was found neeeſſary, and the Work continued till the death of Mr. DODSLEY with undiminiſhed reputation and ſucceſs. In that period, however, many events occurred which increaſed the bulk of the Volumes, and augmented the labour of preparing them: ſince that time the ſame cauſes have operated with ſtill greater force. The war which was carried on when the firſt Volume of the Annual Regiſter was produced was deſcribed, as "peculiarly formed to intereſt curioſity, "from the importance of the events, the dignity of the

" perſons concerned, the greatneſs of the actions per-
" formed, and the amazing revolutions of fortune."
Such a character might then be given of the ſeven years war; but thoſe which have ſince demanded the care of the Editors, have, from the complication of intereſts, variety of motives, and extent of operations, ſo far exceeded that conteſt, that the labour of detailing facts, and inveſtigating cauſes, is largely increaſed; and delay and caution are rendered eſſentially neceſſary, from the great maſs of diſcordant ſtatements, and contradictory arguments which are produced by every event, and which render it ſo difficult to diſcriminate and diſcloſe the real truth. In 1759, and for many enſuing years, the debates in Parliament formed no portion of the hiſtory contained in the Annual Regiſter. The proceedings in each Houſe were not then, as they have ſince been, detailed in daily, and compiled in periodical, publications; they were tardily and obſcurely given, or more frequently utterly withheld, and the public curioſity was not directed toward the tranſactions in Parliament, ſince no ſatisfactory information could rationally be expected. How much ſpace is now occupied by the account of parliamentary proceedings, a ſlight inſpection of the Volumes publiſhed in ſubſequent years will ſufficiently ſhew, but it will not be equally eaſy for the reader to eſtimate the pains and time which are conſumed in reducing theſe diſcuſſions into order, in ſtating the arguments on each ſide with impartiality,

and

and giving the ſenſe and ſpirit of the moſt important debates, without entering into a tedious minuteneſs of detail, or perhaps into a diſguſting ſeries of repetitions.

The increaſing labour of preparing the Annual Regiſter had before the deceaſe of Mr. DODSLEY occaſioned a conſiderable arrear in the publication, and ſince that time, the efforts which the Editors have been able to make have not been ſufficient, till the preſent period, to ſurmount ſome obſtacles which have ſo long prevented the continuation. Thoſe impediments are now removed, and the Editors can with confidence promiſe, that the Annual Regiſter, publiſhed by Meſſrs. RIVINGTONS, ſhall ſoon appear, as early as is conſiſtent with accuracy and fidelity, and that nothing which care and labour, united with upright intentions can effect, ſhall be wanting, on their parts, to gain for the future Volumes the ſame public patronage which diſtinguiſhed this Work in its earlier years.

A deſire to regain a proper poſition with reſpect to time of publication has been one of the motives for commencing a NEW SERIES, but many other cauſes have concurred to influence that determination. The meaſure is juſtified by precedent in the caſe of other Literary Journals and Memoirs, and appears to have in itſelf ſome peculiar advantages. There is always a time when periods are expected to terminate, and when undertakings, which are the ſame in ſubſtance, are to be re-

newed or ſeparated by ſome imaginary boundary. In many minds the curioſity which is actively on the wing with reſpect to recent events, is perfectly quieſcent with reſpect to thoſe which are more remote; and many perſons would gladly commence a Work from a defined and not far diſtant period, who would ſhrink from the peruſal and the purchaſe of Volumes accumulated for almoſt half a century. But to thoſe with whom theſe reaſons have leſs weight, it may be proper to announce that no innovation is to be made in the long ſettled plan of the Work, and that in the execution of the ſeveral departments of which it conſiſts, the connexion between the paſt and the future will remain unbroken.

The period choſen for the commencement of this New Series is eminently favourable. To the Britiſh Reader every thing it preſents is new. The firſt year of a century; the moment when the Britiſh dominions received a new conſtitutional form, and a new denomination; the term when a miniſtry, which, for ſeventeen years, had guided the deſtinies of the country, was ſuddenly to be diſſolved; and the year when a war, ſingularly eventful, and never more ſo than in its laſt ſtruggles, was to ſubſide into peace: all theſe circumſtances conſtitute in every ſenſe a new Era, and render it peculiarly fitting to the denomination of a new ſeries in a periodical publication.

The

The prefent Volume being the firſt of the New Series, the Editors have endeavoured ſo to arrange the narrative, as to render every ſubject as intire as poſſible. Thus, although the Treaty of Luneville belongs chronologically to the year 1801, yet, as the tranſactions which led to it, took place in the preceding year, and moſt of them muſt be deſcribed in detailing the hiſtory of that period; it was conſidered better to leave the reſult to be related in connexion with its cauſes, than merely to notice it as an occurrence, ſeparated from all the great events by which it was produced. In the ſame manner, the debates in the laſt Seſſion of the Britiſh Parliament, are noticed only in a general way, and the ſlight details which are preſented, relate excluſively to a ſubject which was throughout the year in the higheſt degree intereſting, the ſcarcity which afflicted the Britiſh dominions.

On the other hand, as in this year the rage of France againſt Britiſh commerce and Britiſh proſperity, was exerted at once in all parts to which her power or influence could be extended, a retroſpective view has been taken of the reaſonings, pretenſions, and events which prepared the way for that conteſt with the northern powers, on which the enemy founded ſuch great hopes, and reſpecting which moſt perſons in England were aſſailed by ſerious apprehenſions. The ſentiments of Britiſh Stateſmen, as pronounced in Parliament

liament on this weighty topic, have been extracted with care and fidelity, and the events, till the diſſolution, of the formidable confederacy, in conſequence of the memorable battle off Copenhagen, have been minutely and accurately detailed.

During the progreſs of this alarming conteſt, a ſudden and ſurpriſing change was effected in the Britiſh Government. The Adminiſtration, which had ſo long defied all the efforts of an able and indefatigable party, unexpectedly diſſolved. It was not ſubdued by the ſtrength of oppoſition, deſerted by the majority in Parliament, or terrified by popular clamour into retreat. The cauſe of this event was aſſigned at the time, and every expreſſion then uttered concerning it, as well as thoſe facts which have ſince been diſcloſed, are carefully recorded, as valuable documents, and intereſting particulars of the Hiſtory of the Times. For the ſame reaſon great attention has been paid to the ſentiments of the Public and of individuals, reſpecting the ſucceſſors of Mr. Pitt, reſpecting men who had ever co-operated with him, who reluctantly ſucceeded to the offices he and his friends found it neceſſary to quit, and who, in all principles of Government, and in all general meaſures, except the one which occaſioned the reſignation, were diſpoſed to follow the ſteps of their predeceſſors, and to make them their models, in endeavouring to ſuſtain the national dignity, and bring the war to a happy and honourable concluſion.

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The debates in Parliament this year are peculiarly intereſting; the Union with Ireland, and the meaſures of reſtraint and ſeverity which it was yet conſidered neceſſary to purſue with reſpect to that country, formed the ſubject of many animated diſcuſſions; the ſtate of the nation in general was debated in both Houſes, with equal ability and earneſtneſs; and even the minuter topics, ſuch as that of eligibility of clergymen to ſit in the Houſe of Commons, were not deficient in intereſt, or unproductive of information. In the arrangement as much method has been obſerved as was attainable in a periodical publication. The general effort has been, to claſs the ſubjects of diſcuſſion according to ſome rule of analogy or relation, but this end can only be partially attained. In the detailing of arguments, the preferable mode is conſidered to be that of giving the ſubſtance of the obſervations on each ſide, but, on ſome occaſions, the ſentiments, and even expreſſions of particular ſpeakers, abſolutely require diſtinct and peculiar notice. In the preference to be given to either mode of narration, the Editors have fairly exerciſed their judgment, and they truſt it will be found they cannot, on any occaſion, be juſtly accuſed of negligence or of partiality.

The tranſactions in other parts of Europe, beſides the kingdoms of the north, are well intitled to attention; the diſgraceful and mortifying peace which Naples was

THE

ANNUAL REGISTER,

For the YEAR 1801.

THE

HISTORY

OF

EUROPE.

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CHAP I.

State of Europe at the commencement of the nineteenth century. Aſcendancy of France. The great advantages ſecured to that power by the treaty of Luneville. Effects of making the Rhine the boundary of her dominion. Germany. State of Holland. Of Switzerland. France ſecure from danger unleſs attacked by Auſtria, Ruſſia, Pruſſia, and England in concert. Conduct and views of Pruſſia. State of Italy. Degraded condition of the Pope, of the King of Naples, Sardinia, and Spain. Improved condition of France in the ſpace of one year. Her gigantic views. New ſpeculations on the public law of Europe. Pretenſions of France to eſtabliſh a new ſyſtem. Imperious terms in which its adoption was recommended. Theſe pretenſions chiefly hoſtile to Great Britain. Jealouſies excited againſt a ſuppoſed naval tyranny. Her allies deluded and cajoled. Efforts uſed to excite the northern powers againſt her. Complaints of her colonial ſyſtem. Of the navigation act, its origin and effects. Declaration of France, that a principal object of every continental alliance ought to be the reduction of the aſcendancy of maritime intereſts. Her appeals to neutral nations on the ſubjects of blockade, cruizing, and ſearch. New ſyſtem propoſed by France. Examination of pretended facts on which this ſyſtem is founded. Efforts in former times to aboliſh the right of ſearch. Conduct of Pruſſia in 1746. Armed neutrality in 1780. Conduct of Denmark, Sweden, and America during the preſent war. Altered conduct of the Emperor of Ruſſia. Cauſes of the alteration.

AT the commencement of the nineteenth century the aſpect of public affairs was particularly gloomy and diſcouraging. The balance of power, which the wiſdom of a former age had laboured

to eſtabliſh, and the maintenance of which had been the motive of ſo many wars, and ſo many treaties, was completely, and, to all appearance, irreparably deſtroyed. The overwhelming aſcendancy of France was confirmed by the recent ſucceſſes which enabled her to impoſe on Auſtria ſuch terms of peace as were calculated to conſolidate the power and authority of the victor, and to render reſiſtance to any of her future projects of aggrandizement hopeleſs. The nations of Europe aſtoniſhed, terrified, and dazzled by the ſucceſs of the French republic, ſeemed to have learnt to reſpect and admire what, in better moments, they had feared or hated, and to have tranſferred their homage from juſtice and public law to fortune, who ſanctioned by her influence pretenſions inimical to both.

In fact, after the events which led to the concluſion of peace between France and Auſtria, by the treaty of Luneville, the continent of Europe preſented to view only the vaſſals, the friends, or allies of France, with the exception of one or two powers, which maintained a ſtate of trembling enmity, fearful for their very exiſtence, and anxious only to know the extent of the ſacrifices by which they might avert or ſuſpend their doom of political annihilation.

As the conditions of peace, France claimed all the territory on the left Bank of the Rhine, making that river, from the place where it leaves Switzerland to that where it enters Holland, the boundary of the republic. This extenſion of dominion was conformable to the unvarying declarations of the French during the whole war; and it was not to be expected that in the moment of victory on their ſide, and almoſt unconditional ſubmiſſion on that of their opponents, they ſhould recede from, or even moderate their demand. The acquiſition of this territory deſtroyed one of the principal bulwarks againſt the encroachments of France in the north of Europe. The neceſſity of paſſing the Rhine, an enterprize which the late war had ſhewn often to be very eaſy, was now rendered the only obſtacle which could prevent the French armies from over-running, in any future war, all the northern circles of the Empire, as far as the Weſer or the Elbe. But to mark in more explicit terms the determination of France to overawe the Empire by the continual fear of ſuch incurſions, the reſtitution of Duſſeldorff, Ehrenbritſtien, Philipſburgh, Caſſel, Kehl, and Briſach, on the Right Bank of the Rhine, was rendered of little value by a reſervation that they ſhould continue in the ſame ſtate as at the time of their evacuation, that is, in ruins. France, therefore, retained the power of interfering in the affairs of Germany by means of the compenſations which were to be made to the proprietors of ceded territory; ſhe could diſquiet the Emperor by alarming him for the ſecurity of his newly acquired dominions; and, on the ſlighteſt umbrage, could pour her armies into the heart of his hereditary ſtates.

France had beſides, under the ſpecious name of patronage and protection, acquired uncontrouled rule over, and almoſt actual poſſeſſion of the other countries which were uſed to be conſidered as barriers

riers againſt her ambition. Holland had been ſince the year 1795 a mere province of France, incumbered rather than protected by a ſeparate government, which was notoriouſly, without authority or power, obliged on every occaſion to conſult the will of the protecting republic, to ſubmit to her exactions, maintain and clothe her troops, and continue paſſively flexible, in all points, to her imperious dictates. The commerce of Holland was ruined, her ſtrength exhauſted, and her ſpirit depreſſed: the gloom of the preſent was not cheered by the hopes of the future; for while France retained poſſeſſion of the Belgic provinces, it was not probable that the Dutch ſhould make a ſucceſsful ſtruggle to regain their independency.

Maſter of Holland, and undiſturbed poſſeſſor of the Auſtrian Netherlands, the ruler of France was exempt from fear. In another quarter, the ſituation of Switzerland gave him equal advantages. The independence and political conſequence of theſe once free and happy territories had been ſacrificed to the progreſs of revolutionary principles, and French intrigues; and the predominating influence of the powerful republic rendering that which was once a barrier againſt encroachment, now only a poſt, from which France might with more ſecurity advance in the courſe of hoſtility, Suabia, Bavaria, and the ſouthern provinces of Auſtria would on the renewal of hoſtilities, be deprived of all hopes of ſafety. The troops of France would be poured from the ſummits of the Alps, and their operations, planned on the new ſyſtem, would acquire an extent, continuity and vigour to which no effectual reſiſtance could be oppoſed.

With all theſe circumſtances of ſuperiority, France had little to fear from the efforts of Auſtria, unleſs cordially aſſiſted by Pruſſia, nor perhaps from both, unleſs they were joined by Ruſſia and England: but the view of affairs at the beginning of the preſent year afforded no proſpects of an alliance between the two great powers of Germany. The government of Pruſſia appeared intent on a political ſyſtem, which it purſued with undeviating ſteadineſs, tolerating with indifference the power of France, while its extenſion contributed to the depreſſion of the Houſe of Auſtria; and ſeeking, by unremitting exertions, to render the territory, derived from the partition of Poland, productive of the advantages for the ſake of which it had been projected. From Pruſſia, therefore, France had nothing to apprehend, whether diſpoſed to conſolidate her acquiſitions by peace, or to extend them by force of arms, or by intrigues.

The influence of France in all parts of Italy was unbounded and uncontroulable. The Ciſalpine republic, created by France, and waiting to receive at her hands a definitive form of government, could only be conſidered a province. The ſubmiſſion of Genoa, Parma, and Tuſcany, was implicit and invariable. The Adige was made the boundary of Auſtria, but to that boundary the authority of France alſo extended. French generals and French commiſſaries gave the law in all parts; and the

wealth, induſtry, and ſtrength of Italy were reſerved for the demands of the triumphant republic.

The Pope held his political exiſtence, precarious and abridged as it was, in abſolute ſubjection to the will of France; and the King of Naples, reduced in power, and trembling for his ſafety, waited only for a fit opportunity to caſt himſelf at the feet of his enemy, and receive with humility the terms of peace. Savoy being united to France, and the fortified places of Piedmont in her hands, ſhe could govern the deſtinies of Italy by the facility of invaſion; and there was no proſpect that either force or treaty ſhould reſtore to the King of Sardinia that protective power which had gained him the title of guardian of the Alps. Indeed had he recovered all his dominions, he could not, with France on one ſide, and the vaſſals of France on the other, be expected to raiſe himſelf above the condition of vaſſalage.

Spain, expunged from the liſt of independent ſtates, was more abjectly ſubjected to the power and views of France, than the ambition of Louis XIV. or the craft of thoſe who framed the family compact, could have projected or foreſeen. The wealth and force of Spain were at the unreſerved diſpoſal of her fatal ally, who, without having incurred the expence, or encountered the riſk, enjoyed all the benefit of a conqueſt. Spain preſerved not a ſhadow of freedom or independence; even her fleet was retained in a French port, to be employed as occaſion or inclination ſhould ſuggeſt to the republic, without a pretence or a ſuppoſition that the inclination of the Court of Madrid would in any manner be conſulted.

Such was the altered condition of Europe in little more than a year. That ſmall term was hardly elapſed ſince France, unſucceſsful in arms, tumultuous in her capital, cruel as well as weak in her government, excited not leſs the contempt than the hatred of mankind. Her governors deteſted for their crimes, deſpiſed for their weakneſs, and at perpetual variance with each other, had rendered the exiſtence of the republic doubtful. All the vices and errors of all the ſchemes of government which had been framed ſince the beginning of the revolution were united in the rule of the Executive Directory; the ill ſucceſs of their arms was conformable with the folly and wickedneſs of their meaſures, and the deſpair of their friends, and the ſanguine hopes of thoſe who deſired the reſtoration of political order in Europe, pointed alike to their approaching deſtruction. Even the ſucceſſes which attended the cloſe of the campaign of 1799 did not inſpire confidence in the rulers or the people, till by a ſudden change, reſembling rather the events of an ill connected romance or inartificial drama, than the great events by which the affairs of nations are decided, the revolutionary fabric was at once demoliſhed; the whole power and authority of the ſtate were veſted in one party, and adminiſtered by one man; ſurpriſing ſucceſs attended his efforts in the field; his foreign influence became conſolidated while it was extended; and by the immenſe acquiſitions already deſcribed, the political balance of Europe, ſo long the object

of

of general ſolicitude, was loſt, and no hope left that it ſhould ever be reſtored.

The views and pretenſions of the French government were not leſs gigantic and inſolent than their power was formidable. They felt no heſitation in publiſhing and avowing principles and ſyſtems which in former times would have united againſt them every ſtate in Europe, and which, had they been but furniſed in 1799, their legiſlators would have declaimed againſt with indignation as the fictions of a ſucceſsful enemy, fabricated to juſtify intended diſmemberment.

Now their manifeſtoes, and the writings of authors, known to utter the ſentiments of government, diſcloſed the intention of France to govern with irreſiſtible ſway all the other ſtates of Europe, as well by an unlimited aſcendancy in peace, as by force and rapine in war. Before the French revolution, they ſaid, Europe had not in fact any beneficial code of public law. The ſyſtem was not utterly deſtroyed, but its elements were confuſed, incoherent, diſcordant, and ever verging on diſſolution. This ſtate of affairs commenced, they affirmed, when all Europe armed in an atrocious and inſenſate confederacy againſt them, and, from that moment to the preſent, no public law was in being.

Proceeding on theſe aſſumed data, the French government thought fit to affirm, that France had, for a century, been the only great power which had continually made the greateſt ſacrifices to maintain the balance of Europe. Being forced by the combination of her ancient allies againſt her to take up arms, ſhe had uſed them for the purpoſe of re-eſtabliſhing her ancient connexions; but ſhe was now obliged to correct their old imperfections. She muſt exhibit to all Europe the abolition of all the ancient rules of public law effected by force, and call individually or collectively on all powers to join with her in the creation of a new law of nations, conformable with the ſtate of Europe, and the relations actually exiſting among the parties.

The notorious falſehood of theſe aſſertions, and the evident arrogance of the pretenſions to which they gave riſe, were but feebly extenuated by the boaſtful declaration that Europe ought to court and not fear the mighty republic, whoſe poſition, too perfect in ſtrength, and whoſe means of wealth and happineſs in peace were too certain and extenſive to render the poſſeſſion of more territory or more power an object of deſire. All the ſources of her proſperity, it was ſaid, are in her own boſom. Circumſcribed within thoſe limits which ſhe had the means, as well as the right to claim for her future ſecurity, ſhe had nothing to deſire but the duration of peace; and war was, with reſpect to her, diveſted of the attractions either of glory or power. The produce of her own ſoil was inexhauſtible riches; territory ſuperadded to that which ſhe had conquered would only enfeeble her, and the thirſt of glory could not be more ſatisfied than it had been by the triumphs of the late continental war. The baſes of her future maritime ſyſtem were declared to be, her alliance with Spain, Holland, and Genoa; an alliance which could only be underſtood to mean the intire ſubjection of thoſe countries; and her

ſchemes of forming, what was called a new federal ſyſtem for the Continent, were avowedly to be put in execution either by compact, or by force. "For political conventions ſhe would ſubſtitute military treaties, and if princes continued deaf to the voice of their own intereſts, which required amity with France; ſhe would forcibly enter into alliance with the countries they were unable to defend, and covering their territories with her armies, uſe their reſources as her own."

The arrogance of theſe pretenſions, and the atrocious means by which they were to be enforced, did not produce any effect on the powers of the Continent. Some were terrified by the diſaſters of Auſtria, ſome diſpoſed to ſanction the enormous claims of France, and others ſeduced by ſophiſtry, or irritated by imaginary wrongs, regarded the avowed military deſpotiſm of France with leſs dread than the imputed naval tyranny of England.

Great Britain, uninjured in all the means of her proſperity by the active and expenſive war in which ſhe had made ſuch great exertions, and ſuch boundleſs ſacrifices; Great Britain able, in ſpite of military aſcendancy, to reſtrain the power and ambition of France, to curb her enterprizes, and aſſiſt and animate all theſe ſtates who had the courage to make an exertion in favour of their own independence; Great Britain was marked out for peculiar vengeance, and no effort omitted which could prejudice her cauſe in the eyes of Europe.

General calumnies againſt her credit, her government, her ſincerity, and her anti-ſocial ſyſtem which rendered a war which was deſtructive to all Europe, the cauſe of her peculiar wealth and proſperity, were reinforced by flatteries and threats to Turkey and Portugal, the only two powers with whom ſhe remained in actual alliance.

But to affect the vital intereſts of Great Britain, it became neceſſary to excite againſt her all the powers of the Continent which yet remained neutral, and to this end, the imputations of naval tyranny, a monopoly of commerce, and a ſyſtem of government hoſtile to the repoſe of Europe were principally directed. The colonial ſyſtem to which the great wealth and proſperity of Great Britain were aſcribed, was treated as an innovation on the ancient plan of European polity, unknown, or but imperfectly underſtood when the treaty of Weſtphalia ſettled the balance of power. The navigation act was characterized as a bold and deciſive meaſure, which placed the commerce of England in a ſtate of perpetual hoſtility and jealouſy with the trade of every other nation. This was the true foundation, it was ſaid, of the maritime ſyſtem of England; the real origin of all the naval wars of Europe. This act was ſaid to be worthy of its author, the gloomy conſpirator Cromwell. He, equally ambitious and miſtruſtful, naturally delighted with ideas of plot and violence, conſidering the inſulated poſition of England, and the induſtrious and avaricious diſpoſition of its people, formed the project of placing their induſtry in permanent oppoſition and hoſtility to that of every other nation; of

ſeparating

ſeparating their intereſts for ever from the general intereſts of Europe, and of giving to them the ſtart in a career where their rivals muſt labour under the diſadvantage of a tardy and ill-concerted oppoſition. The effects of this act were ſaid to be the excitement of a general ſpirit of emulation and vigilance in Britiſh commerce, and an indiſſoluble union between her government and her trading intereſts. Beſides the benefits accruing to Great Britain herſelf from theſe circumſtances, it was repreſented that her government, calculating at once on her ſituation, which ſecured her againſt all views of continental ambition, and on the reſources to be derived from a productive commerce, had rendered all their plans of politics ſubſervient to views of commercial extenſion, progreſſion, and invaſion; had ſought among all the grounds of diſcord which could diſunite the continental powers, for opportunities to ſet them at variance, and enfeeble them; had ſecured in every direction commercial preferences; formed compacts, the developement and duration of which depended entirely on their own convenience; intermeddled in all political conflicts to inflame them; introduced themſelves into all confederations to diſſolve them; laid ſucceſſively on every part of Europe the oppreſſive burden of their aſſiſtance; changed inceſſantly the ſyſtem of exiſting relations; given birth to falſe combinations of intereſt and power; created a balance, partial, ephemeral, and repugnant to the principles of a general balance; and ſported ſucceſſively with the ſtrength and the weakneſs, the ambition and the wiſdom, the union and the diſcord of great and of little ſtates, by irritating at well choſen times the paſſions of the moment, profiting by temporary wants, dangers, and alarms, and taking advantage of the diſcords, inſeparable from a variety of oppoſite intereſts, to give prevalence to an intereſt always diſtinct, always preſent to their eyes, that of Britiſh power the rival of every other power, and the Britiſh commercial ſyſtem. This ſtate, it was obſerved, monopolizing by her commerce the product of the general induſtry, by her fiſcal laws appropriating to herſelf all the benefits of her commerce, exempt by her inſular ſituation from the neceſſity of diſplaying courage by the ſacrifice of men in war, and from the fear of invaſion; from the peculiar, diſtinct, and ſeparate nature of her intereſts needing neither allies nor friends; this ſtate alone was in a ſituation to benefit by the general calamity, and to turn the reſult to its own advantage.

From this verboſe declaration of wrongs, ſupported by fictions too groſs to impoſe on any but the moſt uninformed, though ſtated in a manner ſufficiently artful to afford topics of declamation to the friends of France in all countries, the following real grievances could alone be collected: That the Britiſh character, Britiſh commerce, and Britiſh naval power formed the only remaining barrier againſt the univerſal aſcendancy of gallic ambition, and therefore every effort muſt be exerted to form a combination by which they might be reduced, and finally cruſhed. For this purpoſe it was aſſumed, that in future a principal object of

every alliance, whether made in war or in peace, ought to be the guaranty of the political intereſts of the continental powers againſt the incroaching aſcendancy of maritime intereſts.

Beſides attempting to excite the jealouſy of the continental powers, France made forcible appeals to their ſelfiſhneſs by declaiming againſt the laws of maritime blockades, of cruizing, and of ſearch, and againſt all reſtrictions on the commerce of neutrals in the time of war, and on commerce in general in peace. Without the leaſt attention to truth, France boaſted of her own magnanimous diſintereſtedneſs in theſe particulars; affirming that, of all maritime powers, ſhe had been always the leaſt inclined to interfere with the trade of neutral nations; that ſhe had been the firſt to propoſe legiſlatively and diplomatically that their navigation ſhould be for ever freed from all reſtraints, that cruizing ſhould be aboliſhed, and the commercial profeſſion, its agents, reſources, means, and benefits ſhould in all places, and at all times, be privileged, and out of the reach of all the violences of war.

Politics, it was obſerved, could never attain any ſalutary end, and Europe muſt be condemned to perpetual agitations, unleſs ſome reſolutions were adopted for rendering the problem of Engliſh power compatible with the ſecurities for French preponderance. In purſuance of this plan, and aſſuming that the preſent maritime law of Europe was founded only on the naval preponderance of England, her habits, her needs, and the general acquieſcence of Europe, the French propoſed a new ſyſtem, which was to reſt on the baſis of the following propoſitions.

1ſt. Cruizing ſhall be aboliſhed in time of war; the ſovereignty of a territory is conveyed with all its rights under the flag of thoſe ſtates which do not take part in the conteſt.

2d. In times of peace the navigation between nation and nation ſhall be freed from every prohibitory law: the only exception to be with reſpect to freight from one port to another belonging to the ſame ſtate, or from colonies to the mother country.

The ſuppoſed facts on which theſe propoſitions were founded were evidently and notoriouſly falſe, and it was no leſs evident and notorious that, in framing them, France had nothing in view but the project which ſhe conſidered to be inſeparably connected with her own intereſts, that of annihilating the maritime aſcendancy, and with it the power and wealth of Great Britain. The refutation of the arguments, and diſproval of the alleged facts, would therefore be an unneceſſary taſk, had not the ſubſequent events, and the expectations they excited, given unexpected intereſt to the ſubject. It is by no means true that the maritime code acknowledged by all Europe aroſe out of the naval ſuperiority of England. On the contrary, that code had been deſcanted on by the beſt writers on the laws of nations long before England could claim any ſuch aſcendancy. Indeed the principal branch of that code, the right of ſearching and detaining the ſhip of a friend, for the purpoſe of taking and confiſcating the goods of an enemy, may be traced upwards through

through many centuries, nearly to the commencement of the modern hiſtory of Europe; for it is to be diſtinctly found in the * celebrated collection of Sea Laws, which was recognized with the greateſt ſolemnity by the Maritime States of the Mediterranean on different occaſions, beginning as early as in the eleventh century. Among others, the Kings of France and Arragon, and the Counts of Barcelona, repeatedly ſwore to the obſervance of theſe laws, and the moſt ancient copy of them now extant is in the Spaniſh language, whence they were tranſlated into the French and Italian. This fundamental right of a belligerent ſtate was, in all its conſequences, carried into execution by Spain when in the plenitude of her maritime power, and by France under an ordinance of Lewis the XIVth, more rigorouſly than it ever was by England: and ſo far from truth was the aſſertion of the continual moderation of revolutionary France, that even in the exiſting war her regulations againſt the trade of neutrals had exceeded in ſeverity thoſe of any other nation.

It was, however, eaſy for France, when in a ſtate of naval impotency, to dogmatize in favour of a ſyſtem, which in the day of her power ſhe would be, and ever had been, among the firſt to reject, and to ſuſtain by fictitious pretences, a character for candour and impartiality, which ſhe judged neceſſary to the ſupport of her claims. It was known to France at the time ſhe made theſe declarations, that the plan ſhe propoſed, however incompatible with public law, and however inconſiſtent with the rights which ſhe wanted only the power to maintain, would be highly acceptable to many ſtates not at war with England; and that by her intrigues a party was formed in the north of Europe, prepared to adopt the mode of conduct calculated to promote her views.

Times ſomewhat removed from the preſent had given a foundation for a hope that thoſe powers would, on a favourable opportunity, be led again, as on a former occaſion, to league againſt the maritime intereſts and claims of England. About the year 1746, when the Pruſſian flag was little known in the commercial world, the ſeizures which were made in conſequence of attempts to protect, under the pretence of neutrality, the property of the enemies of Great Britain, occaſioned ſome remonſtrances, and an attempt on the part of Pruſſian commiſſaries, to eſtabliſh the axiom, that "*free bottoms make free goods.*" The effort was, however, without ſucceſs, and this principle was not again called into action till the armed neutrality of 1780. The ſtate of Europe at that period, when it was the joint wiſh of France, Spain, and Holland to depreſs the maritime power of Great Britain, when the inveterate rancour of the King of Pruſſia was favoured by the zeal of Sweden and Denmark, the temporizing diſpoſition and affected magnanimity of the Empreſs of Ruſſia, and the ſelfiſh policy of the

* It is called Il Conſolato del Mare. See the principal paſſage on this ſubject, and many other authorities to the ſame point, in the learned and able eſſay on the Conduct of Great Britain towards Neutral Nations, publiſhed by the preſent Lord Liverpool in 1757.

Emperor

Emperor of Germany, contributed to the formation of this league, which was received in terms of rapture by the belligerent powers of the Continent, and by Great Britain, in a manner which ſhewed her latent repugnance, though policy forbad her to encreaſe the number of her enemies. She made no expreſs declaration of reſiſtance, but as the compact for an armed neutrality, contained a clauſe which, in equivocal terms, reſerved the exiſting treaties, Great Britain continued practically the right of ſearch, bringing in and condemning neutral ſhips as before, and leaving to the contracting powers to commence hoſtilities if they conſidered themſelves aggrieved. The compact was however profeſſedly to laſt only during the war, and that the negotiations for peace might not be embarraſſed by a diſcuſſion of its principles, the hoſtile powers arranged them without availing themſelves of the mediation ſo frequently proffered by Ruſſia, Auſtria, and Pruſſia, and thus the compact was at an end. Far from conſidering that its principles ought to be perpetual, two of the powers who had taken the moſt active ſhare in it, Ruſſia and Sweden, during their war in 1790, exerted in their full extent the rights of detention and ſearch, and even augmented the liſt of articles which ſhould in time of war be deemed contraband.

In the early periods of the preſent war, the ſtate of the north preſented no proſpect of diſtreſſing Great Britain by renewing a league of hoſtile neutrality. Sweden and Denmark were aſſailed by all the factions who aſſumed the government of France, and by all the devices which art and ſophiſtry could ſupply; but declarations of neutrality, and a reſolution to maintain the law of nations, were the only reſults. America too, when urged by France to aſſert the new ſyſtem of maritime law, renounced it with becoming magnanimity, declaring in a note to Adet, in November 1796, that "the captures made by the Britiſh of American veſſels having "French property on board, are "warranted by the law of nations. "The force and operation of this "law was contemplated by France "and the United States when they "formed their treaty of commerce, and their ſpecial ſtipulation on this point was meant as "an exception to an univerſal "rule; *neither our weakneſs nor "our ſtrength have any choice when "the queſtion concerns the obſervance "of a known rule of the law of "nations.*"

This aſpect of affairs with reſpect to the northern powers of Europe was now, however, at an end. Indignant at the events attending the cloſe of the campaign in 1799, the Emperor of Ruſſia had withdrawn himſelf from the alliance againſt France, and, according to the violence of his mind, had changed from the warmeſt friendſhip to the moſt rancorous hoſtility againſt England. This diſpoſition had been perhaps conſiderably promoted by the renown acquired by the firſt Conſul of France, which dazzled the imagination of Paul, and was inflamed by all the art and addreſs of the French cabinet. The intrigues by which this change was promoted were ſoon in a train which promiſed ultimate ſucceſs; Paul appeared

appeared anxious only for the means of injuring Great Britain, and the principles of the armed neutrality began again to be avowed. It was not eaſy, after the ſtrictneſs of recent connexion, and the vigour with which Paul had exerted himſelf in the common cauſe, to imagine that the moſt violent enmity would ſuperſede all ſentiments of alliance and friendſhip; but ſuch was now the fact; old diſputes were revived, and new occaſions of offence ſtudiouſly ſought, for the purpoſe of making Great Britain recede from thoſe claims on which her naval ſtrength depended, or of furniſhing a pretext for hoſtilities.

To afford a clear inſight into the origin and nature of theſe controverſies it will be neceſſary to review ſome tranſactions of previous years.

CHAP. II.

Origin of diſputes reſpecting the right of ſearch. Neceſſities of the French government. Vigilance of the Britiſh navy. Detention and ſearch productive of diſputes of no conſequence till the laſt three years. Three Swediſh convoys appointed to the Mediterranean in the ſummer of 1798. *Extract from the inſtructions of the Swediſh government to Count Wrangell, the commanding officer of the firſt convoy. The Swediſh frigate and the merchant ſhips under her charge are met by Commodore Lawford, and detained under ſpecial orders from the Engliſh Admiralty. Capture of a ſecond Swediſh convoy. Negotiations, litigation, and appeal on the ſubject. Ruſſia friendly to England at the period of this deciſion. A treaty formed in* 1799 *between Ruſſia and Sweden affords no proſpect of an armed neutrality. Diſpoſition of the Emperor of Ruſſia at the cloſe of the year* 1799. *His declaration to the members of the German empire. He cauſes Napper Tandy to be given up by the government of Hamburgh. Alteration of his diſpoſition in* 1800. *Affair of the Daniſh Captain Van Dockum. Correſpondence on this ſubject. Doctrines laid down by Count Bernſtorff. The Freya, a Daniſh frigate, convoys ſome merchantmen, reſiſts ſearch according to inſtructions, and is taken. Lord Whitworth diſpatched to Elſineur. Supported by a ſquadron under Admiral Dickſon. Correſpondence with Bernſtorff renewed. Remonſtrance of Lord Whitworth. Bernſtorff offers to refer the diſpute to the Emperor of Ruſſia. This propoſal declined. A Convention concluded. The Emperor of Ruſſia publicly invites Pruſſia, Denmark, and Sweden to renew the armed neutrality of* 1780. *He ſequeſters Britiſh property in his dominions. New diſpute between England and Sweden. The Minotaur makes forcible uſe of a Swediſh ketch to cut out a Spaniſh frigate from the harbour of Barcelona. Angry remonſtrance of Spain. Second remonſtrance. Tardy and cool anſwer of Sweden. Remonſtrance of the Dutch government. Anſwer of Sweden. Renewed remonſtrance of Spain. Decided hoſtility of the Emperor of Ruſſia. Breaks forth on the capture of Malta. The Emperor Paul grand maſter of the order. His military preparations againſt England.*

England. Addreſs of the Ruſſian priſoners of war to the Firſt Conſul. Publication of France againſt the commerce of England. Embargo in Ruſſia on Britiſh veſſels. Board of commiſſioners appointed to manage Britiſh property. The Engliſh captains and crews of ſhips ſent up the country priſoners. Conduct of the King of Pruſſia at this period. His troops enter Cuxhaven. Remonſtrance of Lord Carysfort on the ſubject. Evaſive anſwer of Count Haugwitz. Rumours of intended operations againſt England. An armed neutrality concluded and avowed. Its principles.

IN all periods of the war, the neceſſities or the intriguing diſpoſition of the French government had furniſhed to the nations which remained neuter, and even to ſome of thoſe who joined in the grand alliance, motives and pretexts for attempting a contraband trade. The ſcarcity of proviſions which afflicted France in the beginning of the war, and the want of many articles of military and naval equipment during the latter years, preſented ſtrong temptations to the genius of commerce; and the advantage of trade made the ſpeculators regardleſs of principle, though not fearleſs of riſk. The force and vigilance of the Britiſh navy, which formed a ſtrict blockade of almoſt all the ports where the enemy could expect great ſupplies, and the perſeverance with which the rights of ſearch and detention were exerciſed, occaſioned perpetual altercations and many references to the naval tribunals of England, the particulars of which are not worthy of detail, except thoſe which in the late years involved the intereſts of Sweden and Denmark, and which finally, by the artful intervention of France, and the unexpected irritation of Ruſſia, produced the confederacy in the north of Europe.

In the ſpring of 1798 the Swediſh government appointed ſeveral frigates to convoy three fleets of merchant veſſels, which were intended ſucceſſively to ſail to the ſouth of Europe; principally to ports in the Mediterranean. The motive privately aſſigned for this meaſure was, that hoſtilities then exiſted between Sweden and ſome of the piratical States of Africa. Notice was given to the merchants of that country reſiding in England, in order that they might, if they thought proper, ſend any veſſels to join the convoys; but the Court of Stockholm had not made any communication on the ſubject to the Court of London, as Guſtavus the Third had done, when he reſorted to a ſimilar meaſure during the American war. In the mean time the Britiſh government had received information, which there was reaſon to ſuppoſe authentic, that theſe veſſels were laden with naval ſtores for the enemy; and in conſequence iſſued ſuitable orders to excite the vigilance of our cruizers in the North Seas.

The firſt of theſe convoys ſailed in June, laden with pitch, tar, iron, and timber, mixed with ſome other articles of a leſs diſputable nature. The commanding officer, Count Wrangell, was inſtructed, "If he ſhould meet with any "ſhips of war of other nations, "or one or more of any fleet "whatever, to treat them with "all poſſible friendſhip, and not "give any occaſion of enmity; "but

" but if they would make any " ſearch among the merchant " ſhips under his convoy, which " ought to be endeavoured to be " prevented as much as poſſible, " then in caſe ſuch thing ſhould " be inſiſted upon, and remon- " ſtrances could not be amicably " made, and notwithſtanding his " amicable comportment, the mer- " chant ſhips ſhould nevertheleſs " be violently attacked, violence " muſt be oppoſed againſt vio- " lence."

They were encountered in the North Seas by a Britiſh ſquadron under Commodore Lawford. The caſe was one of peculiar delicacy. The Commodore, therefore, after learning what were the cargoes, and deſtination of the convoy, called a council of war, in which it was reſolved to write to the Admiralty for ſpecific directions. An anſwer was received within three days; and the Commodore immediately ſent an officer to notify that he was ordered to carry the Swediſh convoy into a Britiſh port. Count Wrangell in return communicated the purport of his inſtructions, and formally announced his intention to reſiſt. The Britiſh Commander acted with exemplary caution as well as ſteadineſs, and endeavoured to make the adverſe party the aggreſſor without compromiſing his own duty. With this view he ſent to take poſſeſſion of a veſſel under the eye of the Swede, who diſpatched his boat to remove the prize-maſter. This drew on new communications, and without any general ſearch having been attempted, or the papers of any of the veſſels even demanded, Count Wrangell ultimately conſented to go in with the convoy, and leave the affair to the deciſion of the two Courts.

A negociation of ſome length enſued. An offer was made on the part of his Majeſty to permit the veſſels which were bound to Portugal and other neutral countries to proceed on their voyage, to releaſe the reſt of the ſhips, and pay the value of the cargoes, according to an uſage which had been eſtabliſhed by the practice of ſeveral ſucceſſive wars. This was founded on a natural diſtinction taken by writers on the Law of Nations, who divide the articles of merchandize into ſuch as are clearly noxious, ſuch as are clearly innocent, and ſuch as are of doubtful uſe, applicable equally to purpoſes both of war and peace. The laſt of theſe claſſes can only be referred to one or other of the former two, on evidence of the intended application; a fact generally to be determined only by preſumptions ariſing out of circumſtances liable to much debate. To avoid queſtions, therefore, which muſt neceſſarily produce much litigation, and terminate, if in the reſtitution of ſome cargoes, yet in the abſolute confiſcation of others, and at the ſame time to make an equitable diſcrimination in favour of the proper trade of each country in its own productions, Great Britain, in a juncture, which might have warranted the ſtrongeſt proceeding, had begun, and from a liberal policy had afterwards continued, to content herſelf with ſtopping and purchaſing at a fair price, certain of theſe doubtful commodities, when going to the enemy from the place of their growth, on account of merchants of that country. The Swediſh Miniſter, however, refuſed

fuſed to acknowledge this right of pre-emption, as it is called; contending and inſiſting that theſe cargoes ought to paſs free according to the ſtipulations of our treaties with his ſtate.

While this diſcuſſion was going on, a ſecond Swediſh convoy was brought into our ports. As a conſiderable proportion of this fleet had no one article on board of the kind, which we comprize under the general denomination of naval ſtores, it was early notified to the Swediſh Miniſter, that all the ſhips ſo laden with innocent cargoes were at liberty to depart. They were preparing to avail themſelves of the permiſſion, when it being thought neceſſary to bring to iſſue the right of neutral powers to ſend armed convoys, with a claim of exempting the merchant ſhips under their charge from viſitation and ſearch, all of both convoys were detained, their papers then demanded, and proceedings inſtituted againſt the whole.

This queſtion was important, and not without its difficulties. The right had been aſſerted or exerciſed in almoſt every war ſince the treaty of Weſtphalia by one nation or other, and by moſt of the nations of Europe in their turn, when neutrals,—even by Great Britain againſt Sweden; but it had alſo been as frequently denied or reſiſted by the ſame nations when belligerents, and among others by Sweden againſt Great Britain. Theſe were however principally, if not wholly, political acts on the one ſide or the other. There ſeemed to be, as if by common conſent, a cautious avoidance of puſhing the queſtion to a direct and poſitive determination in a court of juſtice. It was now to be judicially ſettled. The learned judge of the Admiralty, therefore, was anxious to have the fulleſt information. When the caſe of the convoy, firſt taken, originally came before him, he directed a more ample diſcloſure of the facts on both ſides. Ultimately he condemned all, but one ſhip bound to Portugal, which had been actually releaſed and ſeized again. His very able argument in aſſigning his reaſons has been publiſhed at large, and could not be abridged without injury. An appeal was proſecuted from his deciſion. All the leading members of adminiſtration ſat as Judges, and in May, 1800, confirmed what had been done by the Judge of the Admiralty, but to the apparent diſappointment of the foreign Miniſters, moſt of whom attended the court with great anxiety for the event, the grounds of this final determination were not ſpecifically declared.

The doom of the ſecond convoy was ſuſpended till that of the firſt ſhould be finally fixed. In the mean while, from events which we ſhall preſently have to relate, the queſtion aſſumed a ſtill more ſerious aſpect, which produced a further ſuſpenſion. No judgment was given in theſe caſes till long after the time, when this, and other pretenſions of neutral rights had been the cauſe of a rupture, and the ſubject of one convention with the Northern Powers generally, and another particularly with Sweden, in conſideration of which we conſented to pay the value of both convoys agreeably to our original propoſal. Then the ſecond followed the fate of the firſt convoy with the ſame exception in favour of

thoſe

thoſe ſhips which had been intended to be releaſed.

During the proſecution of this affair, in its early ſtages, the connexion between Great Britain and Ruſſia did not allow a chance that it would give riſe to any ſpirit which could favour the formation of an armed confederacy in the north injurious to the Engliſh intereſt. Even ſo late as the 16th of December, 1799, a treaty of alliance concluded between Ruſſia and Sweden contained not the ſlighteſt intimation of the principles of the armed neutrality.

At the cloſe of the year 1799, there were, in fact, no appearances of diſguſt towards England in the conduct of the Emperor of Ruſſia. Diſpleaſure at the events which took place towards the end of the campaign was evident, and perhaps juſtifiable. In September, 1799, Paul had addreſſed to the members of the German Empire a declaration of his reſolution to ſupport the common cauſe of Europe, and reſtore royalty in France, provided his views were properly ſeconded by the powers of Germany; but if that were not the caſe, he threatened to recall his forces, and give up a cauſe ſo badly ſupported by thoſe who ought to have the greateſt ſhare in its triumph. After the diſaſters which had overwhelmed his armies in Switzerland, he acted in conformity to this declaration; but although great pains were then taken to infuſe prejudices into his mind reſpecting the expedition to Holland, he remained on amicable terms with England; and in November, 1799, Napper Tandy, the Iriſh rebel, and his companions, were ſeized at Hamburgh, and given up to Great Britain; and ſome Frenchmen of ſuſpicious character were expelled from that city through his intervention.

The events of the following year produced a material change in the mind of this capricious potentate. His troops were not allowed to act in the continental campaign, and, by degrees, he began to ſhew himſelf the admirer of Bonaparte, and the enemy of England. The principles of the armed neutrality, enforced by artful aſſertions of the naval tyranny of Great Britain, and by appeals equally artful to the magnanimity of the northern potentates, co-operated with perſonal motives of diſpleaſure in producing a determination to renew the queſtion, by compelling Great Britain in the aſſertion of the law of nations, and the ſtipulations of treaties, to commit ſome act of hoſtility.

For the accompliſhment of this purpoſe, Denmark ſoon after afforded an occaſion. Reſiſtance, attended with violence, had been oppoſed to the Britiſh claim of the right to ſearch in December, 1799. The Engliſh frigates, Emerald and Flora, met near the Straits of Gibraltar a Daniſh frigate, named the Haſenau, commanded by Capt. Van Dockum, eſcorting a convoy. To enquiries made by an Engliſh officer ſent on board reſpecting his deſtination, the Dane anſwered Gibraltar; the Engliſh officer replied, that if he meant to ſtop at that port he ſhould not viſit the convoy, but otherwiſe he muſt. Van Dockum ſaid, he ſhould in that caſe make reſiſtance, and when the boat of the Emerald approached the convoy muſketry was actually fired from the

the Daniſh frigate, a Britiſh ſailor wounded, and the boat of the Flora, which the Dane had ſeized, was not releaſed till the Engliſh Captain threatened immediate hoſtilities. Van Dockum then joined his convoy in the Bay of Gibraltar; but although required by Lord Keith, refuſed to ſhew the inſtructions, by virtue of which he had proceeded; verbally declaring, that, in firing into the King's boats, he had only fulfilled his orders. In a ſubſequent conference, in the preſence of the Governor of Gibraltar, it is ſaid, that he repeated the ſame aſſertion, and promiſed to ſurrender himſelf before a judge; but that on his return to his ſhip, he thought fit to diſavow the engagement which he had made, and ſailed away with his convoy.

This affair was the cauſe of ſome correſpondence between the Britiſh and the Daniſh governments. Mr. Merry, the Chargé des Affaires at Copenhagen, made a mild repreſentation of the facts, inſiſted on the right of viſiting and examining merchant veſſels on the high ſeas, and demanded from the Daniſh government diſavowal, apology, and reparation.

April 10, 1800.

In anſwer to this letter, Count Bernſtorff, the Daniſh Miniſter, aſſerted, that as the right of ſearch was not natural, but merely conventional, its effects could not be arbitrarily extended beyond what was agreed to without violence and injuſtice. But no maritime independent power had ever acknowledged the right of permitting neutral ſhips to be ſearched when eſcorted by ſhips of war, nor could they do ſo without expoſing their flag to degradation, and forfeiting an eſſential portion of their own rights. This doctrine, he ſaid, was now acknowledged in a number of treaties concluded between the moſt reſpectable Courts in Europe. When the papers of ſhips were in ſtrict order, no further examination could be legally enforced. By eſcorting with its armed veſſels the commercial ſhips of its ſubjects, a neutral ſtate afforded to the belligerent powers the moſt authentic and poſitive pledge of the regularity of their cargoes, nor could it under ſuch circumſtances, without incurring diſhonour and diſgrace, admit of the leaſt ſuſpicion. From theſe and ſimilar reaſonings, the Daniſh Miniſter inferred that Captain Van Dockum, by repulſing a violence which he had no right to expect, had done no more than his duty; and that it was on the part of the Engliſh frigates that the violation of the rights of a neutral ſovereign, and of a power friendly to his Britannic Majeſty, had been committed. Inſtead therefore of granting the reparation demanded by Mr. Merry, Count Bernſtorff required, in the name of his ſovereign, the compenſation due to him, and which, from the juſtice and friendſhip of his Britannic Majeſty, he had a right to expect.

In this ſtate of affairs, another Daniſh frigate, named the Freya, commanded by Capt. Krabbe, was appointed to convoy ſome merchant ſhips, and inſtructed to reſiſt any attempt of the cruizers belonging to either of the belligerent powers to ſearch or interrupt the veſſels under his protection. At the mouth of

July 25, 1800. of the channel he fell in with four Engliſh frigates *, a brig, and a lugger. He awaited their coming alongſide, and on a Britiſh officer's deſiring to ſearch the convoy, anſwered by a direct refuſal, but offered to lay all the ſhip's papers before the Britiſh Commander. An Engliſh frigate then approached one of the convoy, and fired with ball for the purpoſe of bringing her to, which ſhot was returned. A parley enſued, in which Krabbe perſiſted in refuſing a ſearch; and, in purſuance of his threats, actually gave orders to fire on a boat which attempted it, though the gun only flaſhed, and did not take effect. The Engliſh frigates immediately attacked him, and, after a ſhort engagement, in which ſeveral men were killed and wounded on both ſides, brought the Freya and her convoy into the Downs. Conſiderable delicacy was obſerved in the circumſtances of their detention; two Engliſh officers and thirteen men unarmed were put on board the frigate, and Krabbe was allowed free intercourſe with the ſhore, though the ſhips of the convoy did not experience the ſame indulgence.

This caſe requiring prompt and active exertion, Lord Whitworth was diſpatched to Elſineur to demand ſatisfaction from the Daniſh government; and Admiral Dickſon, with a reſpectable ſquadron of men of war, bombs and gun veſſels †, was deſired to attend for the purpoſe of giving effect to his remonſtrances. The Admiral, after remaining for a ſhort period before Copenhagen, removed to the road of Elſineur, leaving a chain of communication between himſelf and Copenhagen, compoſed of bomb and gun veſſels, which at once ſerved as a telegraph to carry on correſpondence, and threatened the city of Copenhagen with bombardment.

While theſe manœuvres were performed, the Britiſh Embaſſador preſſed the ſubject of his miſſion on the Daniſh Miniſter. He found him not diſpoſed to recede from the principles of his note to Mr. Merry, and therefore combated thoſe novel and abſurd poſitions by a plain and demonſtrative argument. "If the "principle," he ſaid, "be once "admitted that a Daniſh frigate "may guarantee from all ſearch "ſix merchant ſhips, it follows "naturally that that ſame power, "or any other power, may, by "means of the ſmalleſt ſhip of war, "extend the ſame protection to "all the commerce of the enemy "in all parts of the world: it will "only be neceſſary to find in the "whole circle of the univerſe a "ſingle neutral ſtate, however in-"conſiderable it may be, well diſ-"poſed enough toward our ene-"mies to lend them its flag, to "cover all their commerce, with-"out running the leaſt riſk; for "when examination can no longer "take place, fraud fears no diſ-"covery." He inſiſted anew on the ſatisfaction which the King had required, and declared, that unleſs a ſatisfactory reply were given, Aug. 21.

* The Nemeſis, 20 guns; Prevoyante, 36; Terpſichore, 32; Arrow, 20.

† The Monarch, Glatton, Polyphemus, Ancient, Romney, Iſis, Waakzemheid, and Martin; Volcano, Hecla, Sulphur, and Zebra, bombs; Boxer, Furious, Griper, Suinger, and Haughty, gun veſſels.

he must quit Copenhagen with the King's mission in a week.

Five days elapsed before Bernstorff returned an answer to this letter, and then he attempted by feeble assertions to invalidate Lord Whitworth's arguments, and insidiously proposed a reference to the Emperor of Russia. To this note the British Ambassador replied, the next day, declining any animadversions on the arguments advanced; and refusing, in terms of civility and respect, the proposed intervention of the Emperor, as the Court of Denmark, introducing into the discussion the same frankness as the Court of London, and the same desire of preventing speedily all objects of fatal misunderstanding, would find out the means of effecting this object without difficulty. In fact, the overawing movements of the British squadron produced the desired effect; for the Danes, after vainly essaying several manœuvres, found their ships of war cut off from protecting Copenhagen, which the English could have bombarded without fear of the batteries; and under these circumstances, Lord Whitworth and Count Bernstorff executed a convention, which, for the present, terminated, or rather suspended, the dispute. They agreed that the question with regard to the right of searching neutral ships sailing under convoy, should be referred to a future discussion; the Freya and her convoy released, and the frigate repaired in British ports; and the King of Denmark was to order no more convoys till ulterior explanations on this point should have given rise to a definitive treaty.

Aug. 26.

Aug. 29.

This compact appears to afford no competant satisfaction to Great Britain; the Danish government disavows no principles, and foregoes no claim, but obtains the release of her vessels, certainly not less liable to confiscation than those of Sweden, on which judgment had been before pronounced, and even the repairs of her offending frigate in the very ports of the country whose maritime rights had been invaded, and her sailors killed in defending them. Nor was the dispute even settled; it was merely adjourned, and the British force withdrawn, till Denmark should gain time, strength, and assistance to resume an offensive position, and assert again with force those principles, from which she did not, even at the moment of danger, appear willing to recede. Yet allowing the truth of these objections, the conclusion of the treaty was preferable, according to appearances, to hostilities, not with Denmark alone, but with Russia, Sweden, and Prussia, which must have followed the adoption of the only measures capable of insuring complete satisfaction. The Emperor of Germany was yet in the field, and he would have had great reason to complain, if, at a period of distress and danger, his circumstances had been rendered more inauspicious by the selfish inflexibility of Great Britain.

The Emperor of Russia, without loss of time, issued a letter, recapitulating the treaty of armed neutrality formed in 1780, extolling its beneficial effects, lamenting that the circumstances of the present war had prevented the renewal of it, complaining of the seizure of

August 16, 28.

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the Freya and her convoy, and for the prevention of ſuch acts in future; inviting Pruſſia, Denmark, and Sweden to concert with him meaſures which would be ſucceſſively communicated for reſtoring, in their full force, the principles of an armed neutrality, to ſecure the freedom of the ſeas. Indignant at the ſpirited enterprize which had extorted the treaty from the Danes, Paul iſſued an Edict, inveighing againſt the violent behaviour of the Engliſh towards Denmark, their having paſſed the Sound, and blocked up the paſſage, and ordering a ſequeſtration to be laid on all Britiſh property, ſo that none ſhould be tranſported out of Ruſſia without permiſſion.

Aug. 29, Sept. 9.

At this period new cauſes of contention were ariſing between Great Britain and Sweden, and another event contributed to inflame to the higheſt pitch the violence and animoſity of the Emperor of Ruſſia.

The new ground of diſpute with Sweden aroſe, according to the account of the captain who made his proteſt on oath on the ſubject, in the following manner: On the 4th of September the Swediſh ketch Hoffnung fell in with the Britiſh ſhip Minotaur, and a frigate, which were blockading the ports of Barcelona. The Swede was boarded, and his papers examined, but although they were found perfectly ſatisfactory, he was obliged to follow the Britiſh veſſels who kept ſtanding in towards land; and on the approach of night ſent ſeveral officers and men on board, compelled the Swedes to preſerve ſilence, and towed them into the road. A Spaniſh frigate fired, but the Engliſh being within the batteries took to their boats, and captured her and another frigate, which they carried off in ſafety. A man on board the Hoffnung was mortally wounded by the firing from the Spaniſh frigate.

Hoping to intereſt Sweden in the quarrel ſo far as to reſent the injury offered to the neutrality of her flag, the Chevalier d'Urquijo, the Spaniſh Miniſter for foreign affairs, addreſſed to the Swediſh Miniſter a letter, containing a narrative of the facts inforced by the report of the Swediſh Conſul to the Captain General of Catalonia. "This action," d'Urquijo obſerved, "ſhould it remain unpuniſhed, "would tend to embroil two "friendly nations, to annihilate "their commercial relations, and "to make the flag, which ſhould "ſuffer it, to be conſidered as a "ſecret auxiliary of the hoſtile "power, and thus force Spain to "purſue thoſe meaſures which the "intereſts of its ſubjects and the "ſecurity of its ports would re-"quire." "The King, my maſter," he proceeded, "has order-"ed me to convey to his Swediſh "Majeſty an account of this "grievous inſult offered to his "flag; and, not doubting of the "reſentment he will feel on ac-"count of a proceeding ſo baſe "and diſloyal on the part of the "naval officers of his Britannic "Majeſty, he expects that the "Court of Stockholm will require "of the Engliſh miniſtry, in the "moſt urgent manner, that the "officers who have rendered them-"ſelves culpable on this occaſion "ſhall be ſeverely puniſhed; and "that the two Spaniſh frigates "ſurprized, and carried from the

Sept. 19.

" road of Barcelona, by a ſtrata-
" gem ſo contrary to the rights of
" nations, and the rules of war,
" ſhall be immediately reſtored,
" with their cargoes, as being
" illegally captured by means of a
" neutral veſſel, which ſerved as
" an inſtrument in the hands of
" the aſſailants. If, contrary to
" all expectation, the ſteps taken
" by his Swediſh Majeſty to ob-
" tain from the Court of London
" reparation for the inſult offered
" to his flag, as well as reſtitution
" of the two frigates, ſhould not
" be attended with ſucceſs before
" the end of the year, his Majeſty
" will ſee himſelf obliged, though
" with regret, to purſue, in re-
" gard to the Swediſh flag, ſuch
" meaſures of precaution as may
" in future protect his ports and
" harbours from an abuſe ſo dan-
" gerous, and ſo inſulting, as that
" which has been lately commit-
" ted by the Engliſh."

Whatever might be the motives which actuated the Cabinet of Sweden, this peremptory letter did not produce the effect its writer ſeems to have expected. It remained unanſwered on the 17th of October, when the Chevalier de Huerta, the Spaniſh Embaſſador to the Court of Stockholm, wrote to Baron Von Ehrenheim, the Swediſh Miniſter, to remind him that the complaint was not tranſmitted merely as a matter of form to ſave appearances, and then to be conſigned to oblivion; the common intereſts of all Europe were involved, and were Sweden to ſhut her eyes to ſuch a crying outrage, ſhe would be reſponſible for the misfortunes which might enſue.

Although the conduct of Ruſſia towards England at this period might have inſpired the Swedes with ſuch ſentiments as would produce a forcible anſwer; that which was delivered by Baron Ehrenheim was far from ſatisfactory. It ſtated the concern of the King of Sweden at the incident complained of, and his agreement in the ſentiments of his Catholic Majeſty, and he promiſed to make remonſtrances to the Britiſh Court; but he obſerved that the juſtice of Spain would undoubtedly leave to him the free choice of the forms and means to be employed in this negotiation, nor attempt to limit any preciſe time or mode of reſtoration. " Spain and " all Europe," he ſaid, " is ac-
" quainted with the long proceſs
" which Sweden has carried on in
" London on the ſubject of re-
" ſtoration, and there can be no
" reaſon to expect that ſpeedier
" juſtice will be done in a cauſe
" which requires reſtitution to be
" made to an enemy." It could not be alleged that the government and people of Sweden were involved in the affair which had taken place, and it would be much to be lamented, ſhould the injuſtice of a third power be able to break connexions which ſeveral direct diſcuſſions during the war had not altered. Unfortunate events of this nature had frequently taken place, and ſome, as if they were peculiar to the Spaniſh ports. A Swediſh ſhip, which was taken in the harbour of Paſſage itſelf, a ſecond Swede plundered, and entirely deſtroyed by the French in Alicant, and ſeveral others taken by the French privateers at the entrance of the harbour of Malaga, had occaſioned his Swediſh Majeſty to make friendly repreſenta-

Oct. 22.

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tions and remonſtrances to the Court of Spain, to procure reſpect and ſecurity to the trade of his kingdom, and his Majeſty would have been happy to have ſeen on theſe occaſions the ſame energy which Spain now diſplayed in making complaints.

To prevent this capture from falling into oblivion through diſregard, the Dutch government thought fit to make a remonſtrance to that of Sweden, declaring, that if the Engliſh, deaf to the voice of honour, and to the repreſentation of his Majeſty, did not make, before the expiration of one year, the reparation demanded, the Batavian government would find itſelf reduced to the harſh neceſſity of concerting with its allies the neceſſary means for ſecuring its ports from any violence ſimilar to that which had been exerciſed againſt the Swediſh flag. To this letter the Swediſh Chancellor replied, that with reſpect to the term of a year pointed out for the purpoſe of obtaining reparation from England, he did not think himſelf by any means circumſcribed. If unexpected obſtacles ſhould interfere to prevent the removal of the exiſting difficulties, he ſhould not deem himſelf reſponſible for any abuſe of the Swediſh flag, which the belligerent powers might chooſe to employ by way of repriſals againſt England more than he did for the abuſe which Great Britain had committed againſt Spain. "It is probable," he added, "that the "Court of London, *for its own* "*ſafety*, will prevent ſimilar irre-"gularities in future."

Theſe letters were publiſhed at Stockholm on the 30th of November, before which period the conduct of Ruſſia had become decidedly hoſtile, and left little room to expect that the termination of diſputes could be effected by peaceable means. It occaſioned therefore the greateſt ſurprize that Sweden ſhould not enter with more ardour into the diſpute, and this ſurprize produced from Spain before the end of the year an angry complaint of Dec. 29. the ſmall intereſt Sweden took in the buſineſs; her coldneſs, her feeble, indeciſive, and temporizing meaſures; and the King of Spain threatened, unleſs a more active ſyſtem was adopted, to ſubject Swediſh ſhips to all the ſeverity of the meaſures which circumſtances require to be exerciſed againſt ſuſpected veſſels.

The ſentiments of hoſtility which had ſo long been fermenting in the mind of the Emperor Paul, ſeemed to burſt forth with all their violence on the ſurrender of Malta to the Britiſh forces. In February 1799, the Emperor having, in conſequence of his protecting the knights, been elected Grand Maſter of the Order, iſſued a note to all the foreign miniſters at Peterſburg, apprizing them of the fact; and announcing, that his miniſters would receive no letters addreſſed to him in which that title was omitted. The long blockade of that iſland, the known diſtreſs of the French garriſon, and the impoſſibility of their receiving ſuccour from their own country, cauſed the ſurrender to be confidently anticipated; and whether Paul had met with an abſolute refuſal of his claims to the poſſeſſion, or whether ſilence alone on the part of the Britiſh miniſtry led him to conjecture that his pretenſions would

not be acceded to, it was evident that his diſpleaſure againſt England appeared more and more inveterate during the latter part of the blockade, and was diſplayed in its greateſt violence at the time of its ſurrender.

Malta fell into the hands of Great Britain on the 2d of September, 1800. Before the event could be known in Ruſſia, the Emperor had, as we have already mentioned, laid an embargo on Britiſh property in his dominions through reſentment, as it appeared, of the violence committed at Copenhagen. This act was immediately followed by an order for the formation of armies in Lithuania and Volhynia, and nine days afterwards a Proclamation appeared ordering further military preparations, and avowing as the cauſe of them the probability of a rupture with England.

Sept. 1, 13.

Now Ruſſia began, without diſguiſe, to throw herſelf into the arms of France, and to make evident demonſtrations of her deſire to league with that country againſt England. The Ruſſians, who had been captured in the campaign of 1799, and whom the Britiſh government had refuſed to receive in exchange for French priſoners, addreſſed a note to the Firſt Conſul, acknowledging with gratitude the kind treatment they had experienced, and requeſting permiſſion to wear their ſide arms, a favour which was probably not aſked without an aſſurance that it would be, as in fact it was, readily granted.

Sept. 20.

The French government anticipating the conteſt which might be raiſed between the northern powers and England, deſcanted in their official paper on the poſſibility of deſtroying the naval domination, which they repreſented as ſo grievous and even intolerable. "Let the ports of "the Continent," they ſaid, "be "ſhut againſt the Engliſh; let "them be indignantly repelled "from every part of the earth on "that element where they have "been ſolicitous of acting the "tyrants; let them be denied in "every quarter the means of re-"pairing the ravages of tempeſts, "and the decays of time; let "there be an end to the impru-"dence of attacking them by ſea "with unequal ſtrength; let them "ſpend their force in keeping "ſtations, and in carrying on "fruitleſs blockades; let them be "deprived of the opportunity of "compelling, by the threat of "puniſhment, the ſeamen of their "enemies or their allies from "ſerving on board their ſqua-"drons, and from converting their "priſoners into recruits or vic-"tims; and let the powers of "Europe have the courage to un-"dergo for ſome months, ſome "years, if it be neceſſary, pri-"vation, in order to avoid the "diſgrace of being the tributaries "of their commerce. It will "then be ſeen that proſperity, "founded upon fleets and ſhips, "has never yet been permanent."

Sept. 27.

Theſe declarations were certainly leſs intended to diſcloſe the ſentiments of the power which made them, than to encourage the hoſtile reſolutions of others, particularly Ruſſia and Pruſſia.

Ruſſia now publiſhed a declaration, expreſsly ſtating that the perfidious enterprizes of England endangered

dangered the independence of the maritime powers of the north, and rendered neceſſary an armed neutrality, the ſucceſs of which had been acknowledged during the American war. This declaration was followed by a new order for an embargo on all Britiſh veſſels in the ports of Ruſſia, and the reaſon aſſigned was, the capture of Malta by the Engliſh, while it was yet uncertain whether an agreement, ſaid to be entered into on the 30th of December, 1798, would be fulfilled. This agreement was ſtated to import that the iſland after capture ſhould be reſtored to the order of St. John of Jeruſalem, of which Paul was grand maſter, and he was determined to defend all his rights.

Nov. 7, 19.

This meaſure was followed by another ſtill more arbitrary and rigorous. A Proclamation iſſued the 17th — 29th of November ſtated, that complaints had been made by Ruſſian ſubjects, that large ſums were due to them from Engliſh merchants; but payment could not be obtained, and therefore an eſpecial board of commiſſioners was appointed for managing Engliſh property. It was to conſiſt of two Ruſſian merchants, two Engliſh, and two of other nations, and one member of the Imperial College of Commerce at St. Peterſburgh. They were to decide by a majority of votes; but in caſes where the intereſts of the Ruſſian commerce were involved, the opinion of the member of the College of Commerce was to ſuperſede the majority. The ſucceeding regulations were in theſe terms: "Every Britiſh merchant reſident "in Ruſſia, without excepting ſuch "as have ſubſcribed themſelves "viſitors, ſhall deliver to the "commiſſioners, in writing, a "ſtatement of all the balances of "accounts in their books, and a "ſchedule of effects and goods in "their poſſeſſion; and they ſhall, "when required, deliver to the "commiſſioners their books of accounts out of their accompting-houſes. Every Ruſſian ſubject "who has any claim or demand "upon an Engliſhman, of whatever nature or kind it may be, "or who is indebted to a Britiſh "ſubject, ſhall tranſmit an account of the particulars of ſuch "debts or claims to the commiſſioners within four months of "the date of the publication of "this ordinance in the newſpapers; and in default thereof, "the commiſſioners are not to "take cognizance of any claims "after that period. The commiſſioners are to diſpoſe of all "Engliſh effects now ſequeſtered, "and to receive all balances of "accounts, and to bring the "whole into one grand maſs. "The Ruſſian ſubjects ſhall receive out of the fund of the "Engliſh property, (collected as "before directed), after admiſſion "of the validity and juſtneſs of "the claimants, an equal dividend upon their reſpective demands, and full ſatisfaction." The barbarous iniquity of this ſeizure and appropriation was completed by a declaration that the commiſſioners ſhould not be accountable or reſponſible for their deciſions, nor ſhould there be any appeal againſt them by petition, or in any other way.

The next day a new order appeared, ſtating that the crews of two Engliſh ſhips, in the harbour

of Narva, had, on the arrival of a military force to put them under an arreſt in conſequence of the embargo, made reſiſtance, fired piſtols, and forced a Ruſſian ſailor into the water, and afterwards ſailed away, and ordering all the other britiſh veſſels in that harbour to be burnt. This command was not executed, but the ſailors and maſters of all the Engliſh ſhips in Ruſſia were made priſoners. The following was the authentic repreſentation of the ſtate of Britiſh ſubjects in Ruſſia at that period, as ſtated to the public by Stephen Shairp, Eſq. Conſul General of Ruſſia. "The perſons of Britiſh merchants," he ſaid, "have hi-
"therto remained unmoleſted, and
"what ready money they had in
"their poſſeſſion has not been
"ſeized; but their warehouſes
"are ſealed, and all their pro-
"perty is under ſequeſter. All
"the Britiſh ſhips and their car-
"goes are ſeized by the Ruſſian
"government. The captains and
"crews are marched into the in-
"terior of the country, in com-
"panies of one captain and ten or
"twelve ſeamen. They are diſ-
"tributed in above an hundred
"different towns, at one hundred
"to one thouſand miles diſtance
"from the capital. The Ruſſian
"government allows for their ſub-
"ſiſtence daily five copeaks in
"money (about three halfpence),
"a ſmall meaſure of rye flour,
"and one of buck wheat. Some
"Britiſh merchants at St. Peterſ-
"burgh advanced about forty
"thouſand rubles (a ruble is about
"half a crown) for their better
"accommodation, from which they
"furniſhed every captain with
"two hundred rubles for the uſe
"of himſelf and ten men, and
"bought for every man a ſheep's
"ſkin coat, a fur cap, a ſaſh, a
"pair of gloves, ſome warm ſhoes,
"and two pair of ſtockings.
"Kibitkas, or common carts of
"the country, are bought for moſt
"of the captains, and ſome old
"men; the reſt walk, and the
"peaſants furniſh horſes for the
"baggage." The number of ſhips thus detained was about three hundred.

While this violent and unjuſt proceeding cauſed no inconſiderable alarm and conſternation, the King of Pruſſia adopted a courſe which ſhewed his readineſs to concur in diſtreſſing England. A Pruſſian veſſel, called the Triton, laden with contraband articles, was captured at the entrance of the Texel by a Britiſh cruizer, and carried into the port of Cuxhaven. The King of Pruſſia having immediately ordered a diviſion of his army, employed for the oſtenſible purpoſe of maintaining the peace of the north of Germany, to enter the Bailiwick of Ritzebuttel, and village of Cuxhaven, the alarmed Senate of Hamburgh gave a ſum of money to the Britiſh captors, and reſtored the Triton. Lord Caryſfort, his Britiſh Majeſty's plenipotentiary at Berlin, remonſtrated with Count Haugwitz, the Pruſſian Miniſter, on the ſubject, but was aſſured that the intentions of the King were in no view hoſtile or contrary to the intereſts of Great Britain; but that the occupation of Cuxhaven had for its principal object the maintenance of the authority of his Pruſſian Majeſty, in his character of chief and protector of the neutrality of the north of Germany, and that it was conducted with the conſent

conſent of the city of Hamburgh itſelf. Not ſatisfied with this anſwer, Lord Carysfort addreſſed to Haugwitz a note, ſtating the circumſtances of the capture of the Triton; and obſerving that the occupation of Cuxhaven, by conſent of the Senate of Hamburgh, could only be in conſequence of particular conventions. He therefore claimed in favour of Britiſh ſubjects all the rights to which they had juſt pretenſions in a neutral port, belonging to a republic whoſe connexion with the ſtates of his Britiſh Majeſty was very ancient, and generally known, and which pretenſions could not be altered or invalidated by any convention between the King of Pruſſia and the Senate of Hamburgh. He hoped, therefore, that the occupation of Cuxhaven might be ſuſpended till the two courts could enter into mutual explanations, eſpecially as the meaſure might give occaſion to ill-diſpoſed minds to attribute to his Pruſſian Majeſty ſentiments oppoſite to juſtice and moderation, and to the harmony between him and the King of Great Britain. He added, that the reſidence of a large body of troops in ſo poor and ſmall a village would augment the miſery of the inhabitants, and that the city of Hamburgh having always poſſeſſed that place, ſo indiſpenſably neceſſary to the preſervation of the navigation of the Elbe, all which might trouble that poſſeſſion, derange ancient cuſtoms, and influence the pilots to ſeek a refuge elſewhere, would ſtrike a ſenſible blow at the commerce of all the countries of the north of Germany, and even at that of the ſtates of his Pruſſian Majeſty.

Nov. 16.

Two days afterwards Lord Carysfort having received further information, wrote again to Haugwitz, ſtating the reſtoration of the Pruſſian veſſel, and the alarm of the Senate of Hamburgh at the reported march of troops, which he ſtill hoped would not be carried into effect.

Nov. 18.

To theſe notes Haugwitz returned an anſwer, intended, as he ſaid, to completely tranquillize the anxieties and apprehenſions experienced by Lord Carysfort. The releaſe of the Triton was no leſs irregular than the previous proceedings, which were throughout a manifeſt infraction of the principles of the neutrality of the north of Germany. This conſideration, and the unjuſt refuſal of the magiſtracy of Hamburgh, dictated to the King the reſolution of cauſing a body of troops to occupy the port of Cuxhaven, and the bailiwick of Ritzebuttle. The meaſure was executed the moment it was reſolved upon, and therefore could not be revoked. Some arguments to prove that the meaſure could not be injurious to England, and a haughty declaration of the purity of the views of the King of Pruſſia, cloſed this hoſtile and almoſt contumelious communication. The declaration of the Pruſſian General Wedell, on entering the bailiwick, was conformable to the expreſſions uſed by Haugwitz; but he promiſed protection in the purſuit of their affairs, and enjoyment of their rights to the inhabitants, on condition, however, of their behaving in a peaceable, quiet, and proper manner to the troops under his command.

Theſe proceedings on the part of Pruſſia ſhewed the conſiſtency

and

and forwardneſs of the hoſtile combination againſt England. Rumours were already circulated that the army, collecting by the Emperor of Ruſſia, was intended to march over land to attack the Britiſh poſſeſſions in India; and a treaty had been concluded between Ruſſia and Sweden, which tended to eſtabliſh, as the rules of their maritime law, the ſyſtem of the armed neutrality of 1780, with extenſions and explanations deſtructive of the naval power, and conſequently hoſtile to the very exiſtence of Great Britain. The principles eſtabliſhed by this compact were,

Dec. 20.

1ſt. "Every ſhip may freely "navigate from one harbour to "another, and on the coaſts of "the belligerent nations.

2dly. "The effects which be- "long to the ſubjects of the belli- "gerent powers in neutral ſhips, "with the exception of contra- "band goods, ſhall be free.

3dly. "In order to determine "what ſhall be conſidered as a "blockaded harbour, ſuch deno- "mination ſhall be admitted to "apply only where the diſpoſition, "and number of the ſhips of the "power by which it is inveſted, "ſhall be ſuch as to render it ap- "parently hazardous to enter; "and that every ſhip which ſhall "go into a blockaded harbour, "that is evidently ſo blockaded, "violates the preſent convention "as much as if the commander of "the blockade had previouſly "adviſed it of the ſtate of the "harbour, and it had neverthe- "leſs endeavoured by force or "artifice to obtain admiſſion.

4thly. "With regard to neutral "ſhips, except thoſe which for "juſt reaſons and upon evident "grounds ſhall be detained, ſen- "tence ſhall be pronounced with- "out delay; the proceedings "againſt them ſhall be uniform, "prompt, and lawful. Over and "above the indemnity to which "they ſhall be intitled for the "damage they have ſuſtained, "complete ſatisfaction ſhall be "given for the inſult committed "againſt the flag of their Ma- "jeſties.

5thly. "The declaration of the "officers who ſhall command the "ſhip of war, or ſhips of war, of "the King or Emperor, which "ſhall be convoying one or more "merchants ſhips, that the con- "voy has no contraband goods on "board, ſhall be ſufficient; and "that no ſearch of his ſhip, or the "other ſhips of the convoy, ſhall "be permitted. And the better "to inſure reſpect to thoſe princi- "ples, and the ſtipulations found- "ed upon them, which their diſ- "intereſted wiſhes to preſerve the "impreſcriptible rights of the "neutral nations have ſuggeſted, "the high contracting parties, to "prove their ſincerity and juſ- "tice, will give the ſtricteſt or- "ders to their captains, as well "of their ſhips of war, as of their "merchant ſhips, to load no part "of their ſhips, or ſecretly to "have on board any articles, "which, by virtue of the preſent "convention, may be conſidered "as contraband; and, for the "more completely carrying into "execution this command, they "will reſpectively take care to "give directions to their courts

"of

" of admiralty to publiſh it when-
" ever they ſhall think it neceſ-
" ſary, and to this end, the re-
" gulation which ſhall contain this
" prohibition, under ſeveral penal-
" ties, ſhall be printed at the end
" of the preſent act, that no one
" may plead ignorance."

To this convention the Court of Denmark declared its intention to accede, Dec. 31. after a long interval of terror or reluctance, which gave great offence to Ruſſia. Thus was all the north of Europe combined in one general confederacy, if not dictated by, at leaſt congenial to the wiſhes of, France, and arranged and conducted with an evident and undiſguiſed deſign to effect the ruin of England.

CHAP. III.

State of the public mind in England as affected by ſcarcity. Deficient crops in 1799 and 1800. Effects of diſcuſſions on this ſubject. Prejudice againſt ſuppoſed monopolizers. Importation reſorted to. Its effect. Economy, and the uſe of ſubſtitutes. Exertions of the ſuperior claſſes to relieve the general diſtreſs. Riots in London and other parts. The public ſpirit depreſſed. Succinct view of the proceedings in Parliament on this ſubject. Mention of it in the ſpeech from the throne. The members in oppoſition aſcribe it to the war. The clamour againſt monopolizers diſcountenanced. The propoſition to fix a maximum decried. A Committee of the whole Houſe formed to fix bounties for encouraging importation. Meaſures adopted in purſuance of their recommendation. Select Committees formed in both Houſes. Bill prohibiting exportation. Firſt report of the Committee of the Commons aſcertaining the amount of the deficiency, recommending importation, the ſtoppage of diſtilleries, and a royal proclamation in favour of economy. Meaſures adopted in conſequence. Their ſecond report recommending the uſe of herrings, encouragement of the fiſhery in the Frith of Forth, and aſſociations for diſtributing the fiſh. Theſe recommendations agreed to. Third and fourth reports recommending the uſe of coarſe and mixed bread. Fifth report relating to the poor laws, and ſixth report containing proſpects of ſupply from abroad. Reports of the Committee of the Houſe of Lords. The firſt recommending the uſe of coarſe bread, and the ſecond on the cauſes of ſcarcity, and means of preventing it. Effects of the meaſures of Parliament. Diſcontent prevalent, and a general apathy.

WHILE this hoſtile confederacy was forming againſt the intereſts and even the exiſtence of Great Britain, the domeſtic ſituation of the country was full of alarm and diſtreſs.

The inclement ſummer of 1799 was ſucceeded by one little more beneficial to the fruits of the earth in 1800. In the former year continual rains, attended with a degree of cold, ſeldom experienced in this climate, had occaſioned an almoſt general deficiency in the crops; and in 1800 a ſhort period of unuſual heat, declining into an ungenial

ungenial autumn, afforded in ſome ſoils a moderate but haſty produce, while in others the failure was little leſs deplorable than in the preceding ſeaſon.

Scarcity of grain is at all times peculiarly diſtreſſing to government. The ſubject of procuring ſupplies of proviſion for the people has ever been diſcuſſed by writers of different opinions with warmth and pertinacity. The contradictions both in ſtatement and inference have been not leſs violent than thoſe on points of religion, and what is generally underſtood by the term politics. By theſe inveſtigations, however, many uſeful facts have been aſcertained, and the general reſult has been calculated to give ſpirit to agriculture, to repreſs profuſion in the uſe of the firſt neceſſaries of life, and to induce thoſe who think rightly, with patience to await favourable ſeaſons without yielding to deſpair, or ſeeking relief by means of violence.

But in every ſuch time of calamity there are men, who, inſtigated by party views, deluded by erroneous ſpeculations, or zealous to diſtinguiſh themſelves as patrons of ſome particular ſyſtem, are ready to magnify the preſent evil, and appeal to every paſſion and every feeling in ſupport of their opinions, regardleſs of the miſchief or danger to which they may give riſe. When the people feel the preſſure of want or calamity, they are eaſily perſuaded that avarice, cruelty, or mal-adminiſtration is the cauſe of their diſtreſs; and, in the preſent inſtance, they lent ready attention to the tales of conſpiracies and combinations among millers, cornfactors, foreſtallers, and monopolizers. They regarded with malevolence the ſmall ſtores retained in the hands of ſome farmers, and the prudential accumulations of dealers in grain, contemplating theſe, which were in fact their protection againſt famine, as the cauſe of dearneſs, while the ſcarcity was only imaginary.

It is affirmed by good writers on political economy, that, in the beſt years, the crops of grain do not produce a full ſupply for fifteen months conſumption; while the worſt ſeaſons are ſtated to afford more than ſufficient for ſix months. In the preſent inſtance two ſucceeding years had yielded bad crops; that of 1799 being almoſt the worſt ever known, and that of 1800 one fourth below the average; and the continually augmenting importation of preceding years ſeemed to ſhew that even an average crop would not be ſufficient for the conſumption of the increaſed population of the Britiſh dominions.

Under ſuch circumſtances, the ſuperior claſſes of ſociety, and the legiſlature, ſought to mitigate the preſſure of calamity by the means beſt calculated to produce that effect, and theſe were principally importation and thrift.

Importation is, in itſelf, a precarious, treacherous, and deluſive reſource. If the crop in England were to fail ſo abſolutely as to leave the country unprovided for ſix months, it is calculated that the deſolation of famine could not be averted by all the ſupplies which could be drawn from the reſt of the world. This reſource had been recently eſſayed in conſequence of the failure of the harveſt in 1795, and it was then found, that, beſides other diſadvantages, the

the vaſt exportation of coin and bullion occaſioned by the purchaſes in foreign markets, had conſiderable influence in cauſing that decreaſe of ſpecie, which in 1797 embarraſſed the government, and alarmed the nation. This effect was felt with aggravated force at the preſent period; and while the merchants of foreign nations ſold in England the very ſweepings and refuſe of their granaries at exorbitant prices, the people were rendered ſtill more diſcontented by perceiving a deterioration in the quality, while there was a frequent advance in the price of bread. They were taught alſo to believe that the warehouſes into which the grain thus difficultly obtained was received, were the depoſits in which avarice and extortion reſerved the means of gratifying themſelves by preying on the miſeries of the community.

In all caſes of deficiency of grain, economy and the uſe of ſubſtitutes are better, becauſe more certain and more abundant reſources than importation. Economy can beſt be practiſed by the ſuperior and middle claſſes of ſociety, becauſe their enjoyments are more numerous and varied than thoſe of the poor; but the uſe of ſubſtitutes for bread corn, and the adoption of thoſe expedients, by which a ſmaller is made to anſwer the purpoſes of a larger quantity, is open and beneficial to all. In the greater part of England, however, this leſſon is taught with difficulty, and learnt with reluctance. The general abſence of abſolute want, the copiouſneſs of eleemoſynary, and parochial ſupply, the ſpirit of commerce which excites large deſires for the purpoſe of creating great demands, and the liberal ſpirit of hoſpitality which induces every man to vie with his equals, while his mode of living is ſubject to their critical examination; all theſe are ſtrongly repugnant to the general reception of thoſe expedients which would enable the nation to economize grain in the times of plenty, and reſiſt the approaches of famine in thoſe of ſcarcity.

The weather which occaſioned the deficiency of grain in 1799, was no leſs unfavourable to the produce of thoſe vegetables which are moſt frequently recurred to as ſubſtitutes, but the corn which remained on hand prevented the riſing of bread to the enormous price which it afterwards bore. The great enhancement at the cloſe of 1800 exaſperated the inconſiderate, and furniſhed freſh topics to the factious, as it followed a ſeaſon of comparative plenty; but the reality of the ſcarcity was acknowledged by thoſe who had the candour to inveſtigate facts before they promulgated opinions. The members of the ſuperior claſſes of ſociety exerted a becoming ſpirit of economy and liberality to meet the trying occaſion. Aſſociations were formed for limiting to a moderate quantity the allowance of bread. To each individual in a houſe a quartern loaf for a whole week's conſumption was the ordinary portion; this ſyſtem was enforced from the head of the family down to the loweſt menial, and ſumptuary regulations were adopted to prevent profuſion even on thoſe days when company was invited, or entertainments given. The nobleſt and moſt wealthy perſonages in the realm joined in theſe efforts to

mitigat

mitigate the general calamity, and this patriotic parſimony was carried to the utmoſt ſtrictneſs in every article which required the uſe of flour.

Toward the poor, a wiſe and liberal ſyſtem of benevolence was generally practiſed. To have diſtributed bread, or ſupplied the means of purchaſing it without difficulty, would only have increaſed the cauſe of the evil, and rendered its effects at a future moment more grievous and intolerable. Eſtabliſhments were therefore formed, by public ſubſcription and private benevolence, for diſtributing to the indigent, in proportion to the number of their families, nutritious ſoups, formed of meat and vegetables. They were inſtructed and encouraged to ſupply themſelves with food which would enable them to diſpenſe with the uſual portion of bread, and the importation of various kinds of ſalted proviſion was liberally encouraged.

But theſe expedients, and theſe exertions, ſlowly and progreſſively adopted, could not produce general content, or prevent the clamours of wide ſpreading diſtreſs. The poor alone could be benefited by the diſtributions of the benevolent, but the claſs next above them felt the preſſure of the times with aggravated force. Bread was not dear alone, every other neceſſary of life was raiſed in price, or deteriorated in quality; the expences of individuals in articles of luxury were in conſequence contracted; manufacturers were leſs employed in proportion as the goods they fabricated were leſs in demand, and the diſtreſs of theſe claſſes occaſioned an unprecedented riſe in the rates for relief of the poor, carrying them in ſome parts of the kingdom to twice, or more than twice, the amount of the rents on which they were aſſeſſed. The artful and malignant cry againſt monopolizers and foreſtailers was not entirely unproductive of its intended effect. Riots were excited in Nottinghamſhire and Oxfordſhire, and for ſome days diſgraced the cities of London and Weſtminſter; where individuals were aſſaulted, windows broken, and private houſes as well as the Corn Exchange threatened with demolition; but the timely exertions and vigorous firmneſs of the volunteer aſſociations checked the ſpirit of licentiouſneſs, without allowing it to produce its moſt dangerous effects, or rendering the ſacrifice of lives either by the military or civil arm neceſſary. In other parts of the kingdom commotions were attempted, but with equal facility ſuppreſſed.

Yet although the public peace was not in any great degree violated, the public ſpirit was materially impaired. The gloomy proſpect abroad was rendered ſtill more dark by the impending cloud at home. Treaſon no longer appeared with the activity which had been diſplayed in early periods of the French revolution; but an apathy approaching to deſpondency began to be encouraged. Men liſtened to the falſe and dangerous doctrine that the war was the cauſe of dearneſs, if not of ſcarcity; and in proportion as embarraſſment and the improbability of ſucceſs in the great objects for which hoſtilities had been begun and maintained increaſed, an earneſt deſire for their termination at all events, and a

conviction that war was the ſole cauſe of every exiſting calamity were alſo augmented.

In the ſhort ſeſſion of parliament, which preceded the Chriſtmas receſs, the ſubject of ſcarcity occupied the principal attention of the legiſlature. It was mentioned in the ſpeech from the throne as the reaſon for aſſembling the ſenate at an earlier period than was originally intended, "No object," the King ſaid, "can be nearer my "heart, than that, by your care "and wiſdom, all ſuch meaſures "may be adopted, as may upon "full conſideration, appear beſt "calculated to alleviate this ſe-"vere preſſure, and to prevent "the danger of its recurrence by "promoting, as far as poſſible, "the permanent extenſion and im-"provement of our agriculture." Encouragement of importation, and economy in conſumption, were recommended; and while directing the attention of parliament to the complaints of unfair practices in trade, his Majeſty guarded againſt the adoption of the haſty prejudices on which thoſe complaints might be founded. "If it ſhall appear," he ſaid, "that the evil neceſſarily "ariſing from unfavourable ſea-"ſons has been increaſed by any "undue combinations, or fraudu-"lent practices, for the ſake of "adding unfairly to the price, "you will feel an earneſt deſire of "effectually preventing ſuch a-"buſes; but you will, I am ſure, "be careful to diſtinguiſh any "practices of this nature from "that regular and long eſtabliſhed "courſe of trade, which experi-"ence has ſhewn to be indiſpen-"ſable in the preſent ſtate of ſo-"ciety, for the ſupply of the "markets, and for the ſubſiſtence "of my people." He mentioned too, in terms of juſt cenſure, the diſturbances which had occurred in various parts of the kingdom, rightly aſcribing them to malicious and diſaffected perſons, who, cruelly taking advantage of preſent difficulties to excite the people to acts in violation of the laws, were themſelves doubly criminal.

Nov. 11, 1800.

Lord Holland in the Upper Houſe, and Mr. Sheridan, Sir Francis Burdett, and others in the Houſe of Commons, in oppoſing the addreſs, aſcribed to the war all the difficulties which afflicted the community; they were anſwered by Lord Grenville, and by Mr. Pitt, and other Commoners, who ſhewed that the periods at which Great Britain ceaſed to export and began to import corn were the years 1765 and 1770, times of profound peace; that in 1795 a great advance had taken place in grain, occaſioned by a failure in the crops; but in the three following years the price had been moderate, and even below that, which in the opinion of many afforded the farmer a fair profit on the capital and induſtry he was obliged to employ. They argued, therefore, that the aſſumption of their oppo-nents muſt be erroneous; becauſe if war was the occaſion of ſcarcity, or of dearneſs by increaſing conſumption, or extending taxation, the effect muſt be progreſſive, jointly with the cauſe; but, on the contrary, the ſcarcity had begun when war did not exiſt, and price had advanced, and been reduced irregularly, while the maintenance of war, and the increaſe of taxes, had been regular and unvarying.

To

To this argument Mr. Grey replied, "It appears from the moſt "authentic documents, that all "kinds of corn were dearer during the courſe of the ſeven years "of war, than during the ſeven "years which preceded it; and "that, excluſive of the years of particular ſcarcity, we have lately "experienced wheat has been eight "ſhillings per quarter higher during the five cheapeſt years of "the preſent war, than it was "between 1788 and 1793. War "muſt neceſſarily tend, in various ways, to produce the ſymptoms of ſcarcity. Thouſands "are taken from laborious and "productive occupations, to run "idle, and conſume what is produced by the labour of others. "If each of them does not exactly "eat five times as much as he did "before, yet certainly the effect "his change of life produces in "bringing on a ſcarcity is as "great as if he did; for, inſtead "of living on vegetable diet, he "muſt now be fed with beef and "mutton: and it is well known "that it requires five times as "much land to maintain a man "who lives on animal food, as "another who taſtes nothing but "vegetables."

But although in this point, which was the peculiar party view of the queſtion, ſentiments ſo widely oppoſite were expreſſed, yet members on both ſides concurred in other reſpects in opinions equally proper and liberal. The clamour againſt foreſtallers received no undue countenance; monopoly might have ſome ſhare in creating the high price; but in general the principles of Adam Smith were maintained, that all apprehenſion from unfair dealing was chimerical; that thoſe who bought and retained grain were the beſt and moſt faithful ſtewards for the community; and that in the preſent caſe particularly, when at the end of the late harveſt, the whole ſtock in hand did not exceed a month's conſumption; an advanced price and a rigid economy were the only means of averting an abſolute famine till the new crop ſhould be threſhed out, and brought into the market.

The notion of fixing a maximum of price on proviſions was recommended by one or two members, but was deſervedly cenſured by the enlightened of all parties. "In "the ſcarcity which happened in "the reign of Edward II." a learned civilian obſerved, "ſuch "an attempt was made: the conſequence was, that in the next "year there was ſo dreadful a "famine, that parents abſolutely "ate their own children."

No oppoſition was offered to a propoſition for the whole Houſe to reſolve itſelf into a committee to take into conſideration the encouragement to be given for the importation of corn, nor to one for ſtopping the diſtilleries; on the latter ſubject it was obſerved, that the number of cattle fed on the refuſe bore no proportion to the quantity of grain that would be ſaved and converted to the purpoſes of ſuſtenance.

In the committee of the whole Houſe reſolutions were framed, which when modified produced the following regulations and bounties:

That the average price of foreign corn in London ſhould be publiſhed weekly in the Gazette.

That

That on every quarter of imported wheat, weighing 424 pounds, a bounty ſhould be given equal to the ſum by which the average price publiſhed in the Gazette in the third week after its importation ſhould be leſs than one hundred ſhillings per quarter.

On every quarter of barley, weighing 352 pounds, a bounty rendering its price equal to fifty ſhillings.

On every quarter of rye, weighing 408 pounds, a bounty rendering its price equal to ſixty-three ſhillings.

On every quarter of oats, weighing 264 pounds, a bounty to equal forty ſhillings.

On every barrel of ſuperfine wheaten flour, weighing 196 pounds, a bounty making the price ſeventy ſhillings.

On every barrel of fine wheaten flour, weighing 196 pounds, ſold by auction, a bounty equal to ſixty-eight, ſeventy-eight, eighty, eighty-eight, and ninety ſhillings, according to the period of its importation.

On every hundred weight of rice from India a bounty, making the price equal to thirty-two ſhillings, and if from America equal to thirty-five ſhillings. The reaſon aſſigned for this difference was, that the rice from India, although brought from a greater diſtance, is purchaſed originally at a much lower price; but by a ſubſequent reſolution the bounties rendered them equal.

On every quarter of peaſe a bounty equal to ſeventy-five ſhillings, and on every quarter of beans a bounty equal to fifty ſhillings.

Theſe bounties were to be granted from the 1ſt of December, 1800, to the 1ſt of October, 1801.

In the Upper Houſe a ſelect committee of eighteen Peers was formed, but before it had made any report, a converſation took place, in which ſome Lords almoſt recommended a compulſory law, obliging the proprietors of grain to bring it to market, and ſell it at a certain fixed price. This baleful propoſition was however ably decried, particularly by the Lord Chancellor, and not reduced to a motion. Nov. 14.

In the Houſe of Commons a ſelect committee was alſo appointed to conſider of the high price of proviſions, but before it had made any report a bill was brought in for the continuation of the acts then expiring for prohibiting the exportation, and encouraging the importation of ſeveral articles of proviſion, duty free. Nov. 19.

The labours of the committee were comprized in ſix reports, preſented at different times to the Houſe.

In their firſt report they declined entering into a detailed enquiry reſpecting the cauſes which had concurred in producing the preſent preſſure, but directed their attention to ſuch meaſures as might be propoſed for its ſpeedy alleviation. No minute enquiry into the ſtate of the crop, or the ſtock in hand, could be made without great delay; even ſuppoſing that any mode had been ſuggeſted for conducting ſuch an enquiry, which afforded a reaſonable proſpect of ſufficient accuracy in the reſult, and which would Nov. 24.

not be attended with great if not insurmountable objections in the execution; nor could any result, attainable by the most detailed enquiry, lead to any practical conclusion, applicable to the present emergency. At the same time having many documents before them, which could be examined without much delay, and which, checked by the very extensive information of members from different parts of the country, appeared likely to enable them to form a general estimate of the crop, the committee had thought it right to avail themselves of those materials. They consisted of numerous returns to those enquiries which different departments of government had directed to be made, by the receivers of the land tax, by the various officers employed under the boards of taxes, stamps, and excise; and by those amongst the clergy, to whom circular letters for that purpose had been addressed by the bishops in each diocese. Though the returns were not complete from every county, yet the omissions, on the whole, were neither numerous nor important.

From these accounts it appeared that the deficiency in the crop of wheat in England and Wales (for they could not perfect their enquiry with regard to Scotland) below an average crop was not quite one fourth; and that those of barley and oats, though by no means uniformly good, were not materially inferior to an average crop. The grain was also superior in quality to that of the preceding year, but with respect to stock in hand, the reports on the whole did not furnish any ground for doubting the prevailing opinion, confirmed by the general information of the members who had attended the committee, that the stock of British corn at the harvest, was reduced far below its usual amount, and was in most places nearly, in many absolutely, exhausted. The farmers since the harvest, had had a double demand to supply out of the new crop, consumption and seed. The latter generally equalled six weeks consumption, but, at the present period, a large additional portion of land was sown with wheat; and although it afforded an encouraging prospect of future plenty, it added for the time to the difficulty of supplying the market.

They expected therefore a reduction in price when the seed should be all sown, and that the deficiency would be remedied by the double effect of importation and economy. The accounts of crops from many parts of Europe were good, although speculators had spread discouraging reports since the scarcity in England had become known, and in America the harvest was uncommonly abundant. They entertained hopes that arrangements might be made for adding to the supply of the market large quantities of fish and other salted provisions; stated, that the stoppage of distilleries would prove equivalent to the importation of at least 250,000 quarters of barley, and commended the mode in which encouragement was offered for importation of foreign corn as more likely to be effectual than that of the preceding year.

They recommended a royal proclamation in favour of economy, which was afterwards issued, and enforced the propriety of distributing parochial relief to the indigent,

not

not in money or bread, as uſual, but in wholeſome ſubſtitutes. To effect this purpoſe, a law was framed, and in their further proceedings they promiſed to give their moſt earneſt attention to the diſcuſſion of every propoſal which had for its object the relief of the preſent preſſure, or the prevention (as far as poſſible) of its recurrence.

Before the day appointed for taking this report into conſideration, the Houſe voted a bounty on Indian corn or maize, by which every quarter, weighing 408 pounds, was to be made in value fifty-five ſhillings; and that it would be expedient to permit herrings or other fiſh, the produce of the fiſhery carried on in Nova Scotia, New Brunſwick, Newfoundland, and on the coaſt of Labrador, to be imported in any Britiſh ſhip, without payment of duty, for a time to be limited.

Dec. 9. The ſecond report of the committee related to the procuring of ſalt fiſh to ſupply the wants of the poor, and it was ſhewn that in the Frith of Forth a fiſhery began in October, and continued till February, in which 1200 boats were employed, and the fiſh taken were calculated at 500,000 barrels, each containing about 1000 herrings. On a ſuppoſition that, by any exertions, this quantity could be doubled in the preſent ſeaſon, an additional ſupply of animal food would be obtained equal to the conſumption of two millions of perſons in three months, allowing three herrings a day to each perſon *; and none of the witneſſes examined, either before former committees, or recently, appeared to entertain any doubt of the poſſibility of an extenſion as great or even greater than was ſuppoſed, except what aroſe from the difficulty of ſuddenly collecting a great additional number of fiſhermen, provided with proper boats, nets, ſalt, and other materials for taking and curing the fiſh. The price of theſe herrings had been of late conſiderably advanced, but even under thoſe circumſtances they could be ſold by retail in London at two for a penny. The ſeaſon was arrived for obtaining the moſt copious ſupplies, and the committee recommended that as an encouragement, and means to derive to the public the greateſt poſſible advantage, ſalt, in proper quantities, ſhould be allowed, duty free, and the individuals engaged in the fiſhery protected againſt preſs warrants.

For the purpoſe of regulating the diſtribution and arrangement of this ſupply, and to remove the prejudices which at firſt uſually oppoſe the introduction of a new article of food, the committee recommended voluntary aſſociations to provide a portion ſuited to the wants of their reſpective diſtricts, and promote its conſumption by their perſuaſion and example. In all conſiderable towns a weekly ſupply might be provided and retailed to the inhabitants in general, as well as diſtributed to the poor by the overſeers in a certain proportion of their parochial relief.

The committee mentioned alſo that 10,000 barrels of pilchards were already cured, and prepared

* Theſe figures are taken from the Report as printed, but there is ſome miſtake; the number of herrings ſuppoſed would be 1000 million; the number conſumed by two million of perſons in ninety days, at three per diem each, would be 540 million.

for foreign markets, under the promiſe of a bounty to the proprietors; but they recommended that the bounty, as in juſtice it ought, ſhould be paid, and the fiſh retained for home conſumption.

The recommendations of the committee were agreed to by the Houſe. Dec. 11.

In their third and fourth reports the committee preſented the reſult of their enquiries on the dreſſing of wheat, and the manufacture of bread; and they recommended the following reſolutions as the baſis of a law, which afterwards received the ſanction of the legiſlature.

"That it will be expedient, "without delay, to prohibit, "from a day to be fixed, the "manufacture of flour or meal "from wheat or any other grain "finer than that which is dreſſed "through an 8s. 6d. ſeamed cloth, "or a patent cloth, No. 2, or "ſuch wire machine as produces "the ſame effect; and to prohibit "alſo, from a day to be fixed, "the uſe of any bread finer than "what is made of ſuch meal; "and that in the mean time it is "expedient to permit all kinds of "bread, except ſuch fine bread as "that upon which the aſſize is at "preſent ſet, to be made and ſold "without being ſubject to the re"gulation of aſſize.

"It alſo appears expedient, "that when the new aſſize ſhall "be eſtabliſhed, and the uſe of "fine bread prohibited, permiſ"ſion ſhould ſtill be given to "make any bread of inferior price, "either from the whole meal of "wheat, or with a mixture of "wheat and rye, barley, oats, "rice, or any other wholeſome "grain, without aſſize. By this "means a ſtill further economy of "wheat may be produced in ſuch "parts of the country as may "adopt the uſe of ſuch mixed "bread."

From ſpecimens produced to the committee it appeared, that wheaten meal of the quality recommended would make excellent bread, with a mixture of other ſpecies of grain. The uſe of ſuch mixed bread would alſo afford the means of bringing into conſumption ſuch fine flour as might be obtained by importation, as well as any ſmall quantities which might be left in the hands of the millers ſubſequent to the time when the uſe of fine bread would be prohibited.

The fifth report had for its principal object a repreſentation of the inſufficient operation of the poor laws in ſupplying relief in certain populous and needy pariſhes near the metropolis, particularly Bethnal Green, Mile End, and Spital Fields. In a ſupplement to the firſt report the committee offered to the Houſe evidence, particularly that of Mr. Bernard, treaſurer of the Foundling Hoſpital, to ſhew the great ſaving which might be effected by the uſe of rice, either alone or mixed with wheat flour; and in their ſixth report, preſented the ſame day, they entered at large into the probabilities of an ample ſupply from foreign countries, particularly America, and the effects to be expected from the various regulations which the Houſe had already adopted. Dec. 31.

The committee of the Upper Houſe co-operated with that of the Lower, and produced two reports. The firſt ſanctioned by the example and approbation of the peers the diſconti- Nov. 27.

nuance

nuance of unmixed wheaten flour, and recommended the combination with it of barley, oats, peas, or rye, and the adoption of ſubſtitutes.

Their ſecond report entered with great minuteneſs into the cauſes of the exiſting calamity, and the means of removing and preventing its return. Theſe were comprized under the various heads of "Deficiency of Crop"—"Importation"—"Means of economizing conſumption"—and "Freedom of circulation."—The topics were treated with great ability, and a large body of uſeful information collected. Dec. 15.

From theſe exertions, continued till the very day which terminated the exiſtence of the Britiſh parliament, the people were gradually deriving relief and benefit, but large numbers received them without expreſſing proportionate gratitude, or exhibiting confidence or content. To them it was in vain to inveſtigate remote cauſes, while they imagined their ſufferings to be derived from thoſe which were apparent and remediable. They regarded the accounts of deficient crops as a fiction invented to juſtify and ſcreen thoſe againſt whom they were incenſed without knowing why, the foreſtallers and regraters. They ſubmitted to the uſe of ſubſtitutes, and the practice of economy as to a meaſure of harſh and peremptory neceſſity, but felt no kindneſs towards thoſe who invented the means, or ſet the example. The laborious and luminous reports of the committees of the two Houſes were much leſs effectual in ſwaying the minds of the diſcontented, than the ſpeeches of thoſe, who in oppoſing or pretending to amend ſome of the meaſures, maintained that monopoly did exiſt, that the ſcarcity was fictitious, that the dearth was occaſioned principally, if not ſolely, by the war, and that all the projects of the committee would not produce ſo large a ſaving as would be effected by withholding oats from the horſes of the cavalry. That ſuch remarks ſhould not ſway the deliberations of either Houſe cannot afford ground for aſtoniſhment; but there is no aſſertion, however untrue, no argument however perverſe, which, in times of public diſtreſs, will not gain adherents in ſome claſs of the people.

A feveriſh deſire for peace was, in ſome degree, exaſperated by the production in parliament of a correſpondence between the governments of Great Britain and France, which took place in the courſe of the laſt year, and by ſome motions founded on it; but hoſtility to government was not diſplayed in meetings, addreſſes, petitions, or remonſtrances, it was rather negatively exhibited in gloom and ſullenneſs, in tacit diſapprobation, and malevolent apathy. Men moſt attached to government and the country ſaw abundant grounds for alarm and uneaſineſs, while thoſe who were hoſtile to both, or either, ſeemed to await, with ſcarcely diſſembled ſatisfaction, the progreſs of events which would fulfil their forebodings, and gratify their malignity.

Such were the general circumſtances at the cloſe of the eighteenth century, when a new era of government was to commence by a legiſlative union of Great Britain with Ireland.

CHAP. IV.

Measures preparatory to the union of Great Britain and Ireland. Alteration of the King's title, and in other matters. Promotions. Addition made to the House of Lords, and House of Commons. First proceedings in the House of Lords. In the House of Commons. Mr. Addington proposed as Speaker, and unanimously elected. King's Speech. Debate on the Address in the House of Lords. It is moved by the Duke of Montrose. Seconded by the Earl of Lucan. An amendment moved by Earl Fitzwilliam. Seconded by the Earl of Suffolk. Arguments in support of it by other Peers. Arguments against the amendment, which is rejected by a great majority. Notice of motion by Lord Darnley. Debate on the address in the House of Commons. It is moved by Sir Watkin Williams Wynne. Seconded by Mr. Cornwallis. An amendment moved by Mr. Grey. Answer of the Chancellor of the Exchequer to his speech. Observations of Dr. Laurence and Mr. Grant on the Northern Confederacy. Of Mr. Tierney, and Mr. Sheridan in support of the amendment, which is rejected by a great majority. Notice of motion by Mr. Sturt. Debate on the report of the Address, when the Catholics of Ireland are more particularly mentioned, and disagreements in the Cabinet alluded to. Rumours of a change of administration. Mr. Sturt's motion postponed. Notice publicly given of the resignation of Mr. Pitt. Lord Darnley's motion deferred at the request of the Earl of Carlisle. Opinions expressed by several Lords on the expected Cabinet. Lord Grenville and Lord Spencer explain their reasons for resigning. Observations of Lord Moira. A call of the House refused after a debate. Mr. Addington resigns the chair of the House of Commons. Sir John Mitford elected in his stead. Debate on the occasion. Opinions respecting Mr. Addington expressed by Lord Hawkesbury, Mr. Pitt, and Mr. Sheridan. Vote of thanks to Mr. Addington.

IN preparation for the legislative union between Great Britain and Ireland, which was to take effect at the beginning of the present year, government adopted several essential measures. The style of the King undergoing a necessary alteration, the opportunity was embraced of resigning that which had been held for so many ages, the glorious attestation of British valour, the title of "King of France." This sacrifice of national pride was not so unimportant as many would represent; it was a concession made to fortunate usurpation, which no legitimate monarch had ventured to insist on, it argued a diminution in the national feeling of self-importance, which was but too consistent with the spirit of the times; yet, circumstanced as the nation was at the period of making the alteration, it was the most prudent course which could be adopted. The executive directory, feeble and justly contemned as they were, had during the negotiation at Lisle insisted on the renunciation, and there was no probability that the consular government, more fortu-

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nate and reſpected, and apparently more firm, would, in any future treaty, omit to make a ſimilar requiſition. The nation, deſirous of peace, would hardly endure to hear of a protracted war, with all its attendant expences, for the ſake of a mere title; and miniſters, aware of this fact, acted diſcreetly in yielding to the evident temper of the times, and making by their own choice, a change which might otherwiſe have been extorted on the demand of the enemy, reinforced by the clamour of the people. The title therefore aſſumed by his Majeſty on the union was, in Latin *Georgius tertius, Dei Gratiâ, Britanniarum Rex, fidei defenſor*; and in Engliſh, George the Third by the Grace of God of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, King, defender of the faith. The arms and flags of the united kingdom were alſo ſubjected to ſuitable alterations; a new great ſeal was made, and changes adapted to the occaſion were directed to be introduced into the Book of Common Prayer, and the form of ordaining and conſecrating eccleſiaſtical perſons. The members of the privy council of Great Britain renewed their oaths; a large promotion, both military and naval, took place; and ſome noblemen of Ireland were advanced to the dignity of peers of the united kingdom.

The legiſlative union alſo changed the form and title of parliament. It was no longer called the parliament of Great Britain, but that of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, or ſometimes the Imperial Parliament. The Houſe of Lords was augmented by the introduction of one archbiſhop and three biſhops of Ireland, appointed to ſit in rotation of ſeſſions, and by twenty-eight temporal peers elected by the body of the Iriſh peerage for life, and not removeable at every diſſolution of parliament, like thoſe of Scotland. Into the Houſe of Commons the union introduced one hundred new members, of whom ſixty-four were repreſentatives of counties, nine of cities, twenty-ſix of boroughs and towns, and one of the univerſity of Dublin.

Many able lawyers were of opinion, that, on this occaſion, a diſſolution of parliament ought to have taken place, but the contrary judgment prevailed, and the firſt parliament of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland was compoſed of members elected for a period, which by law muſt determine in three ſeſſions at the furtheſt, added to others, whoſe ſenatorial capacity had already ſubſiſted four years.

The ſeſſion commenced on the 22d of January, 1801. Jan. 22.
The Houſe of Commons having in purſuance of a meſſage to that effect attended the Houſe of Lords, the commiſſion under the great ſeal for holding the parliament was read, and the Lord Chancellor (one of the commiſſioners) ſaid, that as ſoon as the members of both Houſes ſhould have been ſworn, his Majeſty would, in perſon, declare to them the cauſes of calling the parliament; and he required the Houſe of Commons to elect a ſpeaker, and preſent him on the morrow for his Majeſty's approbation. When the commoners were withdrawn, the Lord Chancellor took the oaths; the deputy clerk of the crown in Ireland deli-

vered at the bar the return of peers for that part of the kingdom, which was examined, and verified according to the act of union, and the peers who were present took the oaths.

On the return of the Commons to their own House, Mr. Pelham, addressing himself to Mr. Ley, the clerk, enumerated the qualification which that person ought to possess who was called upon to fill the chair; they were, an uniform attachment to the principles of the constitution; ability to explain the rules and orders of proceeding; diligence and assiduity in attending to the business of the House; experience in the practice, and knowledge of the records of parliament; firmness of mind, and steadiness of conduct to support the rights and privileges of the House in all cases, and under all circumstances; a temper to recommend and preserve moderation in debate; a spirit to support the dignity of the House; and an evenness of disposition that should shew impartiality on all occasions. These qualifications were peculiarly requisite in the present times, when an event had taken place which would tend to establish and confirm the constitution, add weight to our political power, and national importance, increase our happiness, and renew our friendships. The difficulties of the situation he considered as none when compared to the talents of the Right Hon. Henry Addington, whom he meant to propose to fill it. It was fortunate for the House and the country that they had among them a member, who, with abilities and influence which would entitle him to the first offices of the state, which he might enjoy with less labour, and more personal advantage, had devoted himself to the service of that House.

Mr. Yorke, who seconded the motion, expressed similar sentiments; and Mr. Addington, after expressing his serious sense of the duties he was required to undertake, said the experience he had acquired had not so much increased his facility in discharging them, as it had the sense he always entertained of their importance. He acknowledged with gratitude the manner in which the House had received the present motion, and ascribed the success of his former labours to the candour and good temper of parliament, and the attention and kindness, both in public and private, of its members. If, in the opinion of the House, he was qualified to fill any office, he should think it his duty to obey, expressing only an earnest wish that the consequences of such a choice might not be injurious either to the House or the public.

Mr. Wilberforce made a few observations in recommendation of Mr. Addington, and the cry of chair becoming general, he was led to it by Mr. Pelham and Mr. Yorke; returned thanks in a brief address, and was answered by one of congratulation from Lord Hawkesbury. On the ensuing day he was presented at the bar of the House of Lords, and the Chancellor expressed the King's satisfaction at his appointment for the fourth time to fill that station, and full confidence in his moderation and wisdom in the discharge of his duties.

Ten days after the election of a speaker were suffered to elapse before the King attended in parliament: the interval Feb. 2.

val was rather oſtenſibly than really employed in ſwearing in the members of both Houſes.

His Majeſty expreſſed great ſatisfaction in being enabled, at a criſis ſo important, to avail himſelf, for the firſt time, of the parliament of his united kingdom. This memorable era, diſtinguiſhed by the accompliſhment of a meaſure calculated to augment and conſolidate the ſtrength and reſources of the empire, and to cement more cloſely the intereſts and affections of his ſubjects, would, he truſted, be equally marked by that vigour, energy, and firmneſs, which circumſtances ſo peculiarly required.

His Majeſty ſtated it as matter of aſtoniſhment, as well as regret, that the powers on the Continent appeared more engaged in endeavours to weaken the naval force of the Britiſh empire; the great obſtacle to the inordinate ambition of France, than in concerting means of mutual defence againſt their common and increaſing danger. The repreſentations preſented to the Court of Peterſburgh, in conſequence of the late outrages, had been treated with the utmoſt diſreſpect, and aggravated by ſubſequent acts of injuſtice and violence; and a convention had avowedly been concluded between Ruſſia, Denmark, and Sweden, for eſtabliſhing by force a new code of maritime law, inconſiſtent with the rights, and hoſtile to the intereſts of this country. In this ſituation his Majeſty had taken the earlieſt meaſures to repel the aggreſſions of this hoſtile confederacy, and ſupport the legal and recognized principl s ſo eſſential to the maintenance of our naval ſtrength; but had, at the ſame time, given aſſurances which manifeſted his diſpoſition to renew his ancient relations with thoſe powers, whenever it could be done with a juſt regard to the ſafety of his ſubjects; and he was perſuaded, parliament would omit nothing which could afford him vigorous and effectual ſupport in his firm determination to maintain to the utmoſt, againſt every attack, the naval rights, and the intereſts of the empire.

After mentioning to the Houſe of Commons in particular, the neceſſity of providing adequate ſupplies, his Majeſty expreſſed his confidence that the deliberations of both Houſes would be uniformly directed to the great object of improving the benefits of the union, and promoting the proſperity of every part of his dominions; recommended the reſumption of enquiries reſpecting the cauſes and means of removing the preſent ſcarcity; aſſured parliament that he would ſeize the earlieſt opportunity of terminating, conſiſtently with ſecurity and honour, the preſent conteſt; and declared that it would afford him the trueſt and moſt heartfelt ſatisfaction, whenever the diſpoſition of the enemy ſhould enable him, thus to reſtore to his ſubjects the bleſſings of peace, and thereby confirm and augment thoſe advantages which reſult from our internal ſituation, and which, even under all the difficulties of war, had carried to ſo great an extent, the agriculture, manufactures, commerce, and revenues of the country.

In the Houſe of Lords, the addreſs was moved by the Duke of Montroſe. Following the order obſerved in the King's ſpeech, his Grace began by vindicating the union

union with Ireland, as an act which reflected the higheſt honour on both countries; an event of the greateſt importance to the general intereſts of the empire. It would tend to promote the wealth and proſperity of Ireland in a greater proportion than that of Great Britain, and therefore deſerved the praiſe and ſupport of every well wiſher of Ireland. It would tend to augment and conſolidate the ſtrength and reſources of the empire, and to cement and connect more cloſely the intereſts and affections of both countries, and therefore deſerved the praiſe and ſupport of every friend to the welfare and happineſs of mankind. Theſe countries would thus naturally become one; the people ſpeaking the ſame language, and governed by the ſame laws, would thus become one people; and his Grace moſt ſolemnly imprecated deſtruction on the head of him who ſhould impiouſly ſtrive to ſeparate or diſturb the connexion. The meaſure was not leſs admirable in a military than in a political view, as it would equally add to the ſtrength and wealth of every part of the Britiſh empire, and call forth new energies againſt the common enemy. Thoſe who originally diſapproved of the union, as detrimental to the intereſts of Ireland, were not aware that their arguments could be eaſily refuted by the moſt incontrovertible facts. Union, he was happy to ſay, was no longer a novel or a ſpeculative bleſſing. Its benefits had been taſted and tried in the caſe of Scotland, and he rejoiced in ſaying, that though both countries had reaped advantages, yet Scotland had reaped the moſt. She had united with a kingdom of greater extent of dominion, larger capital, more ſkill, and more extenſive commerce, than her own. Fears had been entertained at the time, that ſhe would ſuffer under the ſuperior influence of her more powerful neighbour, from the majority of repreſentatives, and other circumſtances; but all thoſe apprehenſions had been found to be chimerical, ſince, by the liberality of England to Scotland, ſhe had not, in any one inſtance, felt inferiority; but, on the contrary, there had been an uniform and marked attention paid to the weaker power. Bounties had been granted for the encouragement of the fiſheries—communications by roads had been opened with the highlands—ſums had been appropriated for the improvement of agriculture—the rents of the forfeited eſtates had been applied to national improvements—money had been moſt beneficially lent for the completion of great works—an inferior duty had been laid on malt, in conſequence of the inferiority of the grain of Scotland; and, much to the honour of England, the compact with reſpect to the proportion of land tax to be paid by Scotland had not been broken, which it might have been, had ſhe continued to bear only the relative charge ſettled by the union. With this example in favour of union, Ireland might rejoice at her incorporation with the capital, ſkill and induſtry of Great Britain, and Great Britain might rejoice at being incorporated with a people not excelled in virtue and talents by any nation on earth. The fertility of the ſoil of Ireland—its natural reſources, and aptitude for com-

commerce, could not be truly aſcertained until they ſhould be developed by the capital and ſkill of England; they would now all receive ſuch an impulſe as would demonſtrate their value; and he was bold to ſay, that the moſt ſanguine imagination could not anticipate, nor even conceive the extent of riches and power, to which, under theſe auſpices, ſhe would ſpeedily riſe. On this topic his Grace claimed particular right to ſpeak in this tone, in him it was hereditary. His anceſtors had been conſpicuous in promoting the union between England and Scotland, that meaſure had been regarded with alarm, miſrepreſented by faction, and unpopular through the arts of calumny; but thoſe who had ſuſtained ſo much obloquy for having promoted it, had lived to ſee every prejudice obliterated, and to receive in the increaſing proſperity of both countries the beſt reward of their endeavours.

Some obſervations which he made on the probability that this country would derive proviſions in times of ſcarcity from Ireland, led his Grace to another great object of his Majeſty's ſpeech, the high price of proviſions. He applauded the proclamation iſſued on this ſubject, as replete with policy and wiſdom, and promiſing the happieſt effects. He obſerved, that there were large tracts of uncultivated land in both countries; expreſſed an opinion favourable to a bill for general incloſure, and ſtrongly recommended the draining, cultivation, and improvement of the fen lands.

Turning to our foreign affairs, his Grace ſaid, although we were ſurrounded with difficulties and dangers, there was no cauſe for the gloom and deſpondency which affected many worthy individuals. Our courage and capacity were univerſally acknowledged. We were ſtrong in energies—ſtrong in the juſtice of our cauſe; and activity and perſeverance would crown our laudable efforts with the deſired ſucceſs. The advocates for France endeavoured to propagate a belief that the republicans were deſirous of a general peace; but all their profeſſions were fallacious, their conduct being diametrically oppoſite; while the Britiſh miniſters were not only ready to treat with France on the baſis of a general peace, but had carefully removed every impediment to that deſirable end. The meſſage of the Firſt Conſul to this country and Auſtria to make ſeparate peace was merely inſidious, as neither country could accede, without a dereliction of honour, and violation of public faith; but as the obſtacle of their alliance no longer ſubſiſted, the ſincerity of France might now be put to the teſt.

But far from ſhewing moderation, the rulers of that country exhibited every day, proofs that they were actuated by an ambition, more inordinate than that of Lewis XIV. Far from acquieſcing in a general peace, they had inſtigated and eſtabliſhed a new combination, avowedly hoſtile to the maritime rights of Great Britain, and deſtructive of the law of nations. In ſupport of this aſſertion, the Duke referred to a great variety of authors, Dutch, Swediſh, Daniſh, Portugueze, Genoeſe, Spaniſh, and French, who had written on the commerce of neutrals in time of war; even in 1794 Denmark

and

and Sweden had entered into a convention, acknowledging and explaining the rights in queſtion. From time immemorial we had maintained them, and, thanks to our brave ſeamen, our gallant admirals, and their officers, and to the manly and judicious exertions of the nobleman who preſided at the Admiralty, we were ſtill both able and willing, not only to aſſert our rights againſt the northern confederacy, but even againſt the whole world. Were we to allow Pruſſia, Sweden, Denmark, or Ruſſia to explain our rights? No. As ſoon as we admit a doubt on the ſubject, the maritime rights are gone. "Abandon theſe rights," his Grace exclaimed, "and the "ſun of Britain is ſet. Aſſert "them, and you will not only re- "move all doubts, but riſe ſupe- "rior to all rivalry in honour and "glory. Arouſe and animate the "people in defence of their mari- "time liberties, and victory will "crown our patriotic efforts." Deſcanting on the conduct of the Emperor Paul, he obſerved, that it was in direct violation of a poſitive treaty, which provided that in caſe of rupture between Great Britain and Ruſſia the ſhips, property, and ſubjects of each ſhould be held ſacred, and a year allowed for making up their affairs, and quitting the hoſtile country. The violation of this compact his Grace aſcribed to the miniſters of the Emperor. They were bent on reducing the maritime power of Great Britain; the armed neutrality had not anſwered their end, and therefore they proceeded to violate the property of Britiſh ſubjects in that country, and alſo to treat their perſons with outrage and indignity; theſe enormities were inflicted with a view to provoke hoſtilities, and ſhould the Emperor, after mature deliberation, refuſe to give that ſatisfaction which juſtice and humanity demand, every man in this country would find it his indiſpenſable duty to invigorate government for the maintenance of our rights againſt every unprovoked encroachment of a foreign and miſguided enemy. In concluſion, his Grace requeſted leave to ſay a few words with regard to Auſtria. She had continued faithful to her alliance. He did not blame her for at length yielding to misfortune—it was dire neceſſity. She had amidſt all her loſſes not loſt her honour; and, though ſhe had now ſubmitted to terms, he truſted ſhe would ſoon find an opportunity to regain her territories.

The motion for an addreſs was ſeconded by the Earl of Lucan.

Earl Fitzwilliam, lamenting the momentous change which had taken place in the aſpect of Europe, lamented alſo that he could not join in an unanimous vote of thanks to the King for his ſpeech. On the union with Ireland his opinions were ſufficiently known; but as the tranſaction was paſſed he would ſuppreſs his emotions, and ſincerely hope the ſanguine expectations already expreſſed would be fulfilled. He could not, however, withhold his aſtoniſhment, that, in a criſis ſo awful, when we were about to be plunged into a new war, miniſters, inſtead of giving information to the Houſe, had called on them for new confidence, and new ſupport. It was the duty of the Houſe, from a decent regard to the honour of the King,

King, and a ſenſe of their duty to the country, to pauſe, and enquire into the cauſes of the preſent calamitous and dangerous predicament, before they pledged themſelves to the ſupport of adminiſtration. Deeply feeling the conſequence of the revolutionary ſpirit in France, and the deſtruction to which it led, he had, perhaps, more than any other individual, urged the maintenance of the principles on which the war againſt it was founded; but all his hopes had been diſappointed. The people of France had been called on to rally round the ſtandard of order, and reinſtate the ancient family of their Kings; the anarchy to a great degree was gone, and that country eſtabliſhed as a monarchy under republican forms, and a new ruler. It did not depend on the opinion of an individual, and he feared it no longer depended on the power and energies of the nation, to withſtand the eſtabliſhment and organization of the new order of things in France. The die was caſt—he muſt ſubmit, but the Houſe could not conſiſtently with its duty omit enquiring into the cauſes of the failure of our efforts. When ſuch large and almoſt unlimited powers had been entruſted to miniſters, and when they had all Europe in friendſhip with them in the common cauſe, could the Houſe omit to enquire how, inſtead of ſucceeding in this great object, they had all at once plunged us into a conteſt with our own allies. This was a war of our own ſeeking, for if by forbearance hoſtilities could be averted in 1780, ſo they might at this time; but by the contrary courſe, we had conſolidated againſt us Ruſſia, Sweden, and Denmark; for the violence of Paul, the ſeizure of our ſhips and ſeamen, and the diſreſpect to his Majeſty's repreſentations, were all ſeparate and diſtinct from the confederacy for the neutral code, and policy demanded that we ſhould have kept them ſo. Our conduct in ſeizing the ſhips and property of Denmark and Sweden, which had been done by an embargo laid on them on the 14th of January, was no leſs unjuſt than the conduct of the Emperor of Ruſſia towards us.

It was alſo incumbent on the Houſe to examine the uſe which miniſters had made on the property and freedom of the ſubject; every object of the war had been fruſtrated, every expedition diſcomfited; that againſt Holland had been marked by imbecility in the contrivance, as well as criminal delay in the execution. If it had been aſked where 50,000 men, entruſted to miniſters, could be placed moſt for the advantage and benefit of the enemy, it would have been anſwered—inſtead of attacking France in her own territory, which ſhe dreads, ſend them to Holland, or ſome other dependency, and fritter them away in an unhealthy climate at a ſeaſon unfavourable to military operations! Juſt ſo had they acted, yet the ſame perſons called for confidence. Every other of their expeditions had been of the ſame kind, and had ended in diſappointment and diſmay. It was melancholy to think that our brave troops were now ſent, after being eight months toſſed about in tranſports, on an expedition which might have been unneceſſary, if a treaty moſt wiſely concluded had been

been honourably fulfilled. After ſome other obſervations on the unfitneſs of the miniſtry for the ſtations they filled, the Earl moved, as an amendment, the inſertion of the following words in the addreſs:

"And that this Houſe will proceed, with all poſſible diſpatch, to make ſuch enquiries into the general ſtate of the nation, but more eſpecially into the conduct of the war, and into our relations with foreign powers, as ſhall enable us to offer to his Majeſty ſuch advice as we may think moſt conducive to the honour of his crown, and the general intereſt of his people.

"And further to aſſure his Majeſty, that if, owing to any unjuſt and unreaſonable pretenſions on the part of the enemy, peace cannot be obtained on ſuch terms as are conſiſtent with ſecurity; if the repreſentations which his Majeſty has directed to be made to the court of Peterſburgh, in conſequence of the outrages committed againſt the ſhips, property, and perſons of his ſubjects, have not received that reparation which the nature of the caſe requires; and if the differences which appear unhappily to have ariſen between his Majeſty and the other Northern Powers are of a nature which preſſes for immediate deciſion, and the impoſſibility of any equitable adjuſtment, renders new and more extended wars inevitable; we will give his Majeſty every ſupport which the means of the country can afford, in the juſt hope and confidence that his Majeſty's paternal care for the welfare of his people will induce him to take ſuch meaſures as ſhall prevent henceforward a calamitous waſte of their remaining ſtrength and reſources, either by improvident and ineffectual projects, or by general negligence and profuſion; and ſhall enſure a wiſe and vigorous adminiſtration of their affairs under the unexampled difficulties in which they are now involved."

The Earl of Suffolk, in ſeconding this amendment, complained of the little attention ſhewn to the orders of the Houſe, as two months had elapſed ſince one had been made for laying on the table a return of troops killed and wounded in the late expedition to Holland, but which was not yet complied with. His Grace alſo inferred from the London Gazette, that inſtead of 1000, to which one of the cabinet in the other Houſe had ſtated the loſs to amount, the Britiſh troops, killed, wounded, and miſſing, were nearly 5000, the Ruſſians upward of 7000. He cenſured all the expeditions undertaken during the war, except the conqueſt of Martinique and Guadaloupe by Sir Charles Grey and Lord St. Vincent, the merit of which was excluſively their own, as the armament was intended againſt St. Domingo. Speaking of the two expeditions entruſted to Lord Moira, he accuſed miniſters of never ſeriouſly intending to accept his ſervices; they wiſhed to remove him from the Senate, where they dreaded his abilities, but never meant to employ him in the field. This was the *laudandum tollendum*, the principle on which Thugut had removed the Archduke Charles from the command of the Auſtrian army. His lordſhip was alſo underſtood to intimate, that, at the period when Lord Moira conducted an expedi-

tion to the coaſt of France in 1794, it was not intended that he ſhould land his forces; but this aſſertion was in a ſubſequent part of the debate refuted by Lord Moira himſelf. After dwelling ſome time on theſe points, Lord Suffolk ſtated what was his determination if enquiry was not inſtituted, and miniſters proceeded in their deſtructive meaſures. If a great and important meaſure, ſaid to be agitated in council, was concluded on without the conſent and approbation of the heir apparent, he would make it a ground for the impeachment of his Majeſty's miniſters. If a portion of the empire to which the Royal Family muſt be peculiarly attached, ſhould either from antecedent or ſubſequent cauſes, be rent from it without the conſent of the heir apparent, he ſhould make that another ground of impeachment. His lordſhip ſtated, as other cauſes of impeachment, either probable or actually exiſting, the injudicious and negligent mode of diſpoſing the force intended to protect the country againſt an enterprizing and formidable enemy; the loſs of Egypt, and impoſſibility of recovering it, which were occaſioned by the violation of faith in not confirming the treaty made by Sir Sidney Smith; and laſt, and perhaps the ſtrongeſt, the ſituation in which miniſters had placed the country with reſpect to peace; how different before that letter written by a noble ſecretary of ſtate, which would have diſgraced a ſchool-boy. Egypt would then have been given up, and the armed neutrality was not then formed.

The amendment was ſupported by Lord Darnley, the Earls of Caernarvon, Moira, and Fife, and Lord Holland.

In the courſe of their arguments it was obſerved, that it would have been more ſatisfactory had the Houſe been called on for nothing more than general expreſſions of loyalty, and ſtrong aſſurances of ſupporting the ſafety, honour, and dignity of his Majeſty's crown and perſon. The ſpeech from the throne invoked aſtoniſhment and regret, without diſtinctly explaining their cauſe; it announced the deſertion of friends and allies, and their being converted into foes, without ſpecifying the nations, or their motives; it was matter of aſtoniſhment and regret to hear that the ſovereign had been treated with diſreſpect by a country with which we were laſt year in amity and alliance; but the ſurprize occaſioned by theſe awful facts was augmented when members of the government, in whoſe adminiſtration of affairs all theſe events had taken place, aſſerted, that it was the duty of the Houſe to hear them with ſtupid and ignorant aſtoniſhment, to exhauſt themſelves in terms of raſh indignation, and prepare for blind vengeance. It could not be conſiſtent with parliamentary duty to repreſent thoſe things, not only as affording no ground for enquiry, but enquiry itſelf, under theſe circumſtances of ignorance, as dangerous. Was the Houſe ſeriouſly to be told, that, under the adminiſtration of the ſame men, the nation may fall from the high ſituation of exultation and hope in which it was placed laſt year, to the low ſtate of deſpondency, under which this imperial parliament met; and yet that they owed nothing

thing but aſtoniſhment and regret to the country, and blind confidence to his Majeſty's miniſters, that it was fit to plunge, at their deſire, into a war with our old friends and allies, without enquiry into the cauſe, or its juſtice? Laſt year, the nation was ſurrounded by friends and allies, ſucceſsfully purſuing one common cauſe againſt a common enemy, and the deſirable object of an honourable peace, almoſt at command; this year, Great Britain was ſuddenly deſerted by her friends and allies, become the object of their enmity, and hoſtility; and on the eve of an alarming war with all the world, without a friend or adherent, and without the moſt diſtant hope of peace, yet parliament had nothing but the aſſurances of government, and the ſelf-confidence of miniſters, on which to repoſe their hopes and their truſt; and on which to deliver up the remaining reſources of an almoſt exhauſted people. Miniſters had obtained from parliament and the public a confidence unexampled in our hiſtory. How had they uſed it? Was it in the expeditions to Holland and Ferrol, or in their conduct with reſpect to the treaty of El-Ariſch, that a juſtification of that confidence was to be ſought? If not in the immediate management of our own affairs, was it to be looked for in their treatment of allies, and neutral powers? The maxim of the Romans was, *parcere ſubjectis et debellare ſuperbos:* our miniſters inverting this maxim, adopted *parcere ſuperbis et debellare ſubjectos.* Ruſſia had been permitted, in the firſt inſtance, to inſult us with impunity; but the moment a weaker power advanced a pretenſion, an embaſſador was ſent to negotiate at the cannon's mouth, and yet the negotiation terminated without any adjuſtment of the point in diſpute. The defection of our allies was repeatedly cited, and imputed entirely to the miſconduct of miniſters, who were blamed for having loſt, but more for having accepted, and in a ſtill greater degree for having purchaſed their precarious aſſiſtance, and gratified their pride, by heavy ſubſidies, and expenſive embaſſies, the produce of grievous taxes impoſed on the people. The miſcarriages of the war were aſcribed to the ſame cauſe, and to the continuance of hoſtilities, more than any other ſource, the ſcarcity was imputed. The right, which was the foundation of the conteſt with the northern powers, was ſtrenuouſly controverted; and on all theſe accounts it was not thought fit to grant blind and implicit confidence, when the alarming and awful ſtate of the nation demanded enquiry and circumſpection.

Theſe arguments were repelled by the Duke of Athol, Lord Romney, Earl Spencer, and Lords Grenville, Mulgrave, and Eldon.

The ſituation of the country, they ſaid, was awful and momentous in the higheſt degree; and on the conduct now to be adopted would depend the preſent intereſts, and future exiſtence of the empire. The enquiry propoſed would, from its nature, require an inveſtigation into the tranſactions of many preceding years, and oblige parliament, before they could act on a ſubject which required the utmoſt promptitude, to incur a delay which muſt be injurious to the ſafety of the country. His Majeſty's miniſters had long enjoyed the

the confidence of parliament, and were grateful for it; but was the preſent the moment when it ought to be withdrawn, when the difficulties of their ſituation and of the country had widely increaſed; and at the commencement too of the united parliament? And upon what motives? Becauſe, according to the mover, all expeditions fitted out during the laſt two years had failed. This was however denied to be the fact. If the inquiry reſpecting Holland were fairly proſecuted, it would prove highly creditable to government; the expedition to Ferrol, if not crowned with ſucceſs, was unattended with diſaſter; and with reſpect to Cadiz, miniſters ſurely could not be blamed for not providing againſt that, which, as a fact, was unknown at the time the affair was projected, the exiſtence of the plague. Thoſe expeditions were planned with ſuch a deſign, that, if they were ſucceſsful, the advantages reſulting from them would be important; but if they were otherwiſe, it would ſoon be perceived, and the attempt might be abandoned without loſs. But was it nothing to have gone through eight years of war with general ſucceſs?—to have beaten the enemy at the mouth of their own harbours? If Great Britain were called on to give an account of the war with France, the firſt queſtion would be—What had been her naval ſucceſs? To this the anſwer was readily furniſhed; to a ſecond queſtion—What colonies we had loſt? the anſwer would be equally prompt and triumphant. To theſe ſucceſſes what was oppoſed?—The Dutch expedition? That certainly had failed in overthrowing the government; but it had ſucceeded in the important point of reſcuing from that government the Dutch navy. The reſult of ſuch an inquiry would leave no doubt that it was well planned, and well directed; and if that was ſo, was it to be ſaid that miniſters were never to undertake any enterprize, unleſs abſolutely ſure of ſucceſs?

On the delicate ſubject of our late allies, miniſters were leſs explicit, contenting themſelves with a general vindication of the advice they had given to thoſe powers, deploring the turn which affairs had taken, but denying that it formed a ground for their inculpation. With reſpect to thoſe rights which were contended for againſt the northern confederacy, an ample vindication of the proceedings of government was entered into, as well on the ſcore of policy as of juſtice; and although the preſent was not a fit moment, there was no objection, in proper time, to ſubmit it to the teſt of rigid inquiry. The rights were eſſential to the welfare of the country; they were the foundation of its naval glory, commerce, and wealth. A new war, circumſtanced as the country was, would be a great evil; but war, with all its inconveniencies and horrors, was ſurely preferable to the voluntary ſacrifice of that, without which the glory, the independence, and even the exiſtence of the nation muſt be extinct. To grant the inquiry propoſed by the amendment would be to ſtigmatize thoſe who were at the head of affairs; inquiry was the undoubted privilege of the houſe, but they ought not to enter into one, on the ſlight grounds which had been advanced.

On a diviſion, the amendment was rejected, by a majority of 56; the numbers being 17 to 73. Before the Houſe roſe, Lord Darnley gave notice, that on the 10th, he would move for a Committee of Inquiry into part of the conduct of his Majeſty's Miniſters, in reſpect to the management of the war, and into the ſtate of the nation.

In the Houſe of Commons the Addreſs was moved by Sir Watkin Williams Wynne, who, after expreſſing his gratitude to the Sovereign for the gracious communication with which he had honoured his Parliament, ſpoke in animated terms of the benefit to be expected from the union. Every fear of the promoters of that grand meaſure, every menace of its adverſaries, had happily been diſappointed.—Tumults of the populace, the din of oppoſition, the miſtaken complaints of manufacturers and merchants, old natural prejudices of the unenlightened, the ſecret diſaffection of thoſe who were inclined to liſten to the ſeductions of our inſidious enemies, appeared to have been, by the final accompliſhment of this grand meaſure, effectually huſhed. In Dublin, which, if any place in Ireland, might perhaps ſuffer by the immediate effects of the union—all was tranquil.

On the violent conduct of Ruſſia, and the confederacy of the northern powers, Sir Watkin made obſervations ſimilar to thoſe already detailed, adding, that although the hoſtility of thoſe powers ſhutting againſt us the ports of the Baltic, and denying us further ſupplies of grain from that quarter, had, in part, hindered that diminution of the price of proviſions, which was expected from the wiſe and beneficent meaſures of the laſt Seſſion, and the uncommon mildneſs of the ſeaſon; yet the diſtreſſes of the poor had been conſiderably alleviated by the benevolent, cautious, and enlightened interpoſition of Parliament. Conſidering the ſtrength and quantity of our ſhipping, the number, hardihood, and loyalty of our ſeamen, the victories which had perpetually crowned our naval exertions, the ports we poſſeſſed in all the ſeas, the union and patriotic ardour of the whole people, the inferiority of the naval force of the powers leagued againſt us, the immenſe reſources which our trade, manufactures, and agriculture, were ſtill ſufficient to furniſh, and the probable weakneſs and diſſention of an ill-aſſorted alliance, there was no room for deſpondency as to the probable iſſue of the approaching conteſt. In concluſion he adverted with ſatisfaction to his Majeſty's promiſe, that whenever the temper of the enemy would permit, it would be his earneſt deſire to effect a termination of hoſtilities.

In ſeconding the motion, Mr. Cornwallis expatiated largely on the benefits of the union, uſing, among others, theſe expreſſions:—"to give full effects to the union, "many meaſures naturally conſe-"cutive upon it will no doubt be "from time to time adopted. To "heal diviſions, it is to be deſired "that nothing conſiſtent with the "full ſecurity of the Proteſtant re-"ligion in Ireland ſhould be "omitted." On foreign affairs he ſpoke with the diffidence of inexperience; but exhorted Parliament not haſtily to relinquiſh to

audacious claims, that naval pre-eminence ſo neceſſary to the ſecurity of trade, the protection of the coaſts, and that national glory which our anceſtors had left us as an inalienable inheritance.

Mr. Grey began by obſerving, that the preſent aſpect of affairs inſpired him with doubt, apprehenſion, and anxiety, though not with diſmay or deſpondency. Neither the ſpeech from the throne, nor the arguments uſed in moving and ſeconding the Addreſs, had removed his fears; he could not paſs from apprehenſion to confidence on the grounds they preſented. He could not baniſh his uneaſineſs, when he found no proſpect held out of a change in that ruinous ſyſtem of policy, which had been followed with ſuch obſtinate perſeverance as to place us in our preſent ſtate of diſtreſs and calamity. Still leſs could he flatter himſelf that a termination of evils approached, when told, that with regard to peace, the ſame principles by which Miniſters had always been actuated, would continue to govern their conduct. Had not the Houſe been, year after year, amuſed with the ſame declarations? Had not ſuch profeſſions been advanced in almoſt every ſtage of the conteſt, merely to reconcile men to its prolongation, and to obtain new means for its ſupport? By implicitly aſſenting to theſe aſſurances, the nation had ſo long been doomed to the ſcourge of war, and plunged into its preſent ſtate of peril.

With reſpect to the union, Mr. Grey retained his former ſentiments, that not ſuch a meaſure, but adherence to the ſyſtem of 1782 was alone neceſſary as a remedy for paſt abuſes, and a preventive againſt future dangers. He ridiculed the ſtatement that the tranquility of Ireland had been occaſioned by the union. Ireland was quiet; the rebellion was extinguiſhed before the union; Ireland was quiet a year after the union was rejected. There was no reaſon for inferring that the union had produced the exiſting quiet, the experiment was but juſt begun; many obſtacles to the full completion of the meaſure were admitted, and muſt be provided for; practice would diſcover many more; and a conſiderable period muſt elapſe before its ſucceſs could be aſcertained. "I "ſhould, indeed," he continued, "have augured more favourably "of that union, had I found that "the ſpeech contained a recommendation (as it was reported it "would) to conſider of taking off "thoſe diſabilities to which the "catholics of Ireland are ſubject. "The ſureſt means of incorporating the two countries, and cementing their connexion, would "be to extend to all in common, the bleſſings of the conſtitution. A large and liberal "policy might do much. But I "regret to ſee no ſuch meaſure is "hinted at. There was, even in "the ſpeech of the ſeconder of "the Addreſs, a phraſe which excited, in my mind, a conſiderable degree of jealouſy; perhaps, however, without ſufficient grounds. He alluded to "what might be conſiſtent with the "ſecurity of the Proteſtant religion. "When I conſider, however, the "conſtruction which has often been "put on theſe words, I feel ſome "ſuſpicion that thoſe meaſures of "liberality and juſtice toward the

"Catholics of Ireland, which "were expected as the fruits of a "legiſlative union, are yet far "from being realized."

In treating of the northern confederacy, Mr. Grey ſeparated the caſe of Ruſſia from that of Sweden and Denmark, inſiſting that the diſputes were totally diſtinct. The Emperor Paul complained that England had violated an expreſs convention with reſpect to Malta, this was not probable, but a fact ſo formally aſſerted demanded inquiry; Miniſters, perhaps, ſhould have made conceſſions; they knew the temper of Paul, and the characters of the politicians of Peterſburgh; and if it had been poſſible, by the ceſſion of Malta, or any other port in the Mediterranean, to ſatisfy the ambition and ſecure the aſſiſtance of Ruſſia, it would have been the true policy of this country to purſue that courſe. But although the negligence of miniſters on this point might render their conduct an object of cenſure to parliament and the country, it could not be a juſtification of the violence and injuſtice which Paul had committed on the property and perſons of Britiſh ſubjects.

Denmark and Sweden, and Pruſſia too, though of her the ſpeech made no mention, had, with Ruſſia, ſubſcribed a convention to ſecure their commerce againſt the vexations to which it had been ſubject. But the Houſe ſhould not too haſtily form the precipitate concluſion that this agreement was in its nature ſo eſſentially hoſtile to this country as to juſtify open war. There was neither in writers on the law of nations, in treaties, nor in the practice of ſtates, any law or uſage univerſally acknowledged of the nature of that which the northern powers were inclined to diſpute. It was not true that the claim which they advanced was unheard of till the period of the American war; in 1740 the King of Pruſſia, diſputing the pretenſions of this country, had ſtrenuouſly contended for the principle that "free bottoms make free "goods;" and the Dutch, in 1762, when England flushed with the glories of a ſucceſsful war, was little likely to leave inſult unpuniſhed, had reſiſted the ſearch of veſſels under convoy. In 1780, the claims of neutrals had aſſumed a greater degree of conſiſtency and concert, by the avowed official declaration of the allied powers.—Was there not a principle by which the claims on both ſides might be tried? — There was — the great principle of juſtice. Adherence to this principle alone conſtituted the difference between an enlightened ſtateſman, and a ſhuffling, tricking politician; but our pretenſions could not ſtand the teſt of ſuch a criterion. They might be maintained by ſucceſsful warfare; but a temporary acknowledgment of them, dictated by ſuperior force, could never compenſate the diſadvantage of confirming the hatred of other ſtates, of rendering their animoſity inveterate, and ſowing the ſeeds of future confederacies, whenever the embarraſſments and difficulties of this country preſented the proſpect of eſtabliſhing the diſputed claim. But without forming raſh concluſions on this part of the ſubject, it would alſo be fit to conſider whether the claim was truly valuable as well as juſt; for, to uſe the words of a late

great and diſtinguiſhed member: "As you ought not to go to war "for a profitable wrong, ſo nei- "ther ought you to go to war for "an unprofitable right." The maritime aſcendancy of Great Britain was of ineſtimable value, but the advantage, nay the eſſential neceſſity of the claim which was ſo odious to her neighbours, ought to be proved, before ſhe ſhould engage for its defence, in an univerſal war.

Even if the claim were juſt and uſeful, circumſtances might be conceived, which would juſtify and demand a relaxation in the rigour of its exerciſe. Had the northern powers been indulged in every facility of ſupplying France with contraband articles, they could not in a twelvemonth have doubled her fleet, yet by the preſent meaſures, we, in a moment, produced that effect, and ſupplied her with experienced ſailors. The hoſtile navies of Europe would outflank us from Archangel to the Tagus.—Our navy might deſtroy the trade of the enemy, but we alſo wanted trade, and if our commerce were excluded from every quarter of Europe, what muſt become of the invaluable ſources of our ſplendour and ſecurity? We were already deprived of a ſupply of naval ſtores, nor of thoſe alone, but the relief which might have been expected during the preſent ſcarcity. Yet it might be alleged that our honour being attacked, muſt, at all hazards, be vindicated. It would then be proper to conſider whether, with prudence and addreſs, the diſpute might not have been avoided? It was no improbable ſuſpicion, that the miſconduct of miniſters had provoked the northern powers; ſuch conduct was in conformity with their attempts to force neutral nations to declare war againſt France; with their injurious conduct toward Genoa, and toward the Great Duke of Tuſcany. If any provocations had been offered to the neutrals, ſurely a directly oppoſite conduct ſhould have been maintained; the policy of Lord Chatham's adminiſtration, as ſtated by Lord Camden, was, to act with caution and good temper, to prevent the enemy from obtaining ſupplies of naval and military ſtores, which he conſidered ſufficient, but to attend to the complaints of neutrals, and give them ſpeedy redreſs.

But it might be ſaid that the preſent conduct of the confederated powers amounted to a declaration of hoſtility. To prove that it did not, Mr. Grey cited the tranſactions at the cloſe of the American war, when a ſimilar combination exiſted. Whatever were the faults imputed to the unpopular adminiſtration of Lord North, even Mr. Pitt, then a young man, and animated with the fire of patriotiſm, never thought of arraigning him as the betrayer of his country's rights, becauſe he had not driven matters to extremity. Nay, the pretenſions of the armed neutrality had been ſanctioned by various acts of ſubſequent adminiſtrations.—That under the Marquis of Rockingham had not ſubſiſted four-and-twenty hours before Mr. Fox offered to concede thoſe principles to the Dutch, and that not with a view of detaching them from their alliance, but of ſatisfying all the northern powers. The peace of 1783 had been concluded without adverting to thoſe principles, and the preſent Chancellor of the Ex-

chequer, with the reſt of the adminiſtration, claimed credit for the omiſſion; but the French miniſter conſidered the treaty as having ſanctioned the principle, and in a diſpatch to the Court of Ruſſia, took great merit to himſelf on that account. In 1787, the commercial treaty with France contained a clauſe, which ſuſpended the operation of the principle contended for, and ſuch ſuſpenſion amounted to a renunciation, although the contrary was ſtrongly contended for at the time by thoſe who made the compact. In 1793 a proviſional treaty was negotiated by Lord St. Helen's with Ruſſia, in which great countenance was likewiſe given to the principles of the armed neutrality. That compact re-enacted moſt of the articles of a preceding one, in 1761, and that was founded on one of 1734, in all which contraband articles of war were greatly reſtricted, and confined to actual implements of hoſtility, and not to the materials of which they were made.

To theſe obſervations it might be anſwered, that Sweden and Denmark had entered into this confederacy with Ruſſia, while ſhe was acting in open hoſtility againſt this country, and that we were not now ſo much depreſſed as at the cloſe of the American war. To the firſt he ſhould reply, that the ground of quarrel with Ruſſia was different from that with the other powers, and that treaties even with belligerents, on points different from thoſe for which the war was carried on, would not juſtify an attack. To the propoſition that we were not ſo weakened as at the cloſe of the American war, he ſhould agree in the main, but ſtill obſerve that there were circumſtances in our internal ſtate which all men muſt feel, and which forcibly inculcated a leſſon of moderation.

At leaſt there was ground for inquiry before entering on a new war with all the powers of Europe. Even were our reſources unimpaired, and our ſtrength unbroken, prudence would demand circumſpection; but after eight years of the moſt expenſive war ever undertaken, how much more was caution requiſite? How much more, when miniſters called to us again for the means of ſtate to defend the national honour, who had ſo frequently made the ſame demand before; and with what reſult?—What had their promiſes and vaunts produced? Loſs, mortification, difficulty, diſhonour. After treating at ſome length on the various failures of the war, in contradiction to the ſanguine predictions of miniſters; the loſs of Holland, the ceſſion Belgium; and the aggrandiſement of France; on the refuſal to treat with Bonaparte, at the very time when this northern diſpute was beginning, all which furniſhed motives for diſtruſting miniſters, Mr. Grey proceeded to aſk why Pruſſia, an undoubted party in the confederacy, an undiſputed partaker in the crime, was unmentioned on this occaſion, when ſo much was ſaid of the national honour. Why, but becauſe Pruſſia was ſtrong, and Denmark and Sweden weak; why, but becauſe it was thought that Pruſſia had means of retaliation, and Denmark and Sweden were without means of defence. Thus was the honour of the nation ſacred in the hands of miniſters! They were haughty to the little, and ſubmiſſive

to

to the mighty. This was their vindication of the national honour! This the magnanimous conduct of these high spirited ministers!

After drawing a most humiliating picture of the state of Austria, which he described as a blank in Europe, Mr. Grey noticed the internal situation of the British empire. A force collected to defend the British shores, had been dissipated and destroyed in the prosecution of disgraceful expeditions; part had been wasted in the fatal descent upon Holland; part had mouldered away in the holds of transports; and the rest, after being driven about from Portsmouth to Belleisle, from Belleisle to Ferrol, from Ferrol to Cadiz, are, at last of all, to perish in the burning sands of Egypt. Whenever this subject should be brought under discussion, he would pledge himself to prove, that to the bad faith and impolicy of ministers alone, the French were indebted for the possession of that country, which they would else have evacuated.

This critical and difficult situation required all the vigour and resources of the nation. They were still great, provided economy and integrity took place of profusion and corruption; the credit of the country would be restored with the old principles on which it was founded, and the public spirit, hitherto misdirected or dormant, would again animate and support every undertaking. Peace, however, peace, consistent with the honour and interests of the country, was the great object, to the attainment of which our efforts should first be directed. But was it possible to expect those benefits from an administration, no less unsuccessful in the conduct of war, than in negotiation for peace?

The preceding observations had been made on the supposition that members had hitherto supported ministers, in the conviction that they merited confidence, and that their measures were wise. If, however, they condemned in private what they sanctioned in public; if they censured in conversation those miscarriages which they screened from inquiry by their votes; if they saw the marks of the errors and misconduct of ministers every where traced in characters of blood and desolation, how could they reconcile the support of such an administration to any sentiments of honour, conscience, or duty? It had often been said, and the observation was sanctioned by Mr. Burke, that the minority in the House spoke the sense of the majority out of it; and to this ministers yielded. Their own accounts of the negotiations of Paris and Lisle confirmed these surmises. If, however, the House would reflect on the pause of last year, recommended by ministers; if they felt the consequences of that fatal delusion, he conjured them, by what had been lost, and by what was still at stake, to make the public interest the ground of their vote.

He then moved an amendment similar to that proposed in the Upper House by Lord Fitzwilliam, and it was seconded by Mr. Whitbread.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer answered the speech of Mr. Grey. He began by decrying the curious position that the minority of parliament spoke the sense of

the majority of the nation. Were ſuch a ſtatement true, it would follow that the exertions of the laſt nine years, which reſcued this country from the misfortunes which overſpread almoſt every other part of the globe, were made in defiance of the general wiſh of the nation. He did not believe that any members who had ſeats during the laſt ſeſſion, could fail to remember the diſcuſſions which then took place on every topic in the Honourable Gentleman's ſpeech, except one, or that they could lightly forget the opinions they formed, or the principles on which they acted. Nor did he believe, thinking ſo highly as he did of the great meaſure which had conſolidated the empire, that thoſe members whom he now rejoiced for the firſt time to ſee in the Houſe would, after contending with jacobiniſm on their own ſoil, endeavour to infuſe into us, that timidity, of which the leaſt mixture would have been certain ruin to them.

Avoiding all the other topics contained in Mr. Grey's ſpeech, as already argued, or certain to be diſcuſſed, the Miniſter confined his obſervations to the confederacy in the north. His opponent entertained doubts, where ſcarcely another man could be found in the country who would heſitate for a moment; and yet he contrived, to make up his mind to abſolute certainty, on points in which both argument and fact were decidedly againſt him. If, after a full diſcuſſion of this queſtion, it ſhould appear that the claim which this country had made was founded on the cleareſt and the moſt indiſputable juſtice—if it ſhould be proved that our greatneſs, nay, our very exiſtence as a nation, and every thing that raiſed us to our exalted ſituation, would depend on our poſſeſſing and exerciſing this right, ſtill the Honourable Gentleman was prepared ſeriouſly to declare that we ought, in conſideration of our circumſtances, publicly and explicitly to ſtate to the world that we were unequal to the conteſt, and muſt reſign for ever the right ſo demonſtrated to be unqueſtionable, and eſſential to our exiſtence.

"There is, in general," ſaid Mr. Pitt, "a degree of modeſty "in doubting, that conciliates "very much; and a man is ſeldom inclined to bear hard upon "an antagoniſt whoſe attack does "not exceed the limits of a doubt. "But, when a Gentleman doubts "that which has been indiſputably eſtabliſhed more than a century—when he doubts that "which has been an acknowledged "principle of law in all the tribunals of the kingdom, which "are alone competent to decide "upon the ſubject, and which "Parliament has conſtantly known "them to act upon—when he "doubts principles which the ableſt "and wiſeſt ſtateſmen have uniformly adopted—the doubt that "calls in queſtion principles ſo "eſtabliſhed, without offering the "ſlighteſt ground for ſo doing, "ſhews a great deal of that pert "preſumption which, as often as "modeſty, leads to ſcepticiſm."

It was a little extraordinary too, that although the oppoſition had been endeavouring, during the whole war, to diſcover every circumſtance which could embarraſs the government, this doubt had never occurred before; they never began to doubt till the enemy began to arm.

arm. He would ſubmit to gentlemen moſt converſant in the practice of the courts, where theſe queſtions were moſt diſcuſſed, whether the right claimed by this country did not, by frequent deciſions, ſtand as part of the law of the land; and whether, in any of thoſe Courts, it would be allowed to be brought in queſtion?

The queſtion was to be conſidered in two lights; firſt, what was the general law of nations, independent of treaties; next, how far it was affected by any preciſe compacts, with regard to the powers who were objects of the preſent diſpute. With reſpect to the law of nations, the principles had been univerſally admitted, except when reſtrained by particular treaties, and on this point there was a great error which conſtituted the fallacy of all who reaſoned in favour of the northern powers; namely, that every exception from the general law, by a particular treaty, proved the law to be as declared in that treaty; whereas the very circumſtance of making an exception by treaty, proved what the general law of nations would be, if no ſuch treaty were made to modify or alter it. This would anſwer all that had been inferred from the commercial treaty with France; but if any number of compacts could be ſhewn with particular ſtates, amounting to a renunciation of the general law, ſtill it could have no effect with reſpect to thoſe who had forborne to be parties. But without relying on imaginary caſes, it could be ſhewn that the preſent conduct of the northern powers was a violation of poſitive treaties. With reſpect to Denmark and Sweden, the treaties of 1661 and 1670 were in full force, and in them the right to carry the property of an enemy was completely given up. To Ruſſia, the principle had never been conceded, and in the convention ſigned at the commencement of the preſent war, ſhe not only bound herſelf to obſerve the principle, but engaged to uſe her efforts in preventing neutral powers from protecting the commerce of France in the ſeas, or in the ports of that country. Theſe treaties being in full force, it was impoſſible to ſuggeſt a ground in which it could be ſtated that thoſe powers were releaſed from their engagements. Theſe facts would be proved by papers on the table, but the caſe did not reſt here. In the courſe of the preſent war, both Denmark and Sweden had diſtinctly expreſſed their readineſs to agree in the principle againſt which they were now contending. Sweden had ſince the year 1780, in her war with Ruſſia, acted on that very principle, and in the laſt autumn, Denmark, with her fleets and arſenals at our mercy, entered into a ſolemn pledge, not again to ſend veſſels with convoy, until the principle was ſettled; yet ſhe had entered into a new convention, the ſtipulations of which ſhe was bound to maintain by force of arms. "Is this," Mr. Pitt exclaimed, "or is it not, "war? Is it not that which, if "we had not heard the Honoura-"ble Gentleman this night, would "lead a man to think he inſulted "an Engliſhman, by queſtioning "his feelings on the ſubject?"

But when theſe circumſtances were coupled with armaments at a period of the year which ſeemed to render them ſecure from our fleets; when

when his Majeſty informed the Houſe that engagements were entered into, ſimilar to thoſe in 1780, then it was ſaid, we ought not to take any meaſures till we knew the preciſe terms of the treaties. The terms, it is true, were unknown; but the contracting parties acknowledged their having entered into engagements hoſtile to our intereſts, and did not diſcloſe any reſervations for our benefit. How far was this argument, to be preſſed? Muſt we wait for the treaty, read it article by article, ſee the very ſeal to the contract for our deſtruction, and inſtead of taking meaſures for our defence, acknowledge ourſelves diſpirited, and not prepared to diſpute the point? or were we to afford the hoſtile powers time to aſſemble all their forces, and enable them to produce ſomething like a ſubſtitute for the fallen navy of France?

To this was the queſtion of expediency reduced. Whether we ſhould permit the navy of our enemy to be ſupplied and recruited —ſuffer blockaded forts to be furniſhed with warlike ſtores and proviſions—and allow neutral nations, by hoiſting a flag upon a ſloop, or a fiſhing-boat, to convey the treaſures of South America to the harbours of Spain, or the naval ſtores of the Baltic to Breſt or Toulon? The deſtruction of the naval power of France had been mentioned, but could that have been effected, if the maintenance of the very principle now in queſtion had been relaxed? The naval preponderance which we had by theſe means acquired, had given ſecurity to the country, and had more than once afforded chances for the ſalvation of Europe. In the wreck of the continent, and the diſappointment of our hopes there, what had been the ſecurity of this country, but its naval preponderance; and if that were once gone, the ſpirit of the country would go with it.

After treating on ſome other topics which had been advanced, Mr. Pitt declared the amendment calculated to obſtruct thoſe proceedings on which depended the ſafety of the country. As to what had been ſaid on other points reſpecting the conduct of the war, thoſe topics had been ſo often agitated, that it was not difficult to anticipate the manner in which they would be treated, nor, he truſted, in which they would be decided again. "I hope," Mr. Pitt concluded, "the public will feel, as "they have repeatedly felt, that "the calamities which have overſpread Europe, and which have "affected to a certain degree, this "country, though much leſs than "any other, have not been owing "to any defect on our part, but "that we have purſued principles "beſt calculated for the welfare "of human ſociety; the nature "and effect of which have been "frequently commented upon by "thoſe who have oppoſed, and by "thoſe who have ſupported theſe "principles, and with whom I "have had the honour to act, and "ſtill have the honour of acting; "and on which I ſay the power, "the ſecurity, the honour of this "nation have depended, and which "I truſt the perſeverance, and "firmneſs of parliament and the "nation will continue, while his "Majeſty's ſervants diſcharge "their duty."

The important queſtion which formed the leading topic of diſcuſſion,

cuſſion, received further elucidation from the talents of two members, eminent for their legal knowledge.

Dr. Laurence profeſſed himſelf adverſe to the raſhneſs of miniſters, and approved the amendment, as ſpeaking the language of caution and circumſpection, not of puſillanimity or intimidation. The queſtion was not ſo much whether the practice of the belligerent powers to ſearch neutral bottoms for enemy's property was founded in right, as whether it was conſiſtent with ſound policy in the Britiſh Government, circumſtanced as England was at preſent, to inſiſt on the right at this period. It was the policy of the military deſpot, who now wielded the power of France, to conciliate the northern potentates; he had been ſtraining and diſtorting his navigation laws in order to their accommodation, and had ſucceeded in obtaining their friendſhip. Should this confederacy be driven, by the irritation of miniſters, to unite with him, how dangerous would he become to this country! The Learned Member then conjured the Houſe to conſider whether war could be avoided before they recommended it. He did not adviſe government to abandon the right of ſearching neutral bottoms; the right was recognized in our treaties with ſeveral other ſtates; "but let us not," he ſaid, "cut "with the ſword of war the knot "which connects us with thoſe "ſtates, and all will be well again. "Let us forbear for the preſent— "in other times leſs critical, for- "bearance has been policy; it was "the policy of the magnanimous "Elizabeth, who claimed and ex- "erciſed that right—of Charles "the Second, and of the admi- "niſtration of 1780."

The matter could beſt be adjuſted by negotiation, force could never ſatisfactorily decide a queſtion of right on a general law. The northern powers denied that any thing in the convention recently ſigned, was contrary to exiſting treaties with England. The convention embraced three points: 1ſt, Free bottoms making free goods; 2d, the permiſſion to ſearch and detain contraband goods; 3d, the nature and difference of blockade. On the firſt two points various deciſions had been pronounced, highly calculated to provoke and irritate the northern powers, particularly ſome within the laſt three years in the Weſt Indies, which could not be vindicated. It was a little too much on the mere ſignature of a convention for common protection, at once to commence hoſtilities againſt nations much injured by this country. We ſhould look to ourſelves for the conduct we demanded from others. We complained of the violent arreſt of our veſſels by Ruſſia, and committed an act as violent and unjuſtifiable toward Sweden and Denmark.—Ruſſia at the commencement of the war, reſiſted any commerce whatever with France by any neutral ſtate; we interfered and moderated her pretenſions; it was then wiſe to do ſo; and the ſame ſpirit of moderation ſhould reſtrain the raſhneſs of miniſters now.

With regard to the exemption of convoys from ſearch, the claim of the northern powers, he contended, was juſt; as veſſels of the ſtate, they were protected from re-examination; the ſtate was pledged for them; he could find no precedent,

cedent, political, hiſtorical, or judicial, to juſtify the pretenſions to ſearch them. But even ſuppoſing all the claims of this country clear in the abſtract, was it prudent, when France had abſorbed all the ſmaller ſtates to drive Denmark and Sweden into her arms, by inſiſting on theſe rights at a period when they were not inclined to enter into hoſtilities with us? What could we gain? Some petty iſlands in the Weſt Indies, not worth deſiring; ſome manufactories in the eaſt not worth retaining. For ſuch a purpoſe we ought not to diſſipate the force of the country, which required to be concentrated againſt a formidable enemy. Some thought Bonaparte deſirous of peace, but what an excitement to a continuance of the war would be furniſhed to his ambition, ſhould we provoke a conteſt with the nothern confederacy! His great objects had been to weaken Auſtria, and humble the naval aſcendancy of England; the one he had completely accompliſhed, and ſhould the Houſe encourage miniſters to plunge into war with the powers of the north, he would have a fair proſpect of approaching the other. With ſuch aſſiſtance, Bonaparte having now nothing to employ his attention but England, what conſequences muſt not be apprehended by even the moſt ſanguine admirers of our courage and reſources!

The Solicitor General ſtrenuouſly oppoſed the amendment; the mover, he ſaid, had told the Honſe that the ſituation of the country required vigour, exertion, and promptitude; yet he propoſed doubt, heſitation, and inquiry. Such heſitation would be a victory to the coaleſced powers, as it would give them time and opportunity to collect and invigorate the means neceſſary to maintain their unjuſt and extraordinary pretenſions. For centuries back, the right of belligerent powers to ſearch the veſſels of neutral nations, and to detain the goods of an enemy, had been conſidered a material part of the law of nations, and had been uniformly acted upon by this country, unleſs ſurrendered by expreſs ſtipulation with particular ſtates. The Addreſs was not framed to pledge the Houſe to ſupport his Majeſty in a ſyſtem of warfare into which there was perhaps no abſolute neceſſity to enter; but it expreſſed the readineſs of parliament to cooperate in defending the claims of the nation, ſhould the northern powers perſiſt in their plans of aggreſſion. Surely the learned member who made the preceding ſpeech would not recommend a puſillanimous ſurrender of a right ſo eſſential to our exiſtence as a maritime ſtate from any conſideration of circumſtances. Did the celebrated Earl of Chatham, whoſe authority had been quoted, ever ſhrink from aſſerting it? No; it was in the war which that illuſtrious ſtateſman conducted, that this right was carried to its utmoſt extent, and the neutral nations never complained. The learned member who ſpoke laſt, poſſeſſing a moſt extenſive knowledge of the law of nations, and a ſtrong feeling for the intereſts of this country, had taken a different courſe from the mover of the amendment—he admitted the right of this country to ſearch neutral ſhips for the goods of an enemy, and that the northern confederates were contending for a principle hoſtile to the fixed and

eſtabliſhed

eſtabliſhed laws of nations; and he knew that treaties which allow an exception to this practice only ſerve more completely to eſtabliſh the right. Such had ever been the doctrines of the beſt civilians, and their opinion was ſupported by the late Lord Mansfield. We had exerciſed this right from time almoſt immemorial, and, when compared with France, with ſingular moderation. France, in a manner moſt extraordinary and unjuſt, confiſcated the ſhip of their friend, if it happened to be loaded with enemy's goods; and not merely that, but if the goods happened to be of Engliſh manufacture, or if any part of them was ſo, the whole ſhip and cargo were condemned. France then had uſed the neutral powers much worſe than we had, and yet now all the outcry was raiſed againſt this country. France was now an advocate for the freedom of the ſeas, and, joining Sweden and Denmark, maintained the uncontrouled navigation of neutral ſhips, but ſhe had not begun to do ſo till the complete deſtruction of her own navy by Lord Nelſon. By adhering to our ſyſtem we could alone hope to prevent the reſtoration of the gallic navy and commerce. The convention was expreſsly repugnant to the treaty with Denmark; and a Daniſh author, who had written in vindication of the conduct of that country, far from attempting to reconcile the two, had almoſt proceeded to the ſame extent as Briſſot and Le Brun, in maintaining that the laws of nature ſuperſeded all treaties.

The Solicitor General then ſhewed the danger of conſenting even to a modification of the rights oppoſed by the northern convention, ſince that would lead to freſh diſtinctions, and in time we ſhould be driven to the neceſſity of making war againſt the mere metaphyſical object called a ſtate, inſtead of attacking the property of the people in order to reduce the power of the ſtate. If it were true, as the laſt ſpeaker had obſerved, that injuſtice had been done to neutrals in the deciſion of ſome caſes in the Admiralty Courts, that would not juſtify hoſtilities, ſince it was ſtill in the power of the ſuffering party to proſecute appeals before a ſuperior tribunal. The inſtances cited of Queen Elizabeth and Charles II. were not parallel to the preſent circumſtances; and with reſpect to that of 1780, we now felt the ill effects of the conduct then purſued. Had the pretenſions of the armed neutrality been then reſiſted, we ſhould not now be diſturbed by the repetition of it; were we now to make a ſimilar compromiſe of our right, we ſhould only, at a future day, be expoſed to greater evils. It was, on the plaineſt grounds, an abſurdity to ſuppoſe that a convoy could preclude the right of ſearch. The faith of a ſtate could not be pledged that no enemy's goods were on board. In granting paſſports, the affidavit of the parties requiring them could alone be taken, but the captor in his ſearch might find many articles not ſpecified in the affidavits. But the Chancellor of the Exchequer had already ſtated that Adminiſtration had not been forward to take hoſtile meaſures; not until an application to the northern courts had produced an explicit avowal of their purpoſes, an avowal which

totally

totally changed the case with respect to protection.

The learned Member then proceeded in animated language to animadvert on the sentiments expressed by the mover of the Amendment, accusing him of having exhibited the most gloomy picture of our situation and resources; of having exaggerated every difficulty, and magnified every danger, while he professed it was not his intent to occasion despondency. "What "should we think," the learned gentleman exclaimed, "of the "commander of an army, who, "on the eve of an engagement, "should employ all his eloquence "to dispirit and dishearten his "men—who should inculcate cowardice, and propagate dismay—"who, by magnifying the power "of the enemy, and the danger of "the conflict, should incite his "troops to flight, or to submission? We should say that such "conduct was the extreme of "treachery or folly. For God's "sake, let no part of this community expose itself to either imputation! If we are unwilling "to act a manly, let us at least act "a consistent part. Let there be "a correspondence between the "objects we profess and the means "we employ. If we are determined to place our hopes of "safety, not in the strength of "our arms, but in the humility of "our supplications, then these addresses to our fears, these exaggerated representations of our "difficulties, have a rational aim, "and may answer a salutary purpose. They may be of use in "breaking down the stubborn "British spirit, and reconciling "it to the humiliation and disgrace to which we are preparing "to submit. But let us make an "election, and shape our conduct "according to our choice. If our "election be, as I trust it is, to "fight to the last extremity in defence of our rights and our independence; do not let us, in the "very moment when we are uttering our resolution, throw a "doubt on its firmness and sincerity, by breaking out into wailings and lamentations on the necessity we are under of forming "it. What confidence can we "place in the wisdom or the courage of him who wastes, in lamenting his condition, that "time which he ought to employ "in improving it?"

After treating some time on points connected with these observations, the Solicitor General bestowed high eulogiums on the conduct of the lower orders of the people. "In spite of excitement "and example," he said, "they "still retain their ancient characteristics. They have not yet "been prevailed upon to clamour "for the ruin and disgrace of their "country, under the vague and "deceitful name of peace. They "would not, I am persuaded, purchase a relief from the distresses "of the moment, by the sacrifice of their country's honour. "They would not consent to become tributaries of France, even "if France should undertake to "dole out to them a daily allowance of bread for the remainder "of their lives. Propose that relief to them, on those terms, "and, I am certain, they would "refuse to sell for a mess of pottage, the birth-right of their "independence. And yet, in a

place

" place where no man would bear " to hear the queſtion ſtated, we " find repreſentations made, and " arguments employed, which tend " to diſable us from making that " united and vigorous reſiſtance " by which alone our exiſtence as " a free and independent people " can be preſerved."

Contraſting this mode of conduct with that which genuine patriotiſm would purſue, the learned gentleman concluded in theſe terms: " Let the Houſe decide which " ſyſtem of conduct is moſt wiſe, " moſt manly, and moſt likely to " effect the ſalvation of the country. According to the opinion " which it ſhall form on that ſubject, it will eſtimate the merits " of the Honourable Gentleman's " ſpeech, and determine whether " it be beſt to adopt the firm and " energetic ſentiments of the addreſs, or the timid and heſitating language of the amendment."

This ſpeech produced ſome obſervations from the friends of the amendment. Mr. Tierney treated it as one train of miſrepreſentation. The lower orders of the people, he ſaid, had been highly complimented, but could it be expected they would always be ſo quiet; They would one day ſee that it was becauſe they had been but too patient, the meaſure of their calamity had been increaſed. His Majeſty's Miniſters had, without controul, poſſeſſed all the reſources of the country; but they had expended every guinea in the moſt fruitleſs and contemptible purſuits, and had brought diſgrace on Britain. Could they name a power that reſpected, or an enemy that feared them?

Mr. Sheridan, too, obſerved, that the charge of encouraging deſpondency had on every occaſion been made againſt the oppoſition, yet their predictions had always been juſtified by events. " I have " ever thought it dangerous," he ſaid, " to make a difference " between the lower orders and " thoſe above them. But I con- " feſs I ſcarcely ever heard any " doctrine of that nature more dan- " gerouſly urged, than I have " heard it this night. We talk of " quiet; I am more alarmed at this " unnatural quiet, this *dira quies*, " than I ſhould be if I heard " complaints accompanied even " with ſome tendency to diſorder. " But why don't you hear com- " plaints? You have gagged the " people, and bound them hand " and foot; and then you ſay, " look how quiet they are. I " would aſk, is there any place " but this where a man may ſpeak " his ſentiments freely? If that " be the caſe, is it not idle to " talk of this quiet of the people?"

On a diviſion the numbers for the amendment were 63—againſt it 245—majority 182.

Mr. Sturt gave notice, that on the 9th he ſhould make a motion relative to the expedition againſt Ferrol.

Feb. 3. When the report of the addreſs was brought up, a long converſation, for there was no direct motion, was maintained; ſentiments hoſtile to the addreſs being expreſſed by Mr. Tyrwhitt Jones, Mr. Banks, Mr. Nicholls, and Mr. Hobhouſe, who were anſwered by Col. Martin, member for Galway, Mr. Windham, and Mr. Wilberforce. The points treated of were principally thoſe which

were

were debated on the preceding day, the juſtice of our claim with reſpect to the matter in diſpute with the northern powers, the policy of negotiation, and the probability of peace; but on one topic, the expectations to be formed by the Catholics of Ireland, ſome expreſſions were uſed, which, from ſubſequent events, are rendered memorable. Mr. Tyrwhitt Jones ſaid he had heard that a diviſion exiſted in the cabinet on the emancipation of the Catholics; and Mr. Nicholls expreſſed great concern at having reaſon to doubt whether the Catholics in Ireland were, or were not, to have thoſe advantages which were expected from the union. He had ſupported the meaſure, becauſe he truſted it would be the means of giving to that numerous claſs of Britiſh ſubjects the equality of rights and privileges which had been denied them under a more contracted ſyſtem of policy. From a hope that ſo beneficial and important a revolution would be the reſult of it, he had endeavoured to caſt a veil over the enormities and corruption by which it had been accompliſhed; and in proportion to his warmth of expectation, was his diſappointment, to find that no proſpect was held out for their emancipation from the ſhackles of the moſt degrading ſyſtem of tyranny. Mr. Martin treated Mr. Jones's intimation as an endeavour to engage the Catholics in the cauſe of oppoſition, but affirmed, that whatever invitations might come from Gentlemen on that ſide of the Houſe to the Roman Catholics, or whatever they could ſay to induce them to join their party, they would find the Catholics of Ireland little inclined to liſt under any ſuch banner. From the Secretary at War perhaps ſome explanation on this head might be expected, but he limited his obſervations to an able defence of the conduct of government towards foreign powers, both hoſtile and neutral, and did not permit a word to eſcape him which might throw light ou the private tranſactions of the cabinet.

But although no certain information could be gained on this ſubject by ſurmiſes or interrogations in the Houſe, the rumour of a general and radical change in the cabinet, founded on ſome differences of opinion reſpecting the Catholics of Ireland, gained attention in public, and not only the retirement of ſome miniſters, but the names of their intended ſucceſſors were in the courſe of a few days ſo ſtrongly affirmed, and ſo little diſcountenanced, as to excite an active and eager ſpirit of curioſity.

Feb. 9. The proceedings in either Houſe of Parliament were not calculated to afford any ſatisfaction on the ſubject, till the day which was fixed for diſcuſſing the motion reſpecting Ferrol. When the Houſe had diſpatched ſome other matters, and was in expectation of a debate on that point, Lord Hawkeſbury, noticing the abſence of Mr. Pitt and Mr. Dundas, deſired Mr. Sturt to poſtpone the intended inquiry for a few days. Mr. Dudley Ridge joined in the requeſt, aſſuring the Houſe that the abſence of the two Miniſters was neither accidental nor voluntary; they had no inclination to ſhrink from any diſcuſſion which involved their character and conduct, their not being preſent was occaſioned by circumſtances

ſtances which it was impoſſible for him to ſpecify, but which were notorious to the whole Houſe.

Mr. Sturt having in terms equally moderate and polite acceded to the requeſt, and deferred his motion till the 12th, Mr. Grey ſtrongly enforced the propriety of inquiring into the paſt meaſures of government with perſeverance and diſpatch. The Houſe had been called upon to refrain from diſcuſſion to-day rather in an extraordinary manner. There had been a rumour for ſome days of a great and important change in the cabinet; yet it was but a rumour, and for the change no adequate reaſon had been aſſigned. For his part, he conſidered that events were occurring ſo rapidly in every direction, to aggravate the calamities, and magnify the dangers of the country; that he ſhould, on the 16th, bring forward a motion reſpecting the general ſtate of the nation.

The ſame day a notice was publicly delivered to the merchants of London by Mr. Newland, principal caſhier of the bank, that although the preſent Chancellor of the Exchequer was about to retire from office, he would not reſign till the new adminiſtration ſhould be formed and qualified to execute its public duties, and that Mr. Pitt would raiſe ſupplies for the current year, according to his original intention.

On the enſuing day, the debates in Parliament terminated all doubt and ſuſpenſe on this moſt important and truly ſurpriſing occurrence. Lord Darnley, who had promiſed a motion on the conduct of miniſters reſpecting the war, was entreated by the Earl of Carliſle to delay his purpoſe. The general ſituation of the country, the Earl obſerved, was now critical and alarming, almoſt beyond any former example; but it involved in it many circumſtances which, if viewed in the light in which he had conſidered them, were ſufficient to diſſuade any Noble Lord from preſſing a diſcuſſion of this nature at the preſent conjuncture. Not only in his opinion might ſuch a diſcuſſion appear premature; but, what came more home to his feelings, it might now be deemed ungenerous and unmanly to bring forward any charge againſt the conduct of miniſters, while they were placed in a ſituation in which it might be embarraſſing to them to enter on their defence. Many of them, it was ſuppoſed, were retiring from office; and the grounds upon which their withdrawing was accounted for, added conſiderably to the dangers and difficulties to which the intereſts and ſafety of the empire were expoſed. He more particularly alluded to the queſtion of the emancipation of the Iriſh Roman Catholics, for which the faith of government had in ſome degree been pledged; and this queſtion he could not help regarding as big with the moſt momentous conſequences.—However he might lament the deciſion that had taken place on this very delicate point, he wiſhed that any diſcuſſion of it might be abſtained from at preſent.

Feb. 10.

Lord Darnley ſaid, when he gave notice of the inquiry he had that day intended to move, the country was in a ſituation of unprecedented danger. In the very ſhort interval ſince that time, the danger had become ten-fold increaſed. His intention was, to move for a gene-

ral inquiry into the conduct of his Majesty's Ministers; the situation of this country with respect to almost all Europe, urged the inquiry. The danger to which the Noble Earl alluded, seemed to him a new and powerful motive for persevering. Rumours of a most alarming nature prevailed; it was asserted that his Majesty's Councils were—what should he say, it was difficult to express the thing as it was rumoured—that his Majesty's Councils were dissolved; all that was great in them violently torn away, nothing remaining but what was abortive; and that something mean and poor in intellect and consequence was to be substituted. Was this disjointed, unhappy state of things in his Majesty's Councils a reason for their Lordships supineness? The danger from foreign politics was extreme; in all respects, the circumstances of the country were most perilous; and the difficulty and mischief of all this were increased by his Majesty being left (as it was said) without ministers. He saw no motive for delay, but submitted entirely to the discretion of the House.

Lord Romney supported the request of Lord Carlisle, alleging as a reason, the unsettled state of the executive administration; and Lord Fife, without directly touching on the postponement of Lord Darnley's motion, made a general attack on the conduct of the ministry, who were supposed to be retiring, accompanied with reflections on their proposed successors. "If the "changes talked of are real," he said, "I am confident it will add "no credit to the ministers that "retire: No man ever loved his "Majesty more, or had a greater "respect for his ministers than I "had; but evil advice has got "round the throne, and changes of "the most alarming nature have "of consequence taken place; if "it is a trick, nothing could have "been so wickedly advised; if it "is real, nothing more ludicrous; "and, if it was not in the present momentous instant, it should "be deservedly laughed at. It "really looks to me like a farce "that I have often seen on the "stage, where so many judges are "placed on chairs, and immediately they are removed from "sight, and an equal number of "old women substituted, who "sing a song—

"Why not old women do as well as old men?"

Lord Carlisle was anxious to prevent the idea being entertained that in any thing he had said to dissuade the Noble Lord from persisting in his motion, he could be influenced by any desire to give his countenance and support to the new administration that was about to be formed. Nothing could be more distant from his intentions and thoughts. On the contrary, he was sensible how inadequate it must prove to the arduous task which it was attempting to undertake; and indeed to give any encouragement to the principles upon which the new ministers were supposed to come into power, would be a base dereliction of every duty the House owed to the King, to their country, and themselves. The present most alarming situation of the empire called for the ablest heads and hands to direct and administer its affairs; and could any expectation be rationally entertained of effecting our salvation by the exertions of such a ricketty

a ricketty adminiſtration as that which was now ſuppoſed to be undertaking the helm of ſtate? Hitherto a hope at leaſt was held out by the late adminiſtration, that ſomething would be done in favour of the Catholics of Ireland; to that the national honour had been pledged; and if that hope were now ſuddenly extinguiſhed, what could be expected to enſue, but all the horrors and miſchiefs to which men can be inſtigated by complete deſpair?

Lord Grenville having ſolemnly implored the Houſe to be cautious and prudent, and to abſtain from all premature diſcuſſion, avowed and accounted for the ſeceſſion of himſelf and friends from the cabinet. Some time ago he ſaid Lord Spencer, Lord Chatham, himſelf, and ſeveral other of his Majeſty's Miniſters, Members of the Houſe of Commons, thought it expedient that the benefits of the union ſhould be rendered as great and as extenſive as poſſible, by certain diſabilities being removed, under which a great portion of the inhabitants of Ireland laboured.—"Imagining," he ſaid, "that "this meaſure alone could be effectual, if coming from the executive government, we felt it "our duty to propoſe it to thoſe "who direct his Majeſty's Councils. It was not deemed eligible, "and we were unable to prevail. "Our opinion of its policy remaining unaltered, and ſtill "thinking that, and that alone, "could eſtabliſh the tranquility "and proſperity of the empire "on a permanent baſis, we "conſidered ourſelves bound to "retire. Accordingly we tendered to his Majeſty the reſignation of our ſeveral employments, and he has been graciouſly "pleaſed to diſpenſe with our ſervices. Thus, my Lords, we only "hold our offices till our ſucceſſors are appointed." His Lordſhip then expreſſed his warm ſenſe of the ſupport he had received from the Houſe in the courſe of his adminiſtration, of his Majeſty's uniform attention to him during that period, and of the flattering marks of royal regard which had accompanied his reſignation, deſcribed the good effects of the exertions which had been made in preſerving the conſtitution intire, and the nation independent and powerful; "It is our conſolation," he added, "to reflect that the ſame vigorous line of conduct will ſtill be "purſued. Though we have retired from office, no change of "meaſure will take place; but the "ſyſtem which has already proved "ſo ſalutary will continue to be "acted upon by our ſucceſſors. "Though we may differ from "them in ſome points, in moſt, "there is no difference between "us; and while they continue to "act in a firm, reſolute, and manly "manner, they ſhall have our "ſteady ſupport. Our moſt anxious wiſh is, (and though I expreſs it laſt, it is neareſt to my "heart,) that they may receive "from your Lordſhips and the "public the ſame ſupport which "we have experienced. Diviſion, "indeciſion, timidity, and deſpondence, muſt, at the preſent "moment, be ruin. It is only "by unanimity and firmneſs that "the country can be ſaved."

Lord Spencer, cordially and completely acquieſcing in the aſſurances given by Lord Grenville,

corroborated his ſtatement of the reaſons which had occaſioned the reſignation of miniſters, and expreſſed a ſimilar intention of continuing to ſupport the general ſyſtem to be adopted by their ſucceſſors.

Lord Moira concurred in recommending the delay, but regretted that there was not now, as in 1782, a change, not of men alone, but of principles. Miniſters did not retire to make way for wiſer men and wiſer counſels, to repair the miſchiefs of their adminiſtration, but, according to the Noble Secretary's explicit declaration, the ſame meaſures were to be followed by the new miniſters. What then was done? In proportion as the ſituation of public affairs increaſed in difficulty and danger, talents were to be withdrawn from the cabinet, although the ſyſtem which cauſed all the evil was to remain entire; that was the plain language of the Noble Lord; but without that language could the myſtery be miſtaken? What was left to make up this new adminiſtration, but all that was inefficient in the old one? According to the ratio of our diſtreſſes, was to be the ratio of weakneſs and incapacity in the Cabinet.

It was agreed to defer Lord Darnley's motion till the 20th, but in diſcuſſing a propoſition for a call of the Houſe ſeveral obſervations were made on the ſubject commonly ſpoken of by the phraſe Catholic Emancipation; theſe were repreſſed by the Lord Chancellor, and the call was refuſed by a majority of 31, the numbers being 54 to 23.

In the Houſe of Commons, Mr. Ley, the Clerk, read a letter from the Speaker, tendering his reſignation, in conſequence of his Majeſty having expreſſed an intention of appointing him to a public ſituation, incompatible with that which he held in the Houſe. The letter expreſſed the Miniſter's ſenſe of the honourable and gratifying manner in which the chair had been repeatedly conferred on, and recently continued to him, and the ſentiments of reſpect, gratitude, and regret with which he was inſpired. He was ſuſtained however by the conſideration, that, on this occaſion, he was actuated by the ſame principles of public duty which had ever influenced his conduct, and from which he truſted he ſhould never deviate.

The Houſe, after ſome obſervations from Sir William Pulteney, expreſſing his ſincere reſpect for the individual who had quitted the chair, acceded without further debate to a motion made by Mr. Pitt, for an adjournment till the morrow, then to proceed, agreeably to his Majeſty's command, to the election of another Speaker.

On the motion of Lord Hawkeſbury, ſeconded by Mr. Iſaac Hawkins Browne, Feb. 11. Sir John Mitford, who reſigned the office of Attorney General in order to render himſelf eligible, was choſen Speaker. He was, in fact, elected without oppoſition, for Mr. Sheridan, who propoſed to have nominated Mr. Charles Dundas, was prevented by the circumſtance of that Gentleman not having qualified himſelf to ſit and vote in the Houſe, by taking the oaths.

The debate on this occaſion is only memorable for the ingenuity exhibited by Mr. Sheridan and Mr. Pitt, in diſcuſſing the Act of Parliament which prevented the nomination

mination of Mr. Charles Dundas, and the opinions and hopes expreſſed by various members reſpecting the late Speaker, now about to be Chancellor of the Exchequer. Lord Hawkeſbury ſaid, that Right Honourable Gentleman had accepted a ſituation of great and momentous difficulty: his elevation he had neither ſought nor wiſhed for; but the ſenſe alone which he entertained of his public duty had made him conſent to aſſume the high office conferred upon him by his Sovereign. "Whatever prejudices "political opinions may have "created againſt perſons who have "filled other offices," his Lordſhip ſaid, "I may aver, without the "leaſt fear of contradiction in "this Houſe, that there is but one "opinion in it with reſpect to the "integrity and ability of the late "Speaker, with reſpect to the "moderation and impartiality he "diſplayed when he preſided in "the moſt important debates—in "debates too, when our paſſions "were moſt naturally inflamed. "The univerſal and unanimous "confidence which our experience "of him for the laſt twelve years "has created, I am perſuaded, can "never be ſhaken by his conduct "in any ſtation. Whatever poſt "he may be called upon to fill, I "am convinced that his zeal and "patriotiſm will be as conſpicuous as they have hitherto been "in the Houſe, and out of it; "his courage will never be appalled by danger; and the moderation which has guided him in "that chair will be equally proved, "in any advice he may be required "to give."

Mr. Pitt obſerved, that the perſon who had for ſo many years filled that ſituation with ſo much credit and dignity, who, while diſcharging the duties of that laborious office, had ſecured the eſteem and approbation of every member of the Houſe, had ſufficiently ſhewn by his example, that a minute acquaintance with the laborious details of buſineſs, that habits of preciſion and correctneſs, and an intimate knowledge of the modes and forms of proceeding in that Houſe, are qualifications neceſſary for the perſon who ſhall fill the chair. By all theſe his Right Honourable Friend, who had retired from the chair, was peculiarly diſtinguiſhed; and no doubt could be entertained but that he would carry with him to the new ſituation which he was about to fill, the ſame perſevering attention, the ſame diſtinguiſhed abilities which he had ſo often diſplayed in another ſituation:—there was no doubt but that he would, in that ſituation, meet with equal approbation, and execute the duties of his office with equal ſucceſs.

Mr. Sheridan diſſenting from the remarks of Mr. Pitt, ſaid, great and juſt praiſe had been given to the late Speaker, in which he heartily joined; but he could not give his confidence to the Right Honourable Gentleman in his new and trying ſituation, till he had the proof and experience of facts. And he was the more required to be on his guard, ſince it had been openly avowed that the new adminiſtration would act on the principles of the old. He muſt, therefore, withhold his confidence, till he ſaw that Right Honourable Gentleman a little tried in his new ſituation.

The choice made by the Houſe was the next day ratified, his Ma-

jesty's consent being given by commission, and on a subsequent day, Mr. Addington received from the House, an unanimous vote of thanks for the exemplary and distinguished manner in which he had discharged the duties of Speaker, and he was assured that the proofs he had uniformly given of attachment to the constitution, the steadiness with which he had maintained the dignity and privileges of the House, the ability, integrity, and unremitting attention to parliamentary business which had marked the whole of his conduct, justly entitled him to the approbation, respect, and gratitude of the House.

Feb. 16.

CHAP. V.

Changes in the Adminiſtration. The King's illneſs. Examination of the cauſes of the late change. Doubts entertained by the public, reſpecting the reaſon aſſigned. Various conjectures. Peculiar ſituation of the new miniſter. Manner in which an oppoſition was commenced. Papers circulated among the Roman Catholics of Ireland. Catholic emancipation the real cauſe of the change of miniſtry. Circumſtances attending it. Honours and emoluments conferred on the retiring miniſters. Progreſs of the diſpute with the northern powers. Embargo laid by England. Note in juſtification of it. Anſwers of the Daniſh and Swediſh Ambaſſadors. Embargo laid on Engliſh property by Denmark and Sweden. Violent hoſtility of Ruſſia. Communication by Great Britain to Pruſſia. Anſwer of Count Haugwitz. Reſolution of the new miniſters. Note of the Daniſh Ambaſſador to Lord Hawkeſbury. The Swediſh Ambaſſador gives a Copy of the hoſtile convention. His note. Anſwer of the Britiſh government. Ineffectual miſſion of Mr. Vanſittart to Denmark. Hoſtile meaſures prepared againſt Great Britain. Prince Charles of Heſſe prepares to occupy Hamburgh. His manifeſto. Appeal of the Senate, who are forced to yield. Embargo laid on Britiſh property. The King of Pruſſia's declaration, and occupation of Hanover. Naval preparation made by Great Britain. Loſs of the Invincible. The Britiſh fleet paſſes the Sound. Preparations for the attack and defence of Copenhagen. Battle of Copenhagen. Valour of both parties. The engagement terminated by the humanity of Lord Nelſon. His interview with the King of Denmark. A temporary ceſſation of hoſtilities. Zeal of the Danes in providing for their wounded, and inſpiring public ſpirit. Courteſy of Lord Nelſon. Loſs on both ſides. Armiſtice concluded for fourteen weeks. Death of the Emperor of Ruſſia. Circumſtances which led to and diſtinguiſhed that event. Firſt Acts of the new Emperor Alexander. The Engliſh ſailors liberated. The Britiſh fleet repair to Carlſcrona. Correſpondence with Sweden. A courier from Ruſſia brings pacific propoſals. Progreſs of Negociation. The Danes evacuate Hamburgh. Embargo on the ſhips of Sweden and Denmark revoked. Treaty concluded between Great Britain, Ruſſia, Sweden, and Denmark. Its principal ſtipulations.

THE change in the Adminiſtration, as finally effected, was as follows:—Lord Hawkeſbury was appointed Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs inſtead of Lord Grenville: Lord St. Vincent ſucceeded Earl Spencer as Firſt Lord of the Admiralty; the remaining ſeats of the Board being filled by Sir Philip Stephens, Bart. the Hon. William Eliot, Sir Thomas Troubridge, Bart. James Adam, John Markham, and Wm. Garthſhore, Eſqrs.; the Right Hon. Henry Addington was appointed Firſt Lord of the Treaſury and Chancellor of the Exchequer, in lieu of Mr. Pitt; the other ſeats at the Trea-

Feb. 20.

Feb. 21.

Mar. 17.

ſury Board being conferred on John Smith and Charles Small Pybus, Eſqrs. George Lord Thynne and Nathaniel Bond, Eſq. and Mr. John Hiley Addington, the Miniſter's brother, being made Secretary; the Earl of Hardwicke ſucceeded the Marquis Cornwallis in the Lord Lieutenancy of Ireland, Lord Hobart was made Secretary of State for the War Department, in lieu of Mr. Dundas, and the Right Honourable Charles Yorke, brother of the Earl of Hardwicke, received the poſt of Secretary at War, vacated by Mr. Windham; the Right Hon. Thomas Steele and Lord Glenbervie were nominated Joint Paymaſters of the Forces, the former retaining his office, the latter being ſubſtituted for Mr. Dudley Ryder; and Mar. 23. Lord Auckland and Lord Chas. Spencer, Joint Poſtmaſter General, in the room of the Earls of Leiceſter and Cheſterfield. The arrangements in the Law Department were not ſo ſoon effected. April 14. Lord Eldon received the ſeals, which were reſigned by Lord Loughborough; May 30. Sir Richard Pepper Arden, raiſed to the peerage by the title of Baron Alvanley, aſſumed the Chief Juſticeſhip of the Court of Common Pleas, vacated by Lord Eldon, and the office of Maſter of the Rolls, reſigned by the new Judge, was given to Sir William Grant, late Solicitor General. Sir Edward Law now became Attorney, and the Hon. Spencer Perceval, Solicitor General. The Board of Commiſſioners for India Affairs was filled by the following perſons: Lord Viſcount Lewiſham, Preſident, inſtead of Mr. Dundas; the Duke of Portland, Lords Hawkeſbury and Hobart, Mr. Addington, the Duke of Montroſe, Earl Bathurſt, Lord Glenbervie, William Dundas and Thomas Wallace, Eſqrs. Lord Arden, Thomas Pelham, and Edward Golding, Eſqrs.; and finally, the Earl of Chatham accepted the poſt of Maſter of the Ordnance, reſigned by the Marquis Cornwallis. June 27.

The long delay which impeded ſome of the moſt important of theſe appointments, aroſe, not from any difficulty or miſunderſtanding among the Members of the intended Cabinet, but from a cauſe moſt alarming and afflictive to the public in the preſent ſtate of affairs. His Majeſty was ſuddenly ſeized with a violent cold and fever; and although at firſt, and for ſome time, he continued able to ſign commiſſions, and attend to ordinary buſineſs, it was at length found neceſſary to forbid even thoſe exertions, and uſe all endeavours to obtain for him the benefits of repoſe. The public anxiety on this, as on former occaſions, ſpoke moſt loudly the praiſes of the Sovereign; official notes were daily iſſued, and prayers were read in all churches for the King's recovery; the bleſſing, ſo much deſired, was not long delayed; his Majeſty's amendment in health was ſpeedily announced, and the prayer, dictated by anxiety, was ſuperſeded by a thankſgiving, expreſſive of the public gratitude to Providence. Feb. 18. Mar. 11.

An event ſo unexpected as the diſſolution of that adminiſtration, which had ſo long governed the affairs of the country, could not be viewed by the public without

ſenſations

ſenſations of extreme ſurprize, mixed, as party views happened to prevail, with regret or exultation, cenſure or applauſe.

The motive, ſo explicitly aſſigned for the meaſure in both Houſes of Parliament, was not deemed adequate to the production of its effect, and, under all the circumſtances of the times, many who were well diſpoſed to give credence to the aſſertions of the retiring miniſters, could not ſatisfy themſelves in believing, that men, who had with ſo much courage and perſeverance ſtruggled forward in times of unexampled difficulty and embarraſſment, ſhould, at laſt, reſign the helm, rather than encounter a propoſition which they alone could call into diſcuſſion, or which, whatever ſentiments might be entertained of its general propriety, could, without danger or injury, be allowed to reſt for the preſent, in the expectation of being favourably conſidered at a more proper opportunity.

The prevalent opinion, that ſome other cauſe, beſide the Catholic queſtion, occaſioned the change in the cabinet, received ſome countenance from Mr. Pitt, who, in a ſpeech on the 16th of February, while he avowed that to be the reaſon of the late reſignations, declared that he did not think himſelf bound to give *all* the reaſons, nor did he know of any eſtabliſhed ſyſtem of duty which obliged him to aſſign any. This expreſſion, although general in itſelf, and uſed in a general ſenſe in the courſe of debate, was underſtood by many to confirm the opinion ſo generally entertained, of a latent undiſcloſed cauſe of the event which occaſioned ſo much curioſity.

None of the conjectures, however, to which the tranſaction gave birth, afforded any plauſible explanation of the conduct they were deſigned to elucidate. Fear of the new members introduced into Parliament by the union could not be the cauſe, ſince the diviſion on the Addreſs ſhewed the miniſters more than uſually ſtrong, and the oppoſition, with all the advantages preſented to their cauſe by the portentous aſpect of the times, did not create any great ſenſation either in the Houſe, or on the public. Nor did the experience afterward obtained ſhew that the Iriſh members would be hoſtile to government, ſince, in a great debate on the ſtate of the nation, only ſix of that body divided with the oppoſition. The impoſſibility that Mr. Pitt and his friends ſhould ſucceed in obtaining a ſatisfactory peace, an acquiſition moſt earneſtly deſired by the nation, was much inſiſted on as a reaſon of their retreat; but there was yet no evidence, nor even an appearance of the attempt to negotiate, and thoſe who ſpeculated wiſely on ſuch a ſubject, muſt have known, that if the efforts made by France for the depreſſion of Great Britain, were ſucceſsful, peace on terms conſiſtent with honour, or even with ſafety, was not to be expected; but if they failed in one attempt, that of the northern confederacy, many other events muſt alſo concur to incline that government to an accommodation. Thoſe events could not be decided but by a ſeries of circumſtances, in the courſe of which miniſters might have found many motives and cauſes for retiring, without the ſigns of precipitancy which

which now marked their conduct. Nor could they reaſonably be ſuppoſed to dread the approaching events, ſince they avowed and defended the ſhare they had taken in conducting them; and Mr. Pitt, in retiring, aided his ſucceſſor, by taking on himſelf the painful, and ever unpopular taſk, of raiſing ſupplies for the current year.

By many, the change which was effected, was conſidered only as an experiment to carry on the ſame ſyſtem of government under a new ſet of names, while, in fact, the retiring miniſters would retain a full, and even an undue, ſhare of influence in guiding the operations of the cabinet, and in the diſtribution of honours and emoluments. They conſidered, and the opinion was frequently expreſſed in Parliament, the new miniſters, as mere agents, temporary ſubſtitutes, or ſcreens to their predeceſſors; men recommended, appointed, and almoſt created by them; who, after acting for a while in their ſtead, would be diſplaced, that the others might reſume the ſtations they had ſo long enjoyed. This ſpeculation, equally illiberal and unfounded, was beſt refuted by a conſideration of the characters and hopes of the perſons now promoted, and particularly the ſituation of the new Chancellor of the Exchequer. He had recently been re-elected, with the intire approbation of all parties, into a ſituation which he filled with conſpicuous ability, which was ſuited to his habits and his wiſhes, and in which, it was manifeſt, from many circumſtances, that he expected long to remain. From this ſituation he was called, at a moment when anxious and gloomy preſages occupied the public mind, to fill one to which he had not aſpired, and in which he only propoſed to follow the ſyſtem of his predeceſſor, which he had always cordially ſupported, with the exception of one ſingle innovation, which perhaps it would be unpopular to reſiſt. That his adminiſtration would be eaſy, he had no reaſon to expect, for although the expreſſions of Lord Grenville, and ſome which fell from Mr. Pitt, and others ſtill more forcible uſed by Mr. Dundas, might lead him to expect co-operation and ſupport, ſtill a very ſlight acquaintance with the human heart muſt have taught him how little the permanency of ſuch expectations could be relied on, and have convinced him that, whether his adminiſtration was proſperous or unſucceſsful, whether the difficulties of the nation were increaſed or obviated, a party would ſoon be formed hoſtile to his newly obtained power, while the ſtation he had left would be for ever barred againſt him. How far his perſonal feelings would be conſidered by any of his opponents, he had a ſufficient ſpecimen, in the ſpeeches already quoted, where, while every pretenſion to talent was denied him, he was accuſed of culpable temerity for undertaking the dangerous taſk of refuſing a boon, while a ſtrong and powerful adminiſtration had ſhrunk with apprehenſion from the taſk. A ſpeech was alſo made in the Houſe of Commons by Earl Temple in a ſubſequent debate, where he termed the new adminiſtration, "a thing of ſhreds and patches," made up of men unknowing and inexperienced,

experienced, who, whatever might be their talents, prudence, or capacity, could claim no confidence, becauſe they had never manifeſted the qualities on which alone it could be founded. Of a ſimilar kind, though ſtudded all over with thoſe brilliancies which characterize his oratory, was a ſpeech on the ſame ſubject, delivered by Mr. Sheridan, on the 16th of February. He ſpoke of the change of miniſters as occaſioning a great defalcation of vigour and talents in the cabinet; compared the tranſaction to the conduct of a naval commander, who, in preparation for a ſea-fight, ſhould throw overboard the great guns, inſtead of the lumber; or who, in expectation of a ſtorm, ſhould cut away his rudder inſtead of his incumbrances. When an Election Committee was formed, he ſaid, the watchword was, to ſhorten the buſineſs by "*knocking out the brains*" of the Committee. This was done by ſtriking from the liſt the names of the lawyers and other gentlemen who might happen to know a little too much of the ſubject. In this ſenſe Mr. Pitt had literally *knocked out the brains* of the adminiſtration; and then clapping a maſk on the ſkeleton, cried—"Here is as fine vigour and talent for you as any body may wiſh to ſee! This *empty ſkull*, this *ſkeleton adminiſtration*," ſaid Mr. Sheridan, "is the phantom that is to overawe our enemies, and to command the confidence of the Houſe and people." Such obſervations muſt have led the new miniſtry to anticipate a vehement and rancorous oppoſition, and perhaps in aſſuaging for a ſhort time this violent ſpirit, leſs was effected by the promiſes of the retiring miniſters, than by the candid and rational requeſt of a near relative of Mr. Addington, that he ſhould not be prejudged; but that, till proofs to the contrary were produced, an expectation might be entertained that he would act in ſuch a manner as to inſure the continuance of that favour which he had already ſo liberally experienced.

Many were inclined to conſider the confidence expreſſed by the retiring miniſters in the conduct of their ſucceſſors, rather as an effort to yield with a good grace to the circumſtances of the times, than as the genuine dictates of their minds. Theſe perſons conſidered the conduct of Mr. Addington, as arrogant, inſidious, and even ungrateful. They believed that he had infuſed into the mind of the Sovereign unfounded prejudices againſt the meaſure which Mr. Pitt and his friends were deſirous to ſupport, and had then taken advantage of thoſe ſentiments to gratify his own views of ambition. Againſt this ſuppoſition every expreſſion uttered in Parliament by the retiring miniſters afforded concluſive evidence; they denied that their removal had proceeded from any other cauſe than their own choice, founded on the impoſſibility of carrying a certain queſtion; acknowledged the high obligations conferred on them by his Majeſty, and profeſſed toward him the utmoſt gratitude, duty, and affection.

Yet the opinion of thoſe who conſidered the miniſters diſplaced againſt their will, and irritated at the event, was not intirely

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without ſupport. It received ſtrong corroboration from two celebrated papers diſtributed where they might moſt embarraſs government, and moſt tend to ſecure a ſeparate and active party; among the Roman Catholics of Ireland. Theſe papers were not circulated immediately on a rumour of the change of adminiſtration, but the public mind was prepared for them by an avowal from the higheſt authority in that country, that the reports contained in the London newſpapers were true, and that a diſagreement in the council, as there ſtated, reſpecting the affairs of Ireland, had occaſioned the ſeceſſion of a part of the miniſtry, which would be followed by the departure of the Lord Lieutenant. This information was ſucceeded in a few weeks, by the delivery of the papers in queſtion to a titular Iriſh Biſhop, and to a nobleman profeſſing the Romiſh religion, and an eminent ſupporter of that cauſe. It is ſaid that they were to be diſcreetly communicated to the biſhops and principal Catholics, and not inſerted in the newſpapers, but this precaution was either negligently given, or utterly diſregarded, ſince the papers were ſoon made public both in the Engliſh and Iriſh prints, and not diſavowed in ſubſtance, though the correctneſs of every word was not admitted, by the parties to whom they were imputed.*

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* The Papers were in theſe words:—

The leading part of his Majeſty's miniſters finding inſurmountable obſtacles to the bringing forward meaſures of conceſſion to the Catholic body whilſt in office, have felt it impoſſible to continue in adminiſtration under the inability to propoſe it with the circumſtances neceſſary to carrying the meaſure with all its advantages; and they have retired from his Majeſty's ſervice, conſidering this line of conduct as moſt likely to contribute to its ultimate ſucceſs. The Catholic body will therefore ſee how much their future hopes muſt depend upon ſtrengthening their cauſe by good conduct; in the mean time they will *prudently conſider their proſpects as ariſing from the perſons who now eſpouſe their intereſts*, and compare them with thoſe which they could look to from any other quarter; they may with confidence rely on the ſupport of all thoſe who retire, and of many who remain in office, when it can be given with a proſpect of ſucceſs. They may be aſſured, that Mr. Pitt *will do his utmoſt to eſtabliſh their cauſe in the public favour, and prepare the way for their finally attaining their objects:* and the Catholics will feel, that as Mr. Pitt could not concur in a hopeleſs attempt to force it now, that he muſt at all times repreſs with the ſame deciſion as if he held an adverſe opinion, any unconſtitutional conduct in the Catholic body.

Under theſe circumſtances it cannot be doubted that the Catholics will take the moſt loyal, dutiful, and patient line of conduct; that they will not ſuffer themſelves to be led into meaſures, which can, by any conſtruction, give a handle to the oppoſers of their wiſhes, either to miſinterpret their principles, or to raiſe an argument for reſiſting their claims; but that by their prudent and exemplary demeanour they will afford additional grounds to the growing number of their advocates, to enforce their claims on proper occaſions, until their objects can be finally and advantageouſly attained.

The Sentiments of a ſincere Friend (i. e. Marquis Cornwallis) to the Catholic Claims.

If the Catholics ſhould now proceed to violence, or entertain any ideas of obtaining their objects by convulſive meaſures, or forming aſſociations with men of Jacobinical principles, they muſt of courſe loſe the ſupport and aid of thoſe who have ſacrificed their own ſituations in their cauſe, but who would at the ſame time feel it to be their indiſpenſible duty to oppoſe every thing tending to confuſion.

On the other hand, ſhould the Catholics *be ſenſible of the benefits they poſſeſs by having ſo many characters of eminence pledged not to embark in the ſervice of Government, except on*

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From all these varieties of circumstance, declaration and conjecture, many opinions were formed equally repugnant to truth, and injurious to the persons principally concerned. It appears undoubtedly true, that the sole motive of the ministers for retiring was, that which they assigned: they had given some promise, or some intimation to the Catholics, during the negotiation for the union, in consequence of which they considered themselves obliged, and were perhaps further impelled by their own conviction of its propriety, to urge the immediate accomplishment of the measure, commonly called Catholic emancipation; but it does not seem that the measure was urged, or even expected by those who were to be the objects of it; they received the papers respecting it with great coolness, and no address, or public expression either of confidence or gratitude was produced by this extraordinary communication. If the ministers were not required by the claims of the parties interested to make any sudden exertion, still the more surprizing is the secrecy they thought necessary on the occasion. At the meeting of the Imperial Parliament, the King appears to have been utterly unacquainted with the intentions of his ministers, and the individual whom he selected to fill the principal vacancy which his subsequent disapprobation of it occasioned, was allowed to accept of an incompatible situation, from which he was displaced in a very few days.

How the intention of ministers to effect so important a change in the constitution as the removal of all restraints from the Catholics, and, in course, the abolition of all tests, was disclosed to the Sovereign, is not ascertained; but it appears that at a levee, held shortly after the first meeting of the Imperial Parliament, he expressed himself in very strong and pointed terms on the subject to a member of the cabinet, one of those who afterward retired. This conversation occasioned an immediate alteration in the course of public business; the opening of Parliament, which was generally expected to take place in the fourth day after its first meeting, was postponed another week, nor was any reason assigned for this delay but the allowance of time for swearing in the members.

In this interval, most unexpectedly to him, for he had not been apprized of any of the previous transactions, Mr. Addington received his Majesty's commands to attend him at Buckingham-house, and was there first apprized of the resolution which the King had formed not to assent to the measure proposed, and directed, in case it was still pressed on him, to turn his attention to the formation of a ministry, of which he should be the leader.

On this trying occasion, Mr. Addington acted with becoming candour, and characteristic integrity. He apprized Mr. Pitt of the interview he had been called to, and, during the interval which elapsed between that period and

the terms of the Catholic privileges being obtained, it is to be hoped, that on balancing the advantages and disadvantages of their situation they would prefer a quiet and peaceable demeanour to any line of conduct of an opposite description.

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the reſignation of miniſters, uſed every exertion that private friendſhip and public ſpirit could dictate, to avert an event, which, in the exiſting criſis, he conſidered highly detrimental to the intereſts of the country. His efforts, though for ſome time continued in hope, terminated in diſappointment; and it was not the language of empty profeſſion, but of perfect ſincerity, which he ſpoke in his letter to the Houſe of Commons, when he declared his regret at reſigning the chair, and that his mind was ſupported by the conſideration, that in obeying the command of his Sovereign, he was acting in uniform obſervance of the principle of public duty which had ever influenced his conduct.

Under all circumſtances, the change was the leaſt mortifying to Mr. Pitt and his friends that could have taken place. None whom they wiſhed to ſee in office were removed, nor would their advice on any ſubject, but that which occaſioned their reſignation, be refuſed. If in their long adminiſtration of public affairs they had attached themſelves cordially to any ſyſtem of politics, they could rely on the new miniſters, who had ever cordially co-operated with them, to adopt the meaſures beſt calculated to carry that ſyſtem into full effect. No ſpirit of rivalry exiſting in the minds of their ſucceſſors was gratified by their removal; and as that reſulted merely from a voluntary act of their own, there appeared to be no reaſon why they ſhould envy, or endeavour to ſupplant their ſucceſſors. Yet cordial ſupport without direct participation of power is rarely to be expected, and although no immediate party was declared in hoſtility to the new miniſtry, it was eaſy to foreſee that thoſe who railed againſt them ſo loudly before they were tried, would not long want coadjutors.

The members of adminiſtration who retired, had not, however, any cauſe to complain of the circumſtances attending their departure from office. Lord Grenville obtained, in addition to ſome other ſources of emolument during his own life, a penſion during that of his lady; Mr. Dundas was ſoon raiſed to the peerage by the title of Lord Viſcount Melville; and the Eaſt India Company, by an unanimous vote, ſettled on him an annuity of two thouſand pounds; Lord Loughborough, beſide the proviſion uſually made for a chancellor who retires, was made Earl of Roſslyn, with a limitation of the title to his nephew. The long and conſpicuous ſervices of Mr. Pitt were not particularly conſidered on this occaſion; he obtained neither title, nor penſion, having only the place of Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports, of which he had been many years poſſeſſed. Lord Spencer too received no mark of royal favour on the occaſion; and Mr. Windham retired from office without title or proviſion of any kind. Mar. 17.

Before we return to narrate the further proceedings of the Imperial Parliament, it will be neceſſary to deſcribe the progreſs and termination of the diſpute with the northern powers, the origin of which has already been traced, together with the opinions of the leading members of each Houſe of Parliament on its juſtice and policy.

The reſolution to reſiſt with force

force the hoſtile combination was not adopted till negotiation had been carried to the utmoſt length, which propriety or national dignity could allow. The diſtinct avowal of the northern confederacy by all the powers engaged in it, appeared to the miniſtry ſo to unite them all in every act, that no diſtinction could be made which was not of a nature too ſubtle to guide the conduct of nations. Conſequently, in the order Jan. 14. for an embargo which was iſſued before the meeting of parliament, the detention of Britiſh veſſels in Ruſſia, and the impriſonment of the ſailors, and the formation of the hoſtile league during the continuance of thoſe proceedings, were jointly ſtated as the cauſe of the vindictive meaſure which the government thought fit to adopt. The order of Council prohibited Britiſh ſhips from entering and clearing out for any port of Ruſſia, Sweden, or Denmark; and ordered a general embargo on all veſſels of thoſe nations already arrived, or afterward to arrive in Britiſh ports, together with the perſons and effects on board; but the greateſt care was to be taken to ſecure them againſt injury or embezzlement; and all Britiſh ſubjects were forbidden to pay any monies due to, or honour any bills drawn by, the merchants of Ruſſia, Sweden, or Denmark.

Jan. 15. The note of Lord Grenville to Count Von Wedel Jarlſberg, the Daniſh, and Baron Von Ehrenſward, the Swediſh Embaſſador, on this occaſion, expreſſed the concern of his Majeſty at the formation of ſuch a compact at the moment when the Court of Peterſburgh had adopted the moſt hoſtile meaſures againſt the perſons and property of the Britiſh ſubjects. If the circumſtances, under which the convention alluded to was negotiated and concluded, could have left any doubt in his Majeſty's mind reſpecting the objects to which it was directed, that doubt would, by the declarations of the Court of Peterſburgh, and ſtill further by the recent and official declarations of the Court of Copenhagen, have been completely removed. The note proceeded to ſtate how hoſtile to England the confederacy of 1780 had been, and with what ſatisfaction his Majeſty had hitherto ſeen thoſe arbitrary and injurious meaſures completely given up. His conduct toward the powers of the Baltic, and all the deciſions of his courts reſpecting prizes had been founded on the principles of law, which prevailed throughout Europe before the year 1780. The intention to renew the former confederacy had not been communicated to his Majeſty on the part of any of the contracting powers till he received information of the actual ſigning of the convention, and had been apprized by the declaration of one of the parties, that the object of it was to confirm the ſtipulations entered into in 1780 and 1781 in their original ſhape. Such conduct removed all doubt reſpecting the object of the contracting parties, and their vigorous naval preparations left no room to queſtion that they meant to maintain by force, pretenſions ſo obviouſly unjuſt, that the very powers now preparing as neutrals to ſupport, were the moſt anxious, when belligerent, to reſiſt them. On the knowledge of theſe circumſtances

cumſtances the King would act contrary to the intereſt of his people, the dignity of his crown, and the honour of his flag (which by the diſcipline, courage, and ſkill of his navy, had riſen to ſo extraordinary a pitch of greatneſs,) were he to delay the adoption of the moſt effectual meaſures to repel the attack he had already experienced, and to oppoſe the hoſtile effects of the confederacy armed againſt him. His lordſhip therefore communicated the order for an embargo, adding aſſurances of the ſincere deſire which the King felt to re-eſtabliſh thoſe relations which ſubſiſted between him and the Courts of Stockholm and Copenhagen before the preſent interruption of their mutual good underſtanding.

Jan. 16, 17. To this letter both the embaſſadors returned anſwers vindicating the conduct of their reſpective governments, and renewing their complaints againſt that of Great Britain. The Daniſh miniſter inſiſted that his court had never renounced the principles of the armed neutrality, and was now only renewing ties which had never ceaſed to exiſt. The embaſſador of Sweden complained that far from expecting an embargo, he had looked for reparation for the injuries of which he had been complaining, eſpecially in reſpect to the detention of the convoys, and the ſhip cut out of the harbour of Barcelona. He made the diſtinction, which was afterward ſo much relied on in parliament, between the complaints which the Britiſh government made againſt his court and that of St. Peterſburgh. The diſpute with Ruſſia, he ſaid, related ſolely to Malta; that with Sweden and Denmark to the principles of the armed neutrality eſtabliſhed in 1780. Both the embaſſadors proteſted in the moſt forcible terms againſt the embargo, and all loſs or damage which it might occaſion. To theſe remonſtrances no anſwers were given, but orders of council were iſſued explanatory of that for laying the embargo: Sweden retaliated by a ſimilar edict, and her example was followed by Denmark.

Toward Ruſſia it was impoſſible to uſe with effect any explanatory communication. So rancorous was the hoſtility of that power, that, ſuppoſing Ruſſian merchandizes were carried through the territories of Pruſſia to be ſold to Engliſh merchants, the emperor forbad, in the moſt ſtrict terms, all exports through Pruſſia on pain of ſeizure. To his miniſter, Count Roſtopſchin, therefore, Lord Grenville, in a brief note, obſerved, that all the explanations demanded by Ruſſia were uſeleſs, as the Court of London was under the neceſſity of inſiſting on the embargo and the ſequeſtration impoſed by the Emperor Paul being taken off, and upon indemnity for what had paſſed; that the convention relative to Malta, the execution of which was demanded by the Court of Peterſburgh, was merely a plan ſubmitted by that court to the Britiſh adminiſtration, in anſwer to which they had ſent back their plan; but before the Cabinet of London had returned their anſwer, the Court of Peterſburgh had diſmiſſed their ambaſſador, Lord Whitworth; that the negotiations of the Court of Peterſburgh to organize an armed neutrality by

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ſea, had made the greater impreſſion on the Court of London, becauſe Ruſſia had propoſed to Great Britain to prevent, in conjunction with her, the contraband trade which was carried on with France, under Daniſh and Swediſh colours; that if a good underſtanding were to take place between the two countries, the firſt meaſure to be adopted would be the re-eſtabliſhment of their diplomatic relations, and the mutual interchange of new embaſſadors, to be brought about by the mediation of a neutral court friendly to both powers.

Jan. 27. Nor was the conduct of Pruſſia in any reſpect more ſatisfactory. Immediately after the note already mentioned had been ſent to the Daniſh and Swediſh embaſſadors, Lord Carysfort tranſmitted a copy to the Pruſſian prime miniſter. In a letter, which accompanied this communication, the Britiſh embaſſador expreſſed a firm conviction that Pruſſia could never have ſanctioned meaſures which openly diſcloſed an intention to preſcribe to the Britiſh empire by force, rules on a ſubject of the greateſt importance; and for that end, before any of the powers who concurred in it had given the ſmalleſt intimation to his Majeſty, they had entered into a league, the object of which was to renew pretenſions which Great Britain, at every time, had conſidered hoſtile to its rights and intereſts, and ſo declared, whenever an opportunity preſented itſelf, pretenſions which the Ruſſian court had abandoned, not only in fact, but which, by a treaty actually in force, Ruſſia was bound to oppoſe. Lord Carysfort then explained the conduct of the Britiſh court toward Denmark, and obſerved on the evident animoſity which that power exhibited in concluding with Ruſſia a treaty diſadvantageous to England, at a time when the conduct of the emperor, by its great violence, amounted to actual hoſtility. He declared, that the King of Great Britain never would ſubmit to recognize the new naval principles, which were irreconcileable to thoſe of public law, and ſtruck at the foundations of the greatneſs and maritime power of his kingdoms; and that Denmark and Sweden muſt be reſponſible for the conſequences they had provoked, and muſt have foreſeen; and obſerving that this determination had always been candidly diſcloſed to Pruſſia, the embaſſador expreſſed his confidence that nothing which might enſue would occaſion any differences between that power and England, which could not be terminated by an amicable diſcuſſion. Whatever ſentiments the Pruſſian government might entertain in regard to the new principles themſelves, yet it was too juſt, and knew too well what ſovereigns owe to their people, and to one another, to favour, for a moment, the deſign to employ force in order to induce his Britannic Majeſty to acknowledge a code he deemed inconſiſtent with the honour and ſecurity of his crown.

Feb. 1. In terms equally reſpectful, though not ſo much in detail, Lord Carysfort communicated to Count Haugwitz the note of Lord Grenville to the Ruſſian Embaſſador.

Feb. 12. To these letters the Prussian minister returned an answer, equally marked with asperity and haughtiness. He termed the measures of the British government violent and hasty, such as could only have originated in error. The maritime alliance had not for its object to annul treaties formerly concluded with England, and prescribe laws to her with respect to the principles of them; nor was the neutrality a pretext to impose those laws by force, and establish a hostile alliance: the compact was founded in justice and moderation, as the communication of it would convince such of the belligerent powers as would have the justice and moderation to wait for its disclosure.

"When in the beginning of January," Count Haugwitz proceeded, "the minister of his Britannic Majesty officially proposed to the undersigned the question, whether the northern courts had actually concluded the confederacy which had been reported, and whether Prussia had acceded to it? The King conceived that the respect which sovereigns owe to each other, and the liberty possessed by every independent state to consult its own interests, without rendering an account to any other power, authorized him to withhold any communications relative to himself and his allies; and contented himself with answering, that as he had seen, without interfering, the connexions which England had entered into without consulting him, he considered himself entitled to the same confidence; and that if the King of Great Britain thought it his duty to support the rights and interests of his kingdom, his Prussian Majesty considered it as not less his duty to employ every means in the defence of the rights and interests of his subjects."

This answer might have sufficed some weeks ago, the writer observed, but as the treaty had probably been attacked, because its spirit was not known, an explicit declaration should be given to prove that the contracting powers were not actuated by the views with which they had been arbitrarily accused. Their measures were to be neither hostile nor detrimental to any country; the strict justice of the Emperor of Russia had, even in the detail, proposed modifications which would indicate the spirit of the whole; it had since been determined that it should not be prejudicial to any of the belligerent powers; this determination was to have been communicated to them; and England, by waiting for this disclosure, might have avoided those intemperate measures which threatened to extend the flames of war.

Count Haugwitz then descanted on the note of Count Bernstorff of the 31st of December, vindicating those passages which had given most umbrage to England, terming the conclusions drawn by the British Court inconceivable, and totally false, and their reproaches against Denmark, unmerited.—"England's arbitrary conduct on this occasion," he said, "is naturally explained by the pretensions which it had made for some time past, and which it has repeatedly renewed in the notes of Lord Carysfort, at the ex-

"pence

" pence of every commercial and " naval power. The Britiſh go- " vernment has, in the preſent, " more than in any former war, " uſurped the ſovereignty of the " ſeas; and by arbitrarily fram- " ing a naval code, which it " would be difficult to unite with " the true principles of the law of " nations, it exerciſes, over the " other friendly and neutral pow- " ers, an uſurped juriſdiction, the " legality of which it maintains, " and which it conſiders as an " impreſcriptible right, ſanction- " ed by all the tribunals of " Europe. The ſovereigns have " never conceded to England the " privilege of calling their ſub- " jects before its tribunals, and of " ſubjecting them to its laws in " caſes where the abuſe of power " has got the better of equity, " and which, alas! are but too " frequent. The neutral powers " have always had the precaution " of addreſſing to it the moſt " energetic reclamations and pro- " teſts, but experience has ever " proved their remonſtrances fruit- " leſs; and it is not ſurpriſing, " that after ſo many repeated acts " of oppreſſion, they have re- " ſolved to find a remedy againſt " it, and for that purpoſe to " eſtabliſh a well arranged con- " vention, which fixes their rights, " and which places them on a " proper level even with the pow- " ers at war."

To this treaty, formed for theſe purpoſes, the King of Pruſſia declared himſelf a party; he would take a direct ſhare in the events to which it might give birth, and maintain his connexion by ſuch powerful means as the impulſe of circumſtances might require. Declining to engage in any diſcuſſion of the conduct of Ruſſia, the Pruſſian miniſter declared that it was only by revoking, and entirely taking off the embargo, that affairs could be brought to their former ſituation; and it was for England to judge whether it ought to come to that reſolution, in order to offer means to the neutral powers for proceeding to thoſe communications which they intended to make. " But while thoſe mea- " ſures exiſt," he added, " which " have been reſorted to from " hatred againſt a common prin- " ciple, and againſt an alliance " which can no longer be ſhaken, " the hoſtile reſolutions, which " muſt be the conſequence, will be " the neceſſary reſult of the treaty, " and the underſigned is ordered " to declare to the miniſter of his " Britannic Majeſty, that the " King, while he expreſſes his " concern at events of which he " has not been the cauſe, will " ſacredly fulfil the engagements " preſcribed to him by treaties."

Such was the ſtate of this moſt important and menacing diſcuſſion when the leading members of government quitted the cabinet, and conſigned to their ſucceſſors the taſk of terminating that which had proceeded ſo inauſpiciouſly. It was in all reſpects fortunate that the new miniſters came into office firmly diſpoſed to carry into effect the meaſures which their predeceſſors had planned. Engaged as the national intereſts and national honour were in the diſpute, and injurious and intemperate as were the conduct of Ruſſia, and the language of Pruſſia, the nation muſt have been degraded to the moſt abject degree of baſeneſs, if by

receding, or even appearing to heſitate, ſhe had ſanctioned for a moment a ſuppoſition that the dangerous and menacing circumſtances by which ſhe was ſurrounded could bend the firmneſs of her councils, or abate the vigour of her proceedings. The greateſt diſaſters that could reſult from war might be repaired by national induſtry, and public ſpirit; but the degradation of the national character by a timid or time-ſerving compliance could never have been retrieved. Awful and alarming the circumſtances of the country undoubtedly were, and perilous and full of anxiety the taſk of miniſters; but the line of their duty was clearly indicated, and their characters were to be fixed by their firmneſs and vigour in purſuing it.

In the firſt official communications which he had to make, Lord Hawkeſbury ſhewed a full determination not to relax in any of the meaſures previouſly planned. The Daniſh miniſter, immediately on Lord Hawkeſbury's appointment, announced the ſentiments of the King of Denmark on Lord Grenville's letter of the 15th of January; ſpoke of his deep regret at ſeeing the ancient good underſtanding between the two countries interrupted by the adoption, on the part of Great Britain, of a meaſure equally arbitrary and injurious; and was no leſs afflicted and alarmed at ſeeing that meaſure juſtified by aſſertions and ſuppoſitions equally unjuſt and ill-founded. He endeavoured, in the uſual way, to raiſe a diſtinction between the armed neutrality and the violence of Paul, which he aſcribed ſolely to his umbrage on the ſubject of Malta; a diſpute, he ſaid, abſolutely foreign to the Court of Copenhagen. He vindicated the new alliance as merely defenſive, conformable to every poſitive obligation, and modified according to the ſtipulations of treaties. The attention of the Britiſh government was ſolemnly called to theſe reflections as juſt and incontrovertible truths, analogous to the loyal ſentiments of a ſovereign, the ancient and faithful ally of Great Britain, who was not only incapable of offering on his part any injuries real or voluntary, but who had well-founded titles to a return of forbearance and juſtice. The diſcontinuance of the embargo was therefore required, or the King of Denmark would, with regret, ſee himſelf obliged to exert thoſe means which his dignity and the intereſts of his ſubjects would imperiouſly preſcribe.

Feb. 23.

As the anſwer to this note promiſed only a communication to the Court of Copenhagen on the ſubject, Count Wedel Jarlſberg made in the courſe of a few days a new and more conciſe declaration. He obſerved, that while aſſurances were given that ſome explanations would be ſent to Denmark, the adoption of conciliatory meaſures was conſtantly found ſuſpended, and as thoſe of violence and injuſtice were daily accumulating, he could not acquieſce, in ſilence, in the continuance of this ſtate of things, which only tended to bar the way to amicable explanations, and to compromiſe the deareſt intereſts of each nation. He, therefore, earneſtly demanded that the embargo on the Daniſh veſſels ſhould be immediately taken off.

Mar. 4.

On

Mar. 4. On the ſame day the Swediſh miniſter tranſmitted to the Britiſh government a printed copy of the naval convention concluded between Ruſſia, Denmark, and Sweden on the 10th of December laſt, with a printed copy of the naval regulations which the King of Sweden had recently ordered to be drawn up. He declared that the contracting parties had thus reciprocally ſettled the rights to which, as naval powers, they conſidered themſelves entitled, and the duties for which they would make themſelves anſwerable. The baron then entered into a long vindication of his government, with the uſual expreſſions of ſurprize at the proceedings of the Britiſh Court, adding, while he profeſſed to diſclaim them, many allegations of injuſtice in the proceedings of our naval commanders, and many complaints againſt the deceitful chicanery of our courts of Admiralty. As the pacific tendency of the preſent convention, he ſaid, was proved to a demonſtration, it was to be hoped that no diſpute between Great Britain and Ruſſia would prevent a right underſtanding with Sweden. The embaſſador expreſſed his deſire of a ſpeedy anſwer, and declared that ſhould the conciliatory views, by which his letter was dictated, prove fruitleſs, it was the opinion of his Sovereign that his ſtay at the Court of London could no longer be of any advantage.

March 6, 7. To both theſe notes Lord Hawkeſbury returned ſpeedy and deciſive anſwers. The Daniſh embaſſador he referred to a letter which had already been tranſmitted to his government; and in anſwer to Baron Von Ehrenſward, he ſaid, his Majeſty had already repeatedly communicated his fixed, unalterable determination to maintain thoſe eſtabliſhed principles of maritime law, which had been found by the experience of ages beſt calculated to afford equal ſecurity to the juſt rights and intereſts, as well of neutral as of belligerent powers. The explanations attempted to be given to the preſent convention, had in no degree weakened the impreſſion which the firſt peruſal of it produced, that the views and motives of the contracting powers were hoſtile to his Majeſty's dominions; and this impreſſion was moſt fully confirmed by the conſideration, that the northern courts had recurred to the principles of the convention of 1780, at a moment when the circumſtances of the war, and the relative ſtate of the navies of the belligerent powers, converted that, which was pretended to be a meaſure of common equity to all countries, into an inſtrument of excluſive injury to Great Britain. Under theſe circumſtances, the embargo on Swediſh veſſels could be conſidered in no other view than as an act of juſt and neceſſary precaution, which would not be revoked ſo long as the Court of Stockholm continued to form a part of the confederacy.

The communication promiſed to the Court of Denmark was diſpatched, not by an ordinary courier, but by Mr. N. Vanſittart, member of parliament for Haſtings, who was alſo inveſted with the character of miniſter extraordinary and plenipotentiary. On his arrival he found the court ſo little inclined to accede to the propoſitions

he was desirous to establish, that, after a few ineffectual efforts, he demanded and obtained passports to return, and was accom-
Mar. 23. panied by Mr. Drummond, the British minister in ordinary, the consul, and a few other persons.

Before this time, in fact, a plan of combined aggression for the destruction of British commerce, so far at least as could result from the exclusion of it from the North of Europe, was planned by Denmark and Prussia; and projects of more extensive and injurious hostility were meditated by effecting a junction of all the navies of the combined powers with the Dutch fleet, in order to gain an ascendancy over that of Britain in the North Sea. Measures of domestic protection were also formidably arranged, and a proclamation issued by the King of Denmark, inviting the return of all his subjects acting as mariners in the pay of foreign powers before the end of the year, and pardoning military deserters who should return within that period, but threatening the penalties of treason and disloyalty against those who should neglect the citation.

In execution of the
Mar. 28. first part of this project, Prince Charles, Landgrave of Hesse, unexpectedly declared his intention to occupy, with a body of 15,000 Danish troops, the city and environs of Hamburgh. The citizens were the more surprized at this event, as their envoy at Berlin had four days before received intelligence that the King of Prussia intended speedily to adopt that measure, information which was rendered less distressing by assurances which removed from the minds of the deputies from Hamburgh every apprehension relative to the preservation of their independence and commerce. Their confidence in these promises was the more natural, as the King of Prussia, however hostile in principle to the cause of Great Britain, was not in fact a sufferer by the measures adopted in consequence of the northern confederacy: his trade was not impeded by prohibition or embargo. Even so lately as two days before the notification of Prince Charles, the deputation of Hamburgh received assurances that the views of the King of Prussia were such as to secure them from every species of alarm, and the event by no means so near as they expected.

The manifesto of Prince Charles announced that the attacks made by the English government on the navigation and trade of the confederated powers, had imposed on them the disagreeable necessity of adopting such measures as would bring that government to a more reasonable way of thinking. The exclusion of British commerce from the Elbe was considered the most effectual means of promoting that object, and as a temporary possession of the imperial city of Hamburgh was considered indispensably necessary for that purpose, the prince was obliged to occupy it with his troops. By those troops he promised that the most rigid discipline should be observed, and, that while they remained in the city, the tranquillity, property, and municipal rights of the inhabitants should be undisturbed and pre-

preſerved; but it was expected that all perſons ſhould conduct themſelves in a peaceable and friendly manner toward the ſoldiery, and that nobody would find fault with the neceſſary ſeverity which muſt be uſed in caſe of a contrary behaviour.

The government immediately diſpatched deputies to the prince at Pinneberg, whence this manifeſto was iſſued, but they found him inflexible; in vain they remonſtrated againſt the violence of this unexpected meaſure; they were told that the city would be ſummoned in the morning, and reſiſtance overcome by force. They were, however, aſſured that their independence ſhould be preſerved, and the property of individuals ſecured, and that the prince would be contented with poſſeſſing their gates and walls without requiring that his troops ſhould be quartered within them.

Under theſe circumſtances, the ſenate, which was convoked in the night for the purpoſe of deliberating, reſolved to yield to a force which they could not hope effectually to reſiſt; the ſummons of Prince Charles on the enſuing morning was anſwered by the ſurrender to his troops of one of the gates, and a part of the fortifications; the public tranquillity remained undiſturbed; and a proclamation was iſſued by the ſenate, exhorting the citizens to behave with propriety and decency toward the foreign military, as the only means of inſuring general ſafety, and avoiding thoſe inconveniences to which an inconſiderate conduct would ſubject the city.

April 3. In a few days the ſenate, by the dictate of Prince Charles, iſſued an order for laying an embargo on all Britiſh merchandizes, to commence from the 1ſt of April. The worſt effects of this meaſure were, however, prevented by the timely exertions of the Engliſh merchants in removing their property.

While this ſeizure of the territory of a neutral power was carried into effect with the concurrence and indirect aid of the King of Pruſſia, he was preparing an act of aggreſſion, not leſs violent and unjuſtifiable againſt another neutral ſtate, founded on no pretext but that it belonged to his Britannic Majeſty. The neutrality of Hanover had been allowed from an early period of the war, and was guaranteed by Pruſſia herſelf, and under the eſpecial protection of the army of demarcation for the north of Germany, formed at the inſtigation of the Pruſſian monarch. On the preſent occaſion, however, regardleſs of theſe circumſtances, the King, through his miniſter Haugwitz, iſ- Mar. 30. ſued a declaration addreſſed to the royal and electoral college at Hanover, and to the commanders of the Hanoverian troops, which was delivered by Count Schullenberg, a cabinet miniſter. It contained the uſual complaints of the oppreſſions ſuſtained by neutral navigation and commerce from the Engliſh navy, in conſequence of which the powers intereſted could no longer abſtain from protecting their violated rights with a greater degree of energy. The reſult was a convention between the northern powers, the juſt and moderate principles of which had formerly been adopted and followed by the Court of London itſelf, and the King of

Pruſſia, who had likewiſe felt the violence of Great Britain injurious to his ſtates and his flag, had, without heſitation, acceded to the treaty. The contracting courts were on the point of communicating their convention to the belligerent powers, and forming arrangements with them, when Great Britain laid an embargo on the veſſels of the naval powers of the north, thus declaring herſelf their enemy. The Pruſſian miniſter further noticed the ſtatement made to Lord Carysfort, that removing the embargo would alone accommodate differences, and prevent a rupture; the decided refuſal of ſuch a meaſure, communicated by Lord Hawkeſbury to the miniſters of Sweden and Denmark; the departure of Mr. Vanſittart and Mr. Drummond from Copenhagen; and the naval preparations making by England.

"It appears from all theſe events" the declaration proceeded, "that the Court of London has "no inclination to deſiſt from her "inadmiſſible demands, and ac- "cept the propoſed means of "amicable conciliation. His Ma- "jeſty, the King of Pruſſia, "therefore feels himſelf compel- "led, in conformity with the "obligations he has contracted, "to take the moſt efficacious mea- "ſures in ſupport of the conven- "tion attacked, and to retaliate "for the hoſtile proceedings a- "gainſt it: for this purpoſe he "will not only ſhut the mouths "of the Elbe, the Weſer, and the "Ems, but likewiſe take poſ- "ſeſſion of the ſtates belonging "to his Majeſty the King of "England, as elector of Brunſ- "wick-Lunenberg, ſituate in Ger- "many." He therefore demanded and expected from the electoral college of privy counſellors at Hanover, and from the board of generals, that they ſhould ſubmit to this diſpoſition without delay or reply; and voluntarily obey the orders to be given relative to the occupation of the electorate by the Pruſſian troops; the Hanoverian corps, which had hitherto occupied part of the northern line of demarcation, were to be diſarmed and diſbanded with a proportional part of the other troops. The general and other officers to engage in writing not to ſerve againſt the King of Pruſſia; but, on the contrary, to follow ſtrictly his orders until the preſent affair ſhould be brought to a concluſion. The troops, which continued embodied, were to be cantoned, part on the right bank of the Leine, and part on the left bank of the Aller, and behind the Luhe, as far as the Elbe, where they muſt remain diſtributed among the towns of Hanover, Gifhorn, Velgen, Lunenberg, and the other ſmaller towns and villages of that diſtrict. All the other places, including the fortreſs of Hameln, to be delivered up to the Pruſſian troops, under the orders of lieutenant-general Klein. Theſe troops were to be ſubſiſted at the expence of the electoral territory, commencing from the end of the month of April. In theſe circumſtances all connexion between the electoral college and the King of England muſt ceaſe; and the authorities were declared reſponſible to the King of Pruſſia for their adminiſtration, and the revenues. In caſe of a voluntary ſubmiſſion, his Majeſty promiſed ſolemnly, as well as to the nobi-

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lity as to the burgeſſes, and all the inhabitants of the electorate, the complete enjoyment of tranquillity, and the ſecurity of their property. But, on the contrary, ſhould the government and the general officers attempt to impede the execution of the meaſures taken, and oppoſe the entrance of the Pruſſian troops, he would treat the electoral ſtates in a hoſtile manner. The civil and military officers being therefore reſponſible for the fatal conſequences which might reſult from their conduct, were adviſed to ſubmit to this ſummons, and prevent the rigorous meaſures which would inevitably be adopted in caſe of a refuſal.

April 3. The regency of Hanover, unable to reſiſt with effect, executed a convention, ſtating their ſubmiſſion to the repeated demands of Pruſſia, and claiming in the moſt ſolemn manner the execution of the ſupreme promiſe to guarantee their conſtitution, ſafety, repoſe, and property.

Againſt this combination, and the effect of theſe acts of aggreſſion, the Britiſh miniſtry had not been negligent in providing means of reſiſtance. The miſſion of Mr. Vanſittart was preceded by the collection of a powerful naval force, to act offenſively, in the caſe, which was foreſeen, of his negotiation proving ineffectual. This armament was aſſembled at Yarmouth, and when completed, by ſeveral reinforcements, amounted to fifty-four ſail; eighteen being ſhips of the line, four frigates, and the reſidue bomb veſſels and gun-boats; they were manned with the flower of the Britiſh navy, ſupported by ſeveral regiments of marines and riflemen; and commanded in chief by Sir Hyde Parker, and under him by the victor of the Nile, the heroic Nelſon; Admiral Graves was alſo on board, and a large party of marines, under Lieutenant-Colonel Stewart.

This equipment ſailed for its deſtination in Mar. 12. a few days after the delivery of Lord Hawkeſbury's anſwer to the Swediſh and Daniſh embaſſadors. Soon after its outſet a misfortune occurred from which thoſe whoſe courage could be depreſſed by omens might have drawn ſiniſter concluſions. The Invincible, of 74 guns, commanded by Capt. Rennie, but having Rear-Admiral Totty on board, ſtruck on a ridge of ſand, called the Hamondſburg or Hippiſburg, ſituated ſixteen miles off the town of Winterton, in Norfolk, and ſuſtained ſo much damage that ſhe ſoon afterward foundered in deep water, with her captain, great part of her crew, and ſeveral paſſengers on board. About four hundred individuals thus miſerably periſhed, and only one hundred and ninety-five were ſaved. The loſs was owing to the ignorance of a pilot, who was himſelf among thoſe who were engulphed.

This veſſel had been diſpatched to reinforce Sir Hyde Parker, and to convey cannon and ammunition for the gun-boats and floating batteries; but her deſtruction did not impede the proceedings of the grand fleet. They approached the Categat, and, after ſome impediments ariſing from wind and weather, prepared to paſs Mar. 27. the Sound; but firſt Sir Hyde Parker thought fit to aſcer-

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tain the diſpoſition of the Danes by a letter to the Governor of Cronborg-caſtle, which defends that paſs, inquiring whether he had received orders to fire on the Britiſh fleet in their paſſage to the Sound, as the firſt ſhot muſt be deemed a declaration of war on the part of Denmark.

In anſwer, M. Stricker, the Governor of Cronborg, uſed theſe expreſſions— "As a ſoldier I cannot meddle "with politics; but I am not "at liberty to ſuffer a fleet, "whoſe intentions are not yet "known, to approach the guns "of the caſtle where I have the "honour to command."

Mar. 28.

In reply, the Britiſh Admiral ſaid, he conſidered this anſwer a declaration of war, and on the enſuing day, the wind blowing favourably, the whole fleet entered the Sound. In this paſſage they kept as near as poſſible to the Swediſh ſide, where little impediment was offered, anſwering the cannon which played on them from Cronborg with equal ſpirit, but the ſhot of either party took little effect, on account of the diſtance, and in four hours the Britiſh fleet, uninjured, came to anchor nearly ſix miles from the iſland of Huin. The facility with which this paſſage was effected, was by ſome converted into matter of reproach againſt the Swedes, for not having made ſufficient uſe of the defence in their power, eſpecially at the battery near Helſingborg; but in this cenſure there appears more harſhneſs than juſtice, as Count Leuwenheilm, the Swediſh miniſter at the Hague, took the pains in a clear and able manner, to vindicate his countrymen from the charge of permitting their allies to ſuffer through negligence or indifference.

Mar. 29.

At Copenhagen, the intelligence that a Britiſh fleet had appeared off the Sound, occaſioned a great and general alarm. Of its forcing a paſſage, no one could entertain a doubt; mere reaſoning on the ſtate of the place was ſufficient to render that event certain, and this reaſoning was aided by the hiſtorical fact, that the paſſage had been gained by the Dutch Admiral, Opdam, during the ſiege of Copenhagen, which commenced in 1658. The Danes therefore did not ſuffer any vain hopes or unfounded expectations to impede their defenſive exertions, but as ſoon as the ſound of the cannon at Cronborg rendered them certain of the progreſs of the fleet, they put into inſtant and vigorous exertion all means of ſelf-protections which their population, their navy, and their batteries could afford. Every man on this occaſion was anxious to ſhew himſelf the defender of his country; even the ſtudents at the Univerſity formed themſelves into a corps, amounting to twelve hundred, and the profeſſors and others, whoſe years did not allow of ſimilar exertions, contributed by their purſes to the comfort of thoſe who ſo gallantly ſtood forward in the hour of danger.

April 1.

During the firſt two days after the Britiſh fleet had arrived off Copenhagen, the wind did not favour their attempts, but on the third, the Danes ſaw ſome frigates and lighter veſſels employed in taking ſoundings, while Admiral Parker and Lord Nelſon divided their force; the

the latter taking the command of twelve men of war, four frigates, as many ſloops, and ſeveral fire-ſhips and bombs, while the reſidue continued with Sir Hyde Parker. The two Admirals had aſcertained the ſoundings, and fixed buoys for their guidance, and having accurately ſurveyed the defences of the enemy, formed a plan of attack, for the conducting of which Lord Nelſon offered his ſervices, and accordingly ſhifted his flag on board the Elephant, and anchored off Draco Point. He was ſupported by Admiral Graves, and accompanied by Colonel Stewart and his marines.

The Danes entruſted their defence to the following force, according to a liſt publiſhed by an author of their own, and which is the rather to be deemed correct, as it exceeds that deſcribed by Lord Nelſon in his official diſpatch. Three ſhips of ſeventy-four guns, five of ſixty-four, one of fifty-eight, two of fifty, one of forty-four, one of twenty-ſix, a floating battery of twenty-four, four praams and bombs of twenty, ſeven brigs, ſloops, and floating-batteries of eighteen, eleven gun-boats, having each two guns, and the battery of the Three Crowns, which mounted eight thirty-ſix pounders, fifty ſix thirty ſix pounders, three mortars, and two carronades. Of the veſſels many appear to have been without maſts, but they were not the leſs uſeful in the poſition aſſigned to them; thoſe which were in the beſt condition, namely, two of the ſeventy-fours, three frigates of forty-four, and two brigs of eighteen guns each, are ſtated to have been in the inner roads, and therefore incapable of aſſiſting in the action, as it afterward took place. Copenhagen was further protected by the citadel, by batteries in the new dock-yard, and on the Iſland of Amack, but none of theſe were brought into action on the preſent occaſion. The ſhips on which the Danes chiefly relied, were judiciouſly poſted to prevent the Britiſh fleet from injuring Copenhagen, and to the Admirals while reconnoitring, appeared even more formidable than they really were. The plan of attack concerted between them was, to aſſail the enemy from the ſouthward, as ſoon as the wind ſhould prove favourable; Lord Nelſon conducting the great force, while Admiral Parker ſhould weigh, to menace the Crown Batteries, and the ſhips at the entrance of the arſenal, and to cover his coadjutor's diſabled ſhips as they came out of action.

On the enſuing morning, the wind blowing from the deſired point, this plan was put in execution, the ſhips getting under weigh before ten o'clock; Admiral Parker beating up againſt wind and current to aſſail the battery, while the hero of Aboukir bore down on the line. M. Fiſcher, the Daniſh commodore, hoiſted the flag of defiance on board the Danbrog, of ſixty-four guns, and all his ſhips being moored with four anchors, and manned numerouſly, though indiſcriminately, by people rather impelled by zeal, than guided by knowledge, were placed with their broadſides to the approaching foe. April 2.

The paſſage to be cleared by Lord Nelſon's ſhips, was, notwithſtanding all his meaſures of precaution,

precaution, extremely difficult and intricate. The Edgar led the van, her Captain, George Murray, ſetting a noble example of intrepidity, and ſucceeded in attaining her deſtined ſtation; but the Bellona and Ruſſel unfortunately grounded, and the Agamemnon could not weather the ſhoal of the middle ground. Theſe accidents, for which no blame could be imputed to excellent officers commanding thoſe ſhips, prevented Lord Nelſon from extending his line according to his original project, and were the cauſe of two ſhips, the Defiance and Monarch, ſuffering ſeverely from the Crown batteries, in a ſubſequent part of the action; but yet theſe veſſels were not altogether loſt to the general force, ſince the Bellona and Ruſſel, though not in the ſtation aſſigned them, were ſo placed as to render effectual ſervice. The Defirée was alſo exceedingly uſeful in raking the ſouthernmoſt ſhip of the Daniſh line, called the Proeveſteen, or Touchſtone, commanded by Captain Laſſen, which was alſo aſſailed by the Polyphemus, and expoſed to the fire of the Bellona and Ruſſel. By degrees the conflict became general, and was for three hours ſuſtained with unremitting bravery on both ſides.

The Britiſh ſailors behaved with their uſual valour; the Danes, animated by every patriotic feeling, fought like men who, with their own characters, were to eſtabliſh the ſafety of their country. They were ſtimulated by the immediate preſence of the heir apparent to their kingdom, called the Crown Prince, who, from the peep of dawn had taken his ſtation on a battery, and, amid ſhowers of balls and ſhells, ſuperintended and directed the proceedings of the combatants; encouraging by his applauſe, and inſtructing by his example.

Soon after eleven o'clock the Danbrog taking fire, the commodore was obliged to ſhift his flag to the Holſtem, another ſixty-four, but Captain Braun, of the Danbrog, continued fighting till he had loſt his right hand, and Lemming, who ſucceeded him, perſevered, notwithſtanding the flames which ſurrounded him, till the cloſe of the engagement, immediately after which the veſſel blew up. Early in the action Captain Thura, of the Indfoedfretten, a ſixty-four, was ſlain, and all his ſubalterns, excepting one lieutenant and one marine officer, were either killed or wounded. In this ſtate of confuſion the colours were, by accident, ſtruck; the Britiſh, however, made no attempt to board the Indfoedfretten, ſhe being rather dangerouſly moored athwart a battery. A boat was diſpatched from the ſhip, with the tidings of her commander's death, to the Prince Royal, who, turning to thoſe around him, ſaid, "Gentlemen, Thura is killed; which of you will take the command?"—"I will," replied Mr. Schroederſee, in a feeble voice, and haſtened eagerly on board. This gentleman had been a captain in the navy; but on account of extreme ill health, had lately reſigned. The hour of neceſſity ſeemed to invigorate his waſted form, and, in hopes to ſerve his country, he forgot himſelf. The crew, perceiving a new commander coming

alongſide

alongſide, hoiſted their colours, and fired a broadſide. When he came on deck, he found great numbers killed and wounded; and, therefore, inſtantly called to thoſe in the boat to get quickly on board. It was his laſt effort—a ball ſtruck him—and Schroederſee was no more. Mr. Niſſen, a lieutenant of the navy, who attended this gallant tar to his noble fate, next took the command; and continued to fight the ſhip the remainder of the day. The eleven gun-boats had retired from the moment the Britiſh fleet bore down.

It appears to have been the intention of Lord Nelſon, that when the ſhips of the Daniſh line, which were firſt attacked, ſhould have been ſubdued, the Britiſh veſſels which had oppoſed them ſhould cut their cables, and ſail to a ſtation a-head of the line; but as part of this plan depended on the Agamemnon, which could not clear the middle ground, the Monarch and Defiance ſuſtained great loſs from the fire of the batteries, and the two outer ſhips in the mouth of the harbour, and the ſame diſaſter attended ſix frigates and ſloops, employed under Captain Riou, to ſupport the attack on the battery and on thoſe veſſels. Riou himſelf was killed. The bomb-veſſels took the ſtations aſſigned to them, and threw ſome ſhells into the arſenal, but the gun-brigs, notwithſtanding the judicious and vigilant exertions of Catain Roſe, to whoſe command they were entruſted, could not, during the action, render the ſervice expected from them, on account of the current. The boats of thoſe ſhips which were not ordered on the attack, were however employed with great effect.

When the engagement had continued nearly four hours, the fire on both ſides was conſiderably abated; the Daniſh veſſels were in a miſerable condition; the commodore had again ſhifted his flag from the Holſtein to the Crown Battery, which kept up a deſtructive fire on the Britiſh ſhips within its reach, and againſt which, thoſe under Admiral Parker were by the current prevented from acting. The Danes overpowered on all ſides, except the battery, confined their efforts to the preſervation of two or three of their crippled veſſels, eſteeming them rather as trophies of their honourable perſeverance, than as objects of any intrinſic value, while the reſidue remained in the power of the victors.

When the firſt reſiſting force oppoſed to him was ſubdued, the generous conqueror, reflecting on the extenſive calamity which muſt attend his next operation, and deſirous of ſparing the blood of thoſe, whom, even while fighting, he could with difficulty conſider as enemies, retired to his cabin, and in brief, though expreſſive terms, announced that his inſtructions were to ſpare Denmark when no longer reſiſting, but if the firing on her part was continued, he muſt be obliged to burn the floating batteries he had taken, without having it in his power to ſave the brave men who had defended them. This note addreſſed "to the Brothers of Engliſhmen, the Danes," was ſent in an Engliſh boat with a flag of truce alongſide the principal Da-

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niſh veſſel, whence it was forwarded by an officer of that country to the Crown Prince. Although the battery kept up a heavy and inceſſant firing while this friendly meſſage was unanſwered, Lord Nelſon patiently awaited the return, which would be made to his humane propoſition, keeping the white flag flying on his main-top. Ere long, he had the ſatisfaction to find that the battery deſiſted, in conſequence, as he afterward learned, of orders from the Crown Prince; and ſpeedily two flags of truce were diſpatched from ſhore to him and Sir Hyde Parker, while unmoleſted poſſeſſion was taken of the prizes.

To aſcertain the exact motive of Lord Nelſon's letter, the Daniſh Prince ſent on board the Admiral's ſhip, Adjutant General Ludholm, and the reſult of their conference was a ſecond diſpatch, in which his Lordſhip declared that as he was actuated ſolely by humanity, he conſented that hoſtilities ſhould ceaſe, and the wounded might be taken on ſhore. He would take the priſoners out of the prizes, and burn or carry off the veſſels as he ſhould think fit. The noble conqueror, preſenting his humble duty to his Royal Highneſs the Prince of Denmark, added, that he ſhould conſider this the greateſt victory he had ever gained, if it might be the cauſe of a happy reconciliation between his own moſt gracious Sovereign, and his Majeſty the King of Denmark.

A ceſſation of hoſtilities being now perfectly agreed on, the brave Nelſon, anxious to ſecure the main object of his enterprize, went on ſhore, and, amid the crowding populace, whom every intereſt and every feeling had attracted to the ſpot, repaired to the Royal Palace, called the Octagon, when by the Prince he was introduced to Chriſtian VII. and propoſed the terms of a final arrangement of differences. As the chief of theſe conſiſted in the renunciation of the armed neutrality, during the exiſtence of an armiſtice to be afterward arranged, the ſituation of Denmark, whoſe capital was threatened with immediate ruin, did not allow of much heſitation, and the Britiſh hero retired from the audience, aſſured of complete ſucceſs, and ready to pay and receive thoſe acts of civility which are ever ſo grateful to the truly brave, when hoſtility no longer prevails.

In fact, the title of brothers, given by Nelſon to the nation on whom he was pouring the furies of warfare, was the leaſt metaphorical he could have uſed, in deſcribing them with truth; for, indepently of thoſe circumſtances which in old times had produced ſo complete an intermixture of blood, long friendſhip had given to both congenial inclinations and correſponding intentions. In all times the commerce between Great Britain, and Denmark had been ſupported with mutual confidence and eſteem; in war, our merchant ſhips were frequently manned with Daniſh ſailors, and under our naval heroes, the aſpiring youth of that country had received their education. Even in this engagement, Captain Riiſbrigh, who commanded the Vagrien, of fifty guns, had been the pupil of the illuſtrious Rodney, and ſhared in the glories of the 12th of April.

Deeply afflicting then to both parties

parties muſt have been the ſight which preſented itſelf after the battle. The carnage on board the Daniſh veſſels, crowded as they were with zealous adventurers of every claſs, had been dreadful; and medical aſſiſtance not being provided, the wounded had been left till many had bled to death. The moment that Nelſon's humanity afforded the means, every nerve was ſtrained to relieve them. The hoſpitals which had been prepared for the purpoſe, were thronged with their numbers; females of all claſſes and every rank, employed themſelves in preparing lint for the occaſion, and extended their bounty ſo far, that the ſuperintendants, by public advertiſement, requeſted them to deſiſt; every article of luxury ſuited to the wants of the ſick, which private benevolence could ſupply, was poured forth in liberal profuſion; and every mode of ſubſcription and collection, was reſorted to for the purpoſe of rewarding the defenders of their country, or protecting from want their ſurviving relatives. Thoſe who fell in battle were buried in the naval churchyard*, and their funeral was attended by a ſolemn proceſſion of all thoſe whom they had defended, or who ſhared their toils; anthems written for the occaſion, were ſung by all preſent, and the ſubſcription previouſly opened was greatly augmented by the univerſal impulſe of gratitude, which, operating on all claſſes, produced from every individual, according to his powers, from the magnificent donation of 10,000 dollars, down to the humble tribute of three marks, or ſomewhat leſs than half-a-crown. Gold medals of honour, in commemoration of the event, were ſtruck and delivered to the officers who deſerved them; the pulpit, the preſs, and the theatre, were equally active in all parts of the kingdom in promoting the laudable efforts of national benevolence, and in exciting and maintaining that public ſpirit which could alone deſerve its benefits; nor was the following circumſtance among thoſe which produced the leaſt effect on the people. A praam, called Nyeborg, of twenty guns, had towed another out of the action to a certain diſtance, when ſhe went down, and the Nyeborg herſelf, when ſhe had reached the Cuſtom-houſe, ſunk to her gunwale. The ſight of the praam was dreadful in the extreme; nothing was left ſtanding but the ſtump of her foremaſt; her ſhrouds were ſhattered; all her guns ex-

* On this ſpot a monument has ſince been raiſed to the memory of theſe brave men, which is thus deſcribed—"It is a pyramidical hillock, neatly turfed and planted with ſapling poplars, correſponding with the number of officers who fell. At the baſe of the principal front are tomb-ſtones, recording the names of each of theſe officers and their reſpective ſhips. A little above is an obeliſk of grey northern marble, raiſed upon a pedeſtal of granite, bearing this inſcription:—

"*To the Memory of thoſe who fell for their Country, their grateful Fellow-Citizens raiſe this Monument, April 2, 1801.*

And beneath, on a white marble tablet, under a wreath of laurel, oak, and cypreſs, bound together, is inſcribed:

"*The Wreath which the Country beſtows never withers over the Grave of the fallen Warrior.*

The whole is incloſed in a ſquare paliſado."

cept

cept one dismounted; her cabin stove in, and her decks covered with dead bodies and severed limbs. The spectator shuddered with horror, or wept with anguish; but curiosity and sympathy soon received a more noble direction from the publication of a paper in these words: — "Countrymen! repair "to the Custom-house, view the "Nyeborg, and be convinced "how a Danish ship must be dis-"abled before a Danish seaman "can persuade himself to retire "from the action."

These particulars will not seem too minute to those who will reflect on the state of national feeling, when an enemy, powerful and menacing, is at the gate; when the bodies of the deceased defenders of the country are displayed to view, and a necessity still presents itself for the efforts of the survivors. To the generous Nelson, no less humane than intrepid, they seemed of the highest moment, and called forth sentiments of sympathy and encouragement. He was particularly struck with the gallantry of a young Lieutenant, a stripling of seventeen, named Villemoes, who commanded a floating battery; and admired the manner in which he manœuvred his guns, and ultimately saved his raft, for though honoured with the name of a floating battery, it was no better than a number of beams, nailed together with a flooring to support the guns; square, without masts, and with a breast-work full of port-holes. His Lordship mentioned young Villemoes in terms of enthusiastic admiration to the Crown Prince, as one of the brightest hopes of his country; and he was one of those who obtained gold medals in memory of the day. Lord Nelson also visited the Naval Academy, and endeared himself even to those he had conquered by the frankness of his praises, and by the donation of medals to be distributed among the most deserving of the midshipmen.

The exact loss of the Danes in this action is not ascertained; the account published by the Royal College of Commerce, at Copenhagen, merely mentions that the greater part of the crews were either killed or wounded; and the slain are computed, though probably much too low, at eighteen hundred. Seventeen of their vessels were taken, sunk, or destroyed in the action; but all those which were captured were burnt by the victor on the ensuing day, except the Holstein, which was then thirty years old. The official return on the part of the British was, two hundred and fifty-four killed, of whom twenty were officers, including Captains Riou and Mosse; and nine hundred and forty-three wounded, in which number were forty-eight officers. Of the merits of these brave men the country was not unmindful; the merchants of London began, and all parts of the kingdom concurred in a subscription to alleviate the distress of the wounded, and to support the widows and families of the slain. National joy was exhibited in a general illumination; and national gratitude expressed through its most authentic and satisfactory organ, the votes of Parliament.

In a few days, by the judgment and perseverance of Lord Nelson, a convention April 9.

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for a ceſſation of arms was concluded with the Daniſh government, and ratified by Sir Hyde Parker. Its avowed motive was, to ſtop the effuſion of human blood, and ſave the city of Copenhagen; its ſtipulations provided that hoſtilities ſhould ceaſe between the fleet under Admiral Parker, the city, and all Daniſh armed ſhips in Denmark and Jutland. Thoſe ſhips were however to continue in their preſent condition with reſpect to arms and military poſition, and the treaty of armed neutrality, ſo far as related to the co-operation of Denmark, was to remain ſuſpended during the continuance of the armiſtice. Proviſion was made for the accommodation of the Britiſh fleet, and at the ſame time for avoiding ſuch acts as might give umbrage or alarm; and the Engliſh Admiral agreeing to ſend on ſhore all priſoners taken in the late action, his Daniſh Majeſty engaged to account both for them and the wounded, if unfortunately hoſtilities ſhould be renewed. The armiſtice was to remain in force fourteen weeks, and after that time, offenſive operations were not to recommence without fourteen days notice.

Such was the firſt reſult of the wiſe and energetic effort to diſſolve by force the confederacy nurtured by France for the injury of Great Britain. But an event more deciſive, and tending completely to fruſtrate the fond hopes of the inſidious enemy, had already taken place at Peterſburgh; this was the death of the Emperor Paul, in the night of the 23d of March. This event was, in the proclamation publiſhed the next day by his ſucceſſor, attributed to a ſtroke of the apoplexy, but perhaps there was not in the whole world, an individual who did not ſurmiſe the real fact, that the miſguided Sovereign paid for the follies of the latter part of his reign, the heavy penalty of his life, exacted from him by the aſſaſſin.

Ruſſia, in common with all other ſtates in Europe, not abſolutely devoted to the intereſts of France, had contemplated with extreme regret the courſe which the political efforts of that mighty empire were made to aſſume, partly in conſequence of the mental derangement of its ruler, and ſtill more of an intrigue which placed him abſolutely at the diſpoſal of the miſſionaries of France. In the diſpoſition of Paul were many features which, had his youth been more fortunate, would have rendered his reign a bleſſing to his country; and his mind, though not of that compoſition which fixes the admiring regards of preſent and after ages, was yet capable of receiving ſuch inſtructions and impulſes as would, under the influence of a correct judgment, have rendered him an ornament of the Ruſſian throne. His principles do not appear to have been radically bad, but he had been reſtrained during the reign of his mother, from acquiring the knowledge requiſite to the rank which, after her death, he was to aſſume. While he was heir apparent to the great empire of the north, he was confined to a ſmall circle of attendants, rather than friends, ſurrounded by obſervers who made malignant reports of his moſt indifferent actions, and condemned to ſhut up within his own boſom,

all the reflections which the various incidents of his mother's reign could not fail to inſpire. It was even no ſecret that the untimely and dreadful fate of his father had left him without a parent, for his mother, regarding him with ſuſpicion rather than fondneſs, had excluded him from all ſhare in the adminiſtration of affairs; had propheſied that he would not long retain the throne; and even endeavoured to prevent his aſcending it by a will, which was not however attempted to be carried into effect. Inſtruction was withheld from him, and the ſolace of friendſhip denied him by the anxious vigilance of jealouſy, acting through the combined medium of parental and imperial authority. To him was not conſigned even the care of his children, for not only their education, but the ſelection of their ſociety, and every circumſtance which could form the bent of their minds, was made an affair of ſtate. The affections of Paul were ſtrong and vivid; to his conſort, before his acceſſion, he had ſhewn the moſt tender regard; his children were the objects of his moſt indulgent fondneſs; and all his domeſtics repaid his conſtant benevolence with an unlimited attachment. In his mind a paſſion for military glory predominated, but he was precluded by his mother from all command of, or even acquaintance with, the army and navy; and thus, amid regrets never to be appeaſed, deſires never to be gratified, affections which often rather tormented than ſolaced his mind, imperfectly inſtructed, and harſhly reſtrained, Paul paſſed his fortieth year before he aſcended the throne of Ruſſia, to reign over a people with whom he was utterly unacquainted, and with a mind already tinged with the ſhades of that malady by which it was afterward ſo fatally diſcoloured.

In the firſt acts of his reign, he diſcovered a love of juſtice, and a diſpoſition to aſpire after greatneſs, which, although occaſionally marked in their diſplay, by tyranny, levity, and caprice, allowed the formation of the moſt ſanguine hopes. The forms of government in his country, the injuries he had received, the fate of his father, and his juſt deteſtation of ſome favourites of his mother, were not vainly urged as excuſes for many ſtrange acts which he committed; and impartial minds were not readily diſpoſed to cenſure ſmall faults in a ſovereign who bravely announced the reſolution to exert his whole force in retrieving the affairs of Europe from the confuſion into which they had been thrown by the French revolution.

Among the circumſtances in which Paul too unhappily reſembled his father, was an admiration, rather violent than judicious, of men, who by their conduct, or for any other cauſe, had engaged a large ſhare of attention. It was the prevalence of this ſentiment in the mind of Peter with reſpect to the King of Pruſſia, which occaſioned his untimely end; Paul had, in many inſtances, diſplayed the ſame character, particularly in his conduct to Staniſlaus, King of Poland, and Koſciuſko, but in the end, his admiration of Bonaparte, was among the ſtrongeſt of the operative cauſes which occaſioned

thoſe proceedings which accelerated his fate. While glory attended the Ruſſian arms led by Suworow, and while it was evident that the real intereſts of the empire were ſteadily purſued, little alarm was occaſioned by ſome edicts which were, however, in their nature ſufficiently harſh and tyrannical, or by the conſtruction of a new palace, reſembling a ſtate fortreſs, in which Paul purpoſed in future to reſide, and even profeſſed an intention to deſtroy the beautiful edifices founded by his mother. But when the brave veteran, who was idolized by the whole people, was recalled to die broken hearted under the harſh indignation of his ſovereign; when the intereſts of France gained an aſcendency at the expence of thoſe of Ruſſia; when the unjuſt proceedings againſt the Britiſh merchants and ſailors threatened the annihilation of commerce; when edicts of uncommon oppreſſion were coupled with acts too evidently indicating the ſtate of his intellect, ſuch as the challenge which was iſſued to all ſovereigns of Europe; and the return of ſome Britiſh diſpatches, unopened, but pierced with a dagger; when it was clear that all theſe baleful or extravagant proceedings were adopted at the inſtigation of a venal courtezan, an actreſs ſent from France; when it was even rumoured that Paul, infatuated by gallic councils, meditated a divorce from his empreſs, and the diſinheritance of his ſons; the univerſal prayer of the Ruſſian people, pointed out to ſome individuals poſſeſſed of power and fortune, the neceſſity for applying a remedy to theſe grievances, and with the neceſſity, the means.

To thoſe who reflect with envy and admiration on the condition of an arbitrary ſovereign, this conſideration preſents an uſeful and ſolemn leſſon: between him and his people when oppreſſed, there is no intercourſe, no exchange of ſentiments in which grievances may be diſcuſſed, and remedies applied; the tyranny is exerciſed without the medium of a reſponſible miniſter, and the relief is found in the artifice of conſpiracy, the vigour of rebellion, or the frantic heroiſm of ſudden aſſaſſination. Paul was the victim of a conſpiracy, framed by perſons, who, whatever might be their vices in other reſpects, demonſtrated that in this they had nothing at heart more than their country's good, ſince they could derive more profit from their ſituations by prolonging than by terminating the reign of their misjudging maſter; and it was conducted with a ſecreſy which alone could afford a probability of ſucceſs. The ſcheme was not imparted to, or even ſuſpected by any individual of the royal family.

Thoſe who made their profit of the emperor's inſanity wrought on it by perpetual fears of aſſaſſination, and in his new palace of St. Michael, where he generally reſided, every precaution was adopted which was deemed requiſite for defence or eſcape. On the night which was deſtined to be his laſt, the unhappy monarch, as if influenced by a foreboding of his fate, ſent for the governor of the city, and ſaid, that intimations had been conveyed to him of a plot againſt his life. The governor, who was himſelf one of the confederates, tranquillized the emperor by aſſurances of vigilance, on which he might

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ſecurely rely. Still the conduct of Paul ſeemed to ſhew the prevalence of an unaccuſtomed apprehenſion; he expreſſed anxious ſolicitude for his wife and children; treated them with more than uſual fondneſs, and remained longer with them than he was wont; and ere he reſigned himſelf to ſlumber, viſited all the centinels at their poſts. Shortly afterward the officers in command for the night removed theſe men, and ſubſtituted others: at the appointed hour, in the dead of the night, the conſpirators, eight or nine in number, croſſed the draw-bridge, aſcended the great ſtairs, cut down a faithful huſſar, whom the emperor had poſted in his anti-chamber, and ruſhed into the room, where the victim, already alarmed by the noiſe, had entrenched himſelf behind ſome of the furniture. Defence was hopeleſs, but yet the tenaciouſneſs of life exhibited itſelf in every kind of expedient; firſt he aſſumed the ſovereign, commanding the intruders to ſurrender as his priſoners; then the ſuppliant, intreating only for mercy, on condition of reſigning the ſceptre; then he eſſayed the force of ſelf-intereſt, changing his intreaties to promiſes, and offering all in his power to beſtow, which avarice, ambition, or vanity could require. Finding all theſe efforts unavailing, he made a deſperate trial of ſtrength, endeavouring firſt to eſcape through a high window, in which if he had ſucceeded he muſt have inſtantly periſhed by the fall; then defending his life with a chair, with which he felled one of his aſſailants, and was himſelf immediately brought to the ground by a blow with the fiſt. Thus proſtrate he again ſupplicated for life, and ſentiments of pity began to unnerve ſome of the party, when a conſideration of their own inevitable deſtruction reſtored their firmneſs; and two of them faſtening an officer's ſaſh round his neck, terminated by ſtrangulation the ſtruggles and ſufferings of this truly unfortunate prince, who, after enduring during the greater part of his life the moſt bitter oppreſſion, paid with his life for that miſconduct which, had his mind been better tutored, and his feelings more reſpected in his early years, would not probably have diſgraced his maturer age.

So great was the noiſe during this tremendous conflict that it reached the ears of the empreſs, although ſeparated by thick walls and double doors from the ſcene. She began to cry for aſſiſtance, when a voice of command whiſpered her to be quiet, or ſhe muſt be an immediate ſacrifice. The perpetrators of this act of horrible neceſſity retired unmoleſted to their abodes: they were not unknown, but in weighing their act with its motives, juſtice was content with a negative puniſhment; neither death nor confiſcation of property was their doom, but removal from court and city, that their preſence might not furniſh a dangerous example of crime unpuniſhed and protected.

The crown devolved on Alexander, the eldeſt ſon of the late ſovereign, who received not the acclamations of thoſe who ſo unexpectedly became his ſubjects with the ſmiles of ſatisfied ambition, but with tears of filial piety. Yet the proclamation with which he began his reign afforded a happy

preſage

preſage that his feeling of public duty was no leſs lively and correct than that of perſonal ſenſibility. It contained theſe expreſſions, "We, on receiving the imperial "hereditary throne of all the "Ruſſias, do receive alſo, at the "ſame time, the obligation to go-"vern the people committed unto "us by the Almighty, according "to the laws and the heart of her "who reſts in God, our moſt "auguſt grandmother, Sovereign "Empreſs Catharine the Great, "whoſe memory will be dear for "ever to us, and the whole coun-"try. Following the ſteps of her "wiſe intentions we hope to ar-"rive at the object of carrying "Ruſſia to the ſummit of glory, "and to procure an uninterrupted "happineſs to all our faithful "ſubjects."

This reſolution to reſtore the ſyſtem of Catharine, while it opened the brighteſt proſpects of honour and proſperity to the real friends of the Ruſſian empire, cruſhed to the ground the fond hopes of her enemies, which had grown to ſo great a height during the reign of Paul. The firſt acts of Alexander were in conformity with the wiſdom of his early promiſe. The diſtreſſing and ſlaviſh reſtrictions under which his predeceſſor had laid his ſubjects not only in commerce and travelling, but in dreſs, ſociety and literature, were aboliſhed; and one general declaration of ſovereign will removed all the laws which had ſo long oppreſſed and grieved the people; it reſtored the order of St. Wladimir, which Paul had ſuppreſſed; gave to the regiments their old names, allowed travelling in all parts of the empire without paſſports, re-eſtabliſhed the ancient tariffs, tolls, and cuſtoms on imported goods, and allowed the free export of grain.

March 28.

A decree was alſo iſſued, ordering that the Britiſh ſailors and maſters taken from ſhips in a ſtate of ſequeſtration ſhould be reconducted with all ſpeed to the ports from which they had been conveyed; and with reſpect to Malta, the object ſo near the heart of Paul, Alexander merely took the knights under his protection, appointing Count Nicolaus Von Soltikoff, lieutenant or vicar of the Grand Maſter, to officiate in Peterſburgh, which was declared the capital of the order, till circumſtances ſhould admit of its having a grand maſter appointed according to its ancient forms and ſtatutes.

Although theſe great events had taken place, they were not known at the time of the battle at Copenhagen, but they probably had conſiderable effect in producing the treaty which was afterwards ſigned. Immediately after the arrangement of this buſineſs, the Britiſh fleet appeared off Carlſcrona, and Sir Hyde Parker, by a letter, apprized the governor of the treaty with Denmark, and required from the Court of Sweden an explicit declaration, whether it intended to abandon or adhere to the hoſtile meaſures it had taken, in conjuction with Ruſſia, againſt the rights and intereſts of Great Britain. The anſwer was in its general form calculated to vindicate the honour of Sweden from a ſuppoſition that ſhe could be induced to deſert compacts into which ſhe had

April 18.

had once entered by a reference to the particular conduct of another power; but yet the King, equally induced by inclination and by duty to conſider the affair of his ſincere allies as his own, would not refuſe to liſten to equitable propoſals for accommodating the diſputes made by deputies, furniſhed with proper authority on the part of the King of Great Britain, to the united Northern Powers.

April 22. This pacific diſpoſition was in a few days confirmed by the arrival of a courier from Peterſburgh, who brought to the Ruſſian embaſſador at Stockholm, a letter addreſſed to Sir Hyde Parker, ſtating, that the Emperor Alexander had accepted the offer made by the Britiſh Court to his predeceſſor, to terminate diſputes by an amicable convention. The Britiſh admiral was therefore requeſted to deſiſt from all further hoſtilities againſt the flags of the united powers till further orders from his court; a requeſt with which Sir Hyde Parker, in his anſwer, declared himſelf perfectly ready to comply.

What remains of this tranſaction may be briefly narrated; Lord Nelſon ſucceeding to the command of the fleet on the recal of Sir Hyde Parker, remained in the Baltic for ſome time with a force ſufficient to maintain the cauſe of his country had force been neceſſary, and he took care to make that cauſe reſpected by requiring the Swediſh government to keep their fleet in port, as he had no inſtructions to avoid hoſtilities if he met them. When the affairs of the north no longer required his preſence, his lordſhip left the command to Sir Charles Maurice Pole, and returned to England for the benefit of his health. Lord St. Helens was diſpatched to Peterſburgh as miniſter plenipotentiary, but before his arrival the diſpute was in a train which promiſed an eaſy adjuſtment; Sweden, the laſt of the neutral powers who yielded to terms, conſenting to the re-eſtabliſhment of her ancient commercial relations with England in ſix weeks after the battle of Copenhagen. May 19.

It was ſpeedily declared by the Ruſſian envoy to the regency of Hanover, that the ſentiments of the new emperor being entirely conformable to thoſe of the King of Pruſſia, and both inclining to an amicable adjuſtment of differences, he had diſpatched a courier to Copenhagen, inviting the King to evacuate the town and territory of Hamborough. April 27.

A proviſional arrangement was effected between the Prince of Heſſe and Sir James Craufurd, the Britiſh envoy, for re-eſtabliſhing the neutrality of the Elbe, and removing the ſequeſtration and embargo from Britiſh property; and in a few days his Highneſs delivered to the council of Hamburgh a declaration, that he was inſtructed to withdraw his troops from their city and territory. May 7. May 20.

Hanover was ſomewhat longer occupied by Pruſſia, but this act was underſtood to be not diſadvantageous to the electorate; the embargo laid on the ſhips and property of the northern powers was revoked by an order of council, and the Daniſh June 4.

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iſlands in the Weſt Indies, which had been captured at the beginning of the conteſt, were reſtored.

June 17. All matters in diſpute were finally arranged by a convention executed at Peterſburgh between that court and Great Britain, to which Denmark and Sweden afterward acceded. In this compact it was declared, that in caſe either of the contracting parties ſhould be engaged in hoſtilities, the other might navigate freely to the ports and coaſts of the nations at war. The effects embarked on board neutral ſhips to be free, except contraband of war, and enemy's property; but it was agreed not to compriſe in the number of the latter, the merchandize of the produce, growth, or manufacture of the countries at war, which ſhould have been acquired by the ſubjects of the neutral power, and tranſported for their account. By a ſubſequent article it was declared that this freedom did not authorize the ſubjects of a neutral power to carry, in time of war, the produce or merchandize of the colonies of the belligerent power direct to the continental poſſeſſions, nor *vice verſa*, from the mother country to the enemy's colonies; but that the ſaid ſubjects ſhould enjoy the ſame advantages and facilities in this commerce as were enjoyed by the moſt favoured nations, and eſpecially by the United States of America. In order to avoid all equivocation and miſunderſtanding of what ought to be denominated contraband of war, the contracting powers acknowledged as ſuch only the following objects: cannons, mortars, fire-arms, piſtols, bombs, grenades, balls, bullets, firelocks, flints, matches, powder, ſaltpetre, ſulphur, helmets, pikes, ſwords, ſword belts, pouches, ſaddles, and bridles, excepting however the quantity of each of thoſe articles which might be neceſſary for the defence of the ſhip and crew; and all other articles not enumerated were not to be reputed military or naval ammunition, nor ſubject to confiſcation.

The denomination of a blockaded port was confined to thoſe only where the power attacking it ſhould have diſpoſed ſhips ſtationary, or ſufficiently near to occaſion danger in entering. Ships were not to be ſtopped without juſt cauſes, and evident facts; to be tried without delay, and the proceedings to be uniform, prompt, and legal. Subſequent ſtipulations provided for the payment of coſts and damages in caſes of unjuſt detention; for appeals from the courts of admiralty to ſuperior tribunals, and ſome other matters relative to proceedings on ſeizures.

With reſpect to ſearch, it was declared, that the right of ſearching merchant ſhips belonging to the ſubjects of one of the contracting powers, and navigating under convoy of a ſhip of war of the ſaid power, ſhould only be exerciſed by ſhips of war of the belligerent party, and never extend to the fitters out of privateers, or other veſſels, not belonging to the imperial or royal fleet of their Majeſties. And that no ſhip of war with a convoy ſhould be permitted, under any pretext whatever, to reſiſt by force the detention of merchant ſhips by the veſſels of war of the belligerent power; but this obligation did not extend to privateers. Copi-

ous proviſions were added on this head, to prevent violence on one hand, and abuſe on the other.

To obviate all the inconveniences which might ariſe from the bad faith of thoſe who might avail themſelves of the flag of a nation without belonging to it, it was eſtabliſhed for an inviolable rule, that any veſſel whatever, to be conſidered the property of the country the flag of which it carries, muſt have on board the captain of the ſhip, and one half of the crew of the people of that country, and the papers and paſſports in due and perfect form; but every veſſel which ſhould not obſerve this rule, or infringe the ordinances publiſhed on that head, ſhould loſe all rights to the protection of the contracting powers.

By this treaty the principal poſitions contended for by Great Britain were clearly eſtabliſhed, while the reſtrictive regulations on the right of detention and ſearch were calculated to allay the jealouſy, and ſecure the effects of neutral nations. The peace of Great Britain with the northern powers ſeemed to be eſtabliſhed beyond fear of miſunderſtanding, as no country could again hope, with effect, to revive the principles on which ſo much diſcuſſion had been employed.

CHAP. VI.

Proceedings in Parliament reſumed; Motion for Inquiry into the Expedition againſt Ferrol; Speech of Mr. Sturt; Sir James Murray Pulteney's Defence of himſelf; Debate on the Motion; Arguments in ſupport of it; and againſt it; it is rejected. Lord Darnley's Motion for an Inquiry into the State of the Nation often poſtponed; but at length made; his Speech; Debate on the Motion; Arguments on each ſide on the various topics in Lord Darnley's Speech; his Motion rejected. Mr. Grey's Motion in the Houſe of Commons for a ſimilar Inquiry; Speeches of Mr. Grey, Mr. Dundas, Mr. Pitt, Mr. Fox, and Mr. Addington; the Motion rejected.

WHILE the tranſactions related in the laſt chapter were yet objects of general anxiety, the debates in Parliament proceeded without interruption.

A topic which intereſted the public for a conſiderable portion of time was the ſtate of the nation, propoſed to be diſcuſſed in the Upper Houſe by Lord Darnley, and in the Lower by Mr. Grey. As this inveſtigation related principally to the conduct of the retiring miniſters, and was, in fact, perfected before the glorious battle of Copenhagen made ſo auſpicious a change in the proſpects of Great Britain, it claims here the earlieſt attention; the next ſubject adverted to will be the ſupplies, not only on account of their general importance, but becauſe the raiſing of them was a duty voluntarily aſſumed by Mr. Pitt on his retreat.

Before the general debates on the ſtate of the nation could be entered into, a collateral diſcuſſion took place, which was much referred to in thoſe

Feb. 19.

thoſe which followed. It aroſe on Mr. Sturt's moving, purſuant to notice, that the Houſe ſhould reſolve itſelf into a committee, to enquire into the cauſes of the failure of the expedition againſt Ferrol.

In ſupport of this motion, Mr. Sturt premiſed that he did not intend to blame the military characters employed on the ſervice, nor the plan itſelf, as conceived at home; the enquiry, if granted, might redound to the honour of both, but the circumſtances were undoubtedly ſingular; accidents which gave a greater appearance of blame could hardly be deviſed. The armament employed in the expedition to Ferrol was previouſly three months at Quiberon. What they did there ſo long he could not tell. They ſeemed to be diverting themſelves, and if ſo their diverſions gave no doubt great pleaſure to the enemy. It had been ſaid there were diviſions between the naval and military ſervices: he knew not how far that might be true, but would venture to aſſert, that the news of the failure of the expedition was received by adminiſtration with aſtoniſhment, alarm, and regret. The country ought now to be informed what was the cauſe of this extraordinary event; it ought to be ſatisfied in a point that wounded its honour.

The armament at length ſailed from the coaſt of France, and on the 25th of Auguſt arrived off Ferrol, where the forces, conſiſting of 11,500 men, independent of ſailors and marines, with ſixteen pieces of cannon, ſcaling ladders, and other neceſſaries, landed without accident; aſcended the heights without oppoſition; except a few ſlight ſkirmiſhes, for nothing occurred which could be called a battle or a ſtruggle; the enemy were few in number; they took fright at our formidable force, and retreated; there were but a few (about 700) that made a ſtand at any time, and they were ſoon diſperſed. So rapid was the ſucceſs of the troops, that the officer who commanded the engineers congratulated the general on the taking of the place. The town, he obſerved, might be eaſily ſcaled; and he pledged himſelf to obtain poſſeſſion of it within two hours. A regiment, the 52d, he believed, having gained one of the heights, and ſeeing the fort of St. Philip's within their reach, and the town of Ferrol before them, gave three cheers, and were impatient to attack the fort, but were firſt ordered to lie behind a wall, and afterward to retreat. The fort of St. Philip's, which they were burning to attack, abſolutely begging their officers to let them ruſh forward, commanded the boom of the harbour, which prevented our ſhips from getting in; and if the troops had poſſeſſed themſelves of the fort, the whole ſhipping in the harbour, conſiſting of two men of war, of 112 guns each, one of 84, and two of 74, with a number of merchant-veſſels, amounting in all to eighty-five ſail, would have been ours. In the fort of St. Philip's there were not fifty men, and in all the place not more than two thouſand. Under all theſe circumſtances the general ordered a retreat. Good God! a Britiſh army, of 11,500 men, retreat from a diſpirited enemy, amounting to

2000.

2000. Such a disgrace had never before befallen the country.

Differences of opinion prevailed in respect to the causes of this failure, but they furnished reasons for inquiry, and it was not creditable to the general who conducted, that he himself had not challenged it. The general was however in his place, and would give an account of his reasons, whatever might be the fate of the motion.

A division had arisen between the two services, on the order for retreat and re-embarkation; the naval part offered to take the town without assistance from the army, and were indignant that they could not be permitted to make the attempt. The town lay under the fire of the British troops, and the municipality were so perfectly persuaded that the English were masters of the place, that at the time of the retreat, they were actually assembled to capitulate. It was very surprising, even in this very extraordinary affair, that no summons was sent to the town, although the troops had been wholly successful; and yet Cadiz was afterwards summoned very formally, when there was no success to allege in excuse. Military men were of opinion that the town might have been taken with the loss of 200 men; and however commendable in a general it might be to spare the lives intrusted to him, Ferrol would have been cheaply bought at that price. Beside, as the ships of war and merchant-men would doubtless have fallen into our hands, the marine of Spain would have been severely injured by the blow. The Spaniards boasted that with 200 men, they had beaten the English army of 8000; such statements, in course, were idle talking; but an English army of 11,500 men had failed to take a place, having only 2000 in it; and it deserved to be noticed, that the officer of engineers, who had congratulated the general on the capture of the town, was not summoned to the council of war, in which it was resolved to re-embark. The armament in question, and its expedition, did not cost less than three or four millions; and for what?—to degrade the English arms. The re-embarkation was considered as so dreadful a disgrace, and excited such indignation, that the order for it almost created a mutiny; the seamen swore that 700 of them would take the town in twenty-five minutes; and some Spaniards, captured afterward in a privateer, affirmed that a French general, with 500 men, would not have returned to Paris without taking the place. The general himself had entertained a different opinion of his success, when he said—"the British army has long wanted "a laurel, now I am going to "give it one."

In support of these statements, Mr. Sturt read two letters from naval, and some from military officers; one of the latter said, there were no ditches to the place, and no cannon mounted on the walls; 900 men (volunteers from militia regiments), who had never seen service before, rushed up to one of the heights, and would have taken fort St. Philip's, if they had not been ordered to lie down under a wall; had they seized that fort, they could have gained

gained poſſeſſion of the haven, and given an entrance to the men of war. There was no apparent reaſon for the retreat; a ſingular circumſtance was, that they had no interpreter with the army, ſo that when they took ſome priſoners, they could not have queſtioned them, had it not happened that one of the Commiſſaries ſpoke Spaniſh.

Mr. Sturt, toward his concluſion, ſpoke in terms of eulogy on the bravery of the general who commanded, but thought he was called on to account for his retreat.

Sir James Murray Pulteney immediately roſe, obſerving, that whatever diſinclination he might feel, under other circumſtances, to addreſs the Houſe on a ſubject in which he was principally intereſted, he felt none on the preſent occaſion. So much had been ſaid within thoſe walls, and ſo much clamour raiſed without doors, reſpecting this expedition, ſo many vague and unfounded inſinuations had been ſpread abroad, that he felt obliged to the gentleman who brought forward the motion, more eſpecially, as the obſervations he ſhould offer to the Houſe would not tend to diſcloſe any inſtructions he had received, or to expoſe any of the important political objects with which thoſe inſtructions were connected.

All enterprizes like that againſt Ferrol, were undertaken under circumſtances of the greateſt difficulty and hazard; the danger to be conſidered was not the loſs of a certain number of men, more or leſs, but the general preſervation of the corps, and the relative proportion of riſk and advantage. Had the capture of Ferrol been within fair calculation, and the general deterred from the attack merely by the conſideration of loſing 200 men, or a much greater number, he would have been deficient in his duty, and merited the imputations which were ſpread abroad; but when, after mature deliberation, the direct contrary was apparent; when the attack preſented no reaſonable proſpects of ſucceſs, and failure muſt have compromiſed the general ſafety of the troops under his command; it would be evident, without entering into the tenor of his inſtructions, that it was not his duty to expoſe to imminent hazard a body of troops, the loſs of which would not only have defeated every other object of the campaign, but would have been a ſevere blow to the country, and a material diminution of its effective force. The grounds on which he formed his opinion, Sir James ſaid, he would explain in a manner eaſily to be underſtood by every gentleman, however little he might have turned his mind to military affairs, and he would prove his facts by documents to which every one might have acceſs.

The landing and progreſs to the heights it was unneceſſary to detail; the poſſeſſion of theſe heights gave him a full opportunity of obſerving the whole ſituation; and the reſult of that obſervation was, decidedly, not to hazard any attack, as the works were of a nature to defeat the poſſibility of a *coup-de-main*, and they were defended, counting the troops in and out of the town by at leaſt 6000 men, a number more than amply ſufficient

ſufficient. The town was covered on three ſides by the ſea, or arms of the ſea; the fourth ſide, extending about two thouſand yards, was regularly fortified by maſonry, having in that ſpace ſeven baſtions, beſides other flank defences, all of great height and in the beſt order, having been lately conſtructed, and other defences, even more than neceſſary, were added. Such being the ſtate of Ferrol; and it being poſſible to throw in a large additional force before night, there appeared, morally ſpeaking, no chance of ſucceſs in an attack. In corroboration of theſe facts, the general cited an official report publiſhed in France, and the account publiſhed in Madrid, which proved that the enemy had in, and cloſe to, Ferrol, at leaſt 7000 men, and that, of them, 1800 were a diſpoſable force, more than ſufficient to defend the place, and conveyed by water to act between the Engliſh troops and the ſea.

It was ſaid the Spaniards were in many reſpects unprepared, and had not a cannon mounted; the general affirmed, however, that he ſaw cannon on the ramparts; the enemy were buſily bringing up more, and there could not be the ſmalleſt doubt, that, before night, (for it was to be kept in view, that there never was an idea of eſcalading the town in the day time) they would be amply provided in this reſpect. It appeared from the Madrid account, that the neceſſary preparations for the defence of the town were made, and the 1800 men above mentioned detached by nine o'clock in the evening of the landing.

Though willing to take on himſelf the whole reſponſibilty of the retreat, Sir James obſerved, that he had not ordered it without conſulting the general officers who accompanied him, individually and collectively. They had approached and viewed the place, and were all, except one, of opinion, that the attack preſented no adequate proſpect of ſucceſs. Even that one officer did not, at the time, expreſs a poſitive opinion, but had ſince ſaid, that from what he then ſaw and afterward learned, he was convinced the attack would have failed. The chief officer of engineers had declared the place might be taken by eſcalade in the night; allowing there was conſiderable riſk of failure, but a poſſibility of ſucceſs. Without intending to argue this point, Sir James ſaid, his opinion was intirely different; and he was convinced that Ferrol, though certainly not a ſtrong fortified place, was as much in ſafety againſt what is called a *coup-de-main*, or immediate aſſault, as any town, however fortified. In a queſtion, not relating to a regular plan of ſiege, any other officer might judge, as well as a profeſſed engineer, and therefore this difference of opinion was not intended as any reflection on the gentleman whoſe advice was not adopted.

Having ſhewn that a ſudden attack preſented no probabilities of ſucceſs, the general proved the impracticability of a regular ſiege, from the ſituation of his troops, and of the fleet, the poſition of the place, and above all, the certainty that, almoſt before he could have opened his trenches, the enemy would have collected 10 or 12,000 additional men, while he,

he, after covering the fleet, and eſtabliſhing the neceſſary communications, would not have had more than 7 or 8000, for a beſieging and covering army. It was uſual in ſieges, to calculate that the beſieger ſhould have three times the number of garriſon; but an attempt againſt ſuch a ſuperiority would be abſurd.

The reports that the place was defenceleſs; that there were only four hundred men; that the Governor came running out with the keys; and that the admiral offered to take it with the marines and ſeamen only; Sir James treated with diſdain as palpable nonſenſe, beneath refutation; but to one or two others he would ſhortly advert. It had been ſaid by the Honourable Gentleman, that an univerſal panic and confuſion prevailed among the enemy. Gentlemen were extremely apt to ſtretch points ſo as to ſupport the opinions they adopted; but as far as the enemy ſhewed themſelves in the field, they diſplayed no ſymptoms of panic or confuſion. In the town they ſeemed to be extremely buſy in making arrangements for their defence, which the Engliſh had the rare opportunity of ſeeing, as they took the whole of the works in reverſe. Could the ſtrongeſt town in Europe, under ſimilar circumſtances, be obſerved from a commanding height, and taken in reverſe, the ſame appearances might lead zealous, but inexperienced officers to conſider that as panic, which the experienced could diſcern to be occaſioned by the very contrary reaſon, a determination to uſe every means of defence. The march of troops, the dragging of guns, and univerſal movement in every quarter, muſt be the natural conſequence of an apprehended attack; but it could not be conſtrued into the effect of panic and confuſion. That the merchants were afraid, might eaſily be conceived; ſo they were in every town that apprehended attack; but there were certainly no ſymptoms of terror to be obſerved in the garriſon. Sir James, in anſwer to other reports, poſitively denied that the Admiral ever remonſtrated with him againſt the retreat, or offered to make an attack with the fleet; and ſaid his conduct was not guided by any private orders from the Commander in Chief, nor could he gueſs how, or with what intention, any one could hazard an inſinuation ſo wicked, falſe, and abſurd.

On the letters which had been produced, he ſaid, thoſe from officers of the navy demanded no obſervation, becauſe, except one officer of rank, who had not been, and could not be quoted, not one of them had ever ſeen the place. The officers of inferior rank in the army, might have ſeen it, but almoſt all of them at a conſiderable diſtance, unfurniſhed with any plan, information, or previous notice on the ſubject; and, occupied in the ſubordinate duties of their ſituations. Without intending to detract from the merit of the military officers, it might be affirmed that they were not univerſally judges, either of the management of a large body of troops, or of the nature of the attack and defence of fortified places; nor could they remote, occupied, and uninformed as they were, form any ſound judgment

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on the ſubject. The facts had already been mentioned, and if the queſtion were to be decided by authority, it would reſt on this point; whether the high and experienced officers of the army having approached the place with a view of examining it, furniſhed with previous information, and taking all the circumſtances of the caſe under conſideration, are, or are not, better judges than thoſe of a different profeſſion, who never ſaw the place at all; than thoſe of inferior rank and leſs experience, if ſuch had given any opinion, who, not being called upon to decide, and totally unfurniſhed with the materials upon which a judgment was to be formed, ſpoke from a diſtant or caſual view of the town.

It would be aſked how ſo many reports came to be believed? To this Sir James anſwered by recapitulating the circumſtances which decided him not to make the attack; the troops were intended for further ſervices; unneceſſary riſk and loſs merely for the ſake of appearances, he was determined to avoid; and therefore having reſolved to re-imbark, he thought only of preventing, by diſpatch, thoſe misfortunes which might have ariſen from delay, eſpecially if the enemy had been allowed time to recover from their expectation of an attack, and follow him in his retreat. Theſe conſiderations could not be in the contemplation of the other officers of either ſervice; they ſaw no reaſon why the attempt ſhould not at leaſt be tried, and knew that all the efforts they had made were crowned with ſucceſs; and it was not unnatural, that men of high ſpirit and ſanguine diſpoſitions ſhould feel diſappointment, and be diſpoſed to impute blame.

Returning to ſome parts of Mr. Sturt's ſpeech, Sir James ſaid he was not acquainted with the ſentiments of the navy after the re-embarkation, but poſitively denied any difference of opinion between them and the army up to that time. The 52d regiment had not offered to take fort St. Philip, on the contrary, the commanding officer of that regiment, an officer of high rank and approved character, would not have failed to take it, had it been practicable; and the chief engineer, ſo much relied upon by Mr. Sturt, had given his opinion that the attack of it would not be adviſable. Yet the capture of this fort had been the principal ſubject of all the letters read to the Houſe. On many other points, the Honourable Gentleman was equally miſinformed; he ſpoke of a council of war, at which the chief engineer was not permitted to aſſiſt; there was no council of war, but at the only meeting of officers, he was preſent. The poſſeſſion of the heights was of no further advantage, than as they overlooked the town, being too diſtant for cannon to have any effect. With reſpect to the ſummons, one was written, and ready to be ſent, but was not delivered when an inſpection of the place proved its inutility. Mention had been made of the gallant offers of ſeamen, to take redoubts between the army and the town; theſe offers were a profound ſecret from the general, and there were no ſuch redoubts to be taken.

By accident, which perhaps no human

human prudence could foreſee, and in which neither his Majeſty's miniſters, the admiral, nor the general, had the ſmalleſt blame, he was diſappointed on his arrival off Ferrol, of intelligence which he confidently expected, and on which he had depended in a great meaſure for his future operations. As far as he could judge, miniſters were perfectly juſtified in employing the troops, and in giving the inſtructions under which he acted. He was undoubtedly apprized before his departure of the information which had been received on the ſubject of Ferrol; and though that information did not prove to be correct, there was on the face of it ſuch rational ground of hope as juſtified the enterprize, ſo far as it was intended to be puſhed, and under all the circumſtances of the campaign.

In concluſion, the General declared, that had the circumſtances been intirely different; had he not been ſupported by his general officers, and juſtified even by the publications of the enemy, clamour and miſrepreſentation could not have made him regret his conduct. He ſhould have thought himſelf unworthy of the ſituation in which he was placed, if, after making up his mind on the ſubject, he had with a view to his own reputation, or to convince the army and the world of the neceſſity of what he found himſelf compelled to do, been guilty of hazarding, for an hour, the ſafety of any part of his corps, or throwing away uſeleſsly the life of a ſingle man under his command.

In the debate which enſued, Mr. Jeykyll, Mr. Horne Tooke, General Gaſcoigne, Mr. Elliſon, Mr. Grey, Earl Temple, Mr. Dent, and Mr. Pierrepoint, were the chief ſupporters of the motion, which was oppoſed by Mr. Dundas, Mr. Pitt, and Lord Belgrave.

The arguments in favour of the motion proceeded on various principles; ſome members maintaining that the defence of Sir James Pulteney completely exculpated him, but expoſed the miniſters to cenſure, for having projected an expedition which was impracticable, and endangered the troops for want of ſufficient information. Some inſiſted that the General was not exculpated; that a court of inquiry would be more fit for the inveſtigation, but yet ſupported the motion; and others contended that the inquiry ought to be eſtabliſhed, becauſe it was required both by the army and the public. The ſtate of adminiſtration was ſeverely animadverted on; they were termed political non-deſcripts, and accuſed of ſlinking from office, and ſkulking from reſponſibility.

In defending themſelves, the miniſters took advantage of the inconſiſtency of their opponents, who, after bringing forward a motion againſt Sir James Pulteney, founded on documents calculated to prove the expedition not only practicable but eaſy, attacked them on the ſuppoſition that it was abſolutely impracticable, and could only have been undertaken through want of intelligence. In anſwer to this accuſation, they declared they had every information which the nature of the ſubject was capable of; information which not only ſatisfied the General employed, but procured alſo the perfect concurrence of Lord St. Vincent,

cent. "Lord St. Vincent," Mr. Pitt exclaimed, "gave his ſuffrage in favour of the plan; Lord St. Vincent who, happily for the country, has at this difficult moment accepted a ſituation which no man is better qualified to fill with the ſame glory and ſucceſs which marked the adminiſtration of the noble and illuſtrious perſon whom he ſucceeds." With reſpect to the origin of the expedition the following account was given. In the early part of laſt campaign, Ferrol certainly was not the object againſt which the expedition was levelled; it was the intention of miniſters to employ the armament in conjunction with our allies, at that time fighting on the Continent. It occurred to miniſters, that it would contribute to the common cauſe, if the force of this country was divided, a part of it employed in the Mediterranean to keep the coaſts of France in alarm, and another part on the weſtern coaſts of France for the ſame purpoſe; becauſe France would then be compelled to allot a conſiderable part of its force to defend its own coaſts, which might otherwiſe be employed againſt our allies. Belleiſle was the place from which, if the plan had been ſucceſsful, the operations were to be carried on againſt the northern parts of France, and Minorca in the Mediterranean. It was needleſs to call to the recollection of the Houſe the change which was produced by the battle of Marengo. Two objects then engaged the attention of government. The firſt was the threat which had been made on the part of Spain to attack Portugal, and the other, the diſpoſitions of the northern powers, which at that time began to be manifeſt. If it was a deſirable object to provide a defence for Portugal; it could not be more effectually attained, than by alarming the coaſts of Spain; and if there was a confederacy of the northern powers againſt us, no object could be more deſirable than to ſecure the fleets which were in the harbour of Ferrol and Cadiz; theſe were the objects with which the armament was undertaken. As to their ſkulking from reſponſibility, the miniſters ſatisfied themſelves with denying the fact, and obſerving that in private life, they ſhould be equally reſponſible for their conduct while in office, as if they ſtill continued.

The ſtatement on the original and final deſtination of the troops was ſtrongly controverted by Mr. Grey, who decried the uſe which had been made of the diſpoſable force in Holland and every other quarter, and particularly diſapproved the attack on Spain, as calculated to convert a quieſcent into an active foe.

The inquiry was rejected by 144 againſt 75.

The motion propoſed by Lord Darnley was more than once poſtponed, on account of the delays which attended the formation of the cabinet, or rather, the lamented cauſe of thoſe delays. To this motive his Lordſhip himſelf, though ever anxious to proceed in the courſe which he conſidered right, yielded with commendable facility. A day having been fixed for the diſcuſſion, and for a Call of the Houſe, he moved to diſcharge the order, obſerving that his intention in promoting an inquiry

quiry was not limited to the war alone, or any particular ſyſtem of conducting it, but extended to every branch of the adminiſtration of Government, with reſpect to both foreign and domeſtic policy and regulation. He had not thought the want of an efficient adminiſtration, or diſſentions prevailing in the cabinet, a ſufficient reaſon for the poſtponement of his motion, but had aſſented to the general ſenſe of the Houſe. At preſent the caſe was different; and he came forward on his own ſuggeſtion, to ſtate, that, in contemplation of the critical and alarming ſituation of affairs at the moment, he deemed the bringing forward the diſcuſſion at the time propoſed, at leaſt improper and unfit. Circumſtances might be ſuch as to render the adoption of particular meaſures neceſſary; and delicate and arduous, he felt, the taſk muſt be of that Noble Lord, whoſe duty it might be to propoſe them. He ſhould, therefore, without reference to any perſonal conſideration, upon no other than public grounds, and acting ſolely on his own opinion, urge the propoſed inquiry, when he himſelf ſhould think it could be inſtituted with fitneſs, propriety, and decency.

March 20. The opportunity deſired by his Lordſhip ſeemed to preſent itſelf on the 20th of March, when having firſt congratulated the Houſe on the removal of the objection to his proceeding, and declared his participation in the general joy on his Majeſty's recovery, he adverted to the change of miniſtry as not being of a nature to alter his original views or intentions. He could not ſee any difference; their perſons were changed, but their principles and views the ſame. The principal actor had withdrawn from the ſtage, but now played the part of prompter; his ſubſtitutes ſpeaking and acting as he directed. A few exceptions there certainly were, and among the moſt advantageous was that of the Firſt Lord of the Admiralty, who joined to the diligence, aſſiduity, and zeal of his predeceſſor, an acquaintance with maritime affairs, and judgment both as to the ſervices required on every ſtation, and the officers fitteſt to be employed.

In ſtating the reaſons which, in his Lordſhip's mind, evinced the neceſſity of this ſolemn inquiry, the firſt object would be, the conduct of the war; a wide field, which fortunately it would be unneceſſary to travel through. He would not go back to events ſo remote as the expedition to St. Domingo, where millions were laviſhed, and the flower of the Britiſh army deſtroyed, but confine himſelf to the laſt two or three years. By breaking down in a violent and unprecedented manner, the conſtitutional force eſtabliſhed for defence of the kingdom, a great diſpoſeable army was created, and it was hoped ſome great achievement would be performed; the firſt thing attempted was the expedition to Holland, the event of which was too well known to require recapitulation; he had reſiſted a motion for inquiry on this head, becauſe he believed the proteſtations of miniſters that it would occaſion dangerous diſcloſures, and becauſe he hoped that future ſucceſs would compenſate for that diſaſter. But

how deeply was he disappointed! a long train of misfortune and disgrace had followed, exceeding the apprehensions even of the most timorous and desponding. Our forces were not defending our possessions, assisting our allies, or annoying our enemies, but cooped up in transports, and carried from place to place without any rational object. Such a cloud hung over the transaction at Ferrol, that it was surprising the general did not himself insist on a court of inquiry; troops had been intended for Italy, but sent too late, and nearly captured by the enemy; these two armies afterward joined, and made an attempt, which met the success it deserved; if grief and indignation were excited by the expedition to Ferrol, what must be the feelings on the disgraceful attack on Cadiz? it affixed an indelible stain on our arms, and made us at once the detestation and laughing stock of Europe; yet the authors of these transactions remained unpunished and unknown. His lordship then noticed the report, that the same forces were endeavouring to wrest Egypt from the French; acknowledging the importance of the conquest, and the great merits of Sir Sidney Smith, he said, it was impossible to forget that it might have been in our possession, if we had not infringed a solemn convention. He hoped victory would at length crown our arms, but looking to the means of defence in the hands of the French, and the many disadvantages under which we laboured, his hopes were mixed with the most painful anxieties.

He should next consider what prospects this government, or the last, for they were the same, could hold out of a safe and honourable peace. He did not complain of the rejection of overtures made by Bonaparte; he was then scarcely warm in his seat, and might share the fate of his predecessors; but the manner in which his overtures were rejected; the speech of the noble secretary of state; those philippics, that gross and unmannerly abuse, were both impolitic and unmanly. Ministers shewed a littleness of mind, as well as a want of foresight. Because Bonaparte was superior to them, because he had raised himself to an elevated situation, and undermined all their schemes, they commenced against him a war of words. In oratory they might have the advantage; but in sagacity, vigour, and political ability, they were certainly far his inferiors. By their indiscreet behaviour they might have entailed many misfortunes on their country; Bonaparte must possess considerable elevation of mind, if, when he had it in his power, he did not resent these insults, and make us repent of the injurious manner in which we had treated him.

After briefly noticing the manner in which British money had been lavished to reduce the Emperor to a more deplorable situation than he could have been in without our assistance, Lord Darnley treated at length on the conduct of government toward the states of the north. His principal aim was to shew that to the strong powers, Russia and Prussia, we had behaved with abject complaisance, while to the weak and defenceless, particularly Denmark, all was violence, resentment, and menace.

He was not inclined to deſpond, but gloried in his country, and thought on its reſources with joy and exultation; if they were properly applied, we had nothing to fear; but he began to doubt the ſafety of confiding longer to a government which had brought us to this ſituation; our affairs muſt be put into abler hands if we wiſhed for a ſucceſsful iſſue to the conteſt.

On the ſubject of ſcarcity, his lordſhip ſeverely cenſured the meaſures which had been taken; they had rendered the ſufferings of the poor threefold; Parliament ought never to have interfered; the committees had been miſled by truſting to ignorant ſelf-ſufficient men. The ſcarcity, he ſaid, was in Ireland ſtill more ſevere; and reviewing the ſtate of that country, he imputed to the meaſures of its government all the ſedition and treaſon which had appeared.

Returning to the change of miniſters, he diſapproved the conduct of thoſe who retired, whatever might be the nature and cauſe of the change; moſt probably it was nothing but a juggle; and if not, they had criminally relinquiſhed their poſts in the moment of danger. In concluſion his lordſhip ſolemnly conjured every diſtinct portion of the Houſe to concur in a vote for inquiry; and quoting the late Lord Chatham, ſaid, "This is a "fearful time; the ſmoothneſs of "flattery muſt be diſcarded, and "the rough language of truth "muſt be carried to the foot of "the throne. My lords, I con-"jure you, by every thing you "hold dear, to look narrowly "into your circumſtances; I im-"plore you to agree to this mo-"tion, as you value the ſecurity "of your property, the happineſs "of your families, the glory of "your country—Awake, ariſe, "or be for ever fallen!" He moved, that the Houſe ſhould reſolve itſelf into a committee to inquire into the ſtate of the nation.

A long debate enſued, in which the principal ſupporters of the motion were, Lord Holland, the Earls of Carliſle, Suffolk, Moira, and Caernarvon, the Marquiſſes of Lanſdowne and Buckingham, and Earl Fitzwilliam; its chief opponents, the Duke of Montroſe, Earl of Weſtmoreland, Lord Grenville, the Lord Chancellor (Loughborough,) Lords Eldon, Auckland, and Hobart. The arguments uſed on the occaſion may be treated with their anſwers under various heads.

Thoſe who oppoſed the motion inſiſted on its general inconvenience and impropriety; the right to inquiry was undoubted; but, in its nature, limited by diſcretion and utility. The number of objects comprized in the ſpeech of the mover would, if any inquiry were inſtituted on them all, demand the attendance of many officers, and employ his Majeſty's miniſters when the general affairs of the nation peculiarly required their attention. The inquiry would beſide, occaſion a terror through the realm, that we were threatened with imminent dangers. It was at all times the duty of parliament to look at the ſtate of the country, but eſpecially in moments of alarm, to aſcertain whether apprehenſions were well or ill founded; in rejecting the preſent motion they would not be ſhutting their eyes to the ſituation of the ſtate, but if they granted it,

whatever might be the formal terms in which the reſolution was couched, the real effect would be, to hold forth to the public, that they were diſſatisfied with the meaſures which had hitherto been adopted, and that they wiſhed to go into this committee to try all ſorts of experiments. From the inquiry propoſed, and the arguments advanced in ſupport of it, a perſon ignorant of affairs, would ſuppoſe the nation reduced to the loweſt ebb of deſpondency, her armies defeated, her colonies taken, her commerce deſtroyed, and her fleets ſhut up in her own harbours; but what muſt he think when he heard, that theſe circumſtances were deſcriptive only of the enemy, and the picture of Britiſh affairs exactly the reverſe. The motion was general for an inquiry into the ſtate of the nation, but the particulars mentioned were multifarious and ſeparate, each of them might be the ſubject of a diſtinct motion, though many could not be proſecuted without great difficulty, and on ſome perhaps no effectual information could be obtained.

The ſupporters of the motion ſaid it was ſtrange to aſſert, that the nation being placed in critical circumſtances was a reaſon why parliament ſhould be forbidden to inquire into the cauſes by which their dangers had been produced, that they might elect the beſt means of avoiding them; ſtrange that they ſhould be told it was neceſſary to defend the country, yet forbidden to employ their wiſdom in adviſing how the danger might beſt be repelled, and the defence beſt conducted. Motions of a ſimilar kind had been granted, and beneficial conſequences had reſulted from them, in the moſt glorious periods of the national hiſtory; yet in this diſaſtrous and expenſive war, a war which, after a ſeries of diſgrace and mortification, had embroiled us with all Europe, no inquiry was to be granted, leſt it ſhould create alarm in the nation. There could be no inconvenience in ſhewing the people their real ſituation, and if parliament did its duty in expoſing and cenſuring miſmanagement wherever found, the people would exert every effort, and ſubmit to every ſacrifice which their ſafety and proſperity might demand. The inquiry muſt produce one happy effect; it would ſhew the country that the ſyſtem of confidence, which had occaſioned ſo much calamity, was at an end, and that parliament was returning to that ſtation in the conſtitution which it ought to hold, and to the exerciſe of theſe functions which it never ſuſpends for any long period, without compromiſing the public cauſe. Nothing certainly could be more unjuſtifiable than timidity or irreſolution when the ſtate of the country called for vigour and energy; there was a degree of national intrepidity, regulated by wiſdom, than which nothing could be more ſalutary; but on the other hand, there was a ſpecies of blind enthuſiaſm, which might produce the moſt diſaſtrous conſequences. Could parliament ſhut their eyes in the moſt calamitous ſituation the country had ever withſtood, and continue the ſame blind confidence under every change of circumſtances and of men? After a war, ſanguinary and expenſive as the preſent had been, nothing could be more

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proper than that an inquiry ſhould take place with reſpect to the conduct of it; and that an addreſs ſhould be made to the King, praying him to develope the principles upon which it had been proſecuted. Nor was the Houſe obliged to go into all the topics mentioned in the ſpeech of the noble mover, ſome would probably be excluded; but there were other points which more loudly called for inquiry, the ſtoppage of payment at the Bank; the formidable mutiny in the fleet, which ſome years ago exiſted; and above all, the rebellion in Ireland, were ſtill in the recollection of the Houſe, and had each, in their turn, an influence in reducing the country to a ſtate of diſtreſs.

With reſpect to the change of miniſtry, the peers who ſupported Lord Darnley's motion, eſtimated thoſe who retired and their ſucceſſors, in different ways; according to their political bias. Some deplored that thoſe who had quitted office, left behind them the unhappy effects of their ſyſtem, and reproached them with having firſt conducted the affairs of the country to ruin and diſgrace, and then reſigned on a popular pretence, taken up at the moment to ſhield them from inquiry, and from cenſure. They who in 1795 oppoſed conciliation and conceſſion, thoſe men whoſe meaſures brought on all thoſe misfortunes, and gave riſe to thoſe proceedings which had deſolated Ireland, could not be the friends of any liberal and enlightened conciliation. They had not been moved by truth and juſtice to give encouragement to the Catholics; the battles of Marengo and Hohenlinden, had produced the change; the claims of the Catholics were decided by the arms of Bonaparte. Others mentioned the changes as alarming to the country in general, whoſe confidence the new miniſtry did not poſſeſs, though they were entitled to much perſonal eſteem. The general obſervation however was, that there was an evident myſtery in the tranſaction, which it was aſtoniſhing there had been no attempt to elucidate. The explanation was due from the new miniſtry to the country, which could not fail to be ſenſibly ſtruck with their aſſuming a ſtation of reſponſibility in a way altogether unprecedented. It was a duty they owed to the people, who had ſtrong grounds for ſuſpecting, that, by ſuch a mode of proceeding, their beſt intereſts might be materially affected, and therefore had a right to know what had given riſe to arrangements equally dangerous and unconſtitutional. This myſtery furniſhed grounds for inquiry; alarms had ariſen reſpecting the alleged cauſe of the change, and the event was not indifferent to our civil or religious eſtabliſhment: the cauſe which removes any miniſters, popular or unpopular, muſt be of importance to the public; but the more ſo when it is concealed with art. "Nothing," it was ſaid, "is clear, but that the cauſe aſſigned is not the true motive; it is impoſſible that the ſuppoſed pledge of miniſters to the Catholic Emancipation, as it is termed, could have produced the event. It has taken place at a moment when they were bound to thoſe who approved their conduct, and to their own honour, not to deſert voluntarily the public ſervice in

the time of danger, and at a time when any ſuppoſed difficulties with the Catholics did not preſs them; the ſuppoſed pledge not claimed, no diſquiet appearing on the ſubject, nothing known to cauſe ſo precipitate a retreat." It was equally incredible that honourable men ſhould have given ſuch a pledge to the Catholics; for it was notorious that they or their immediate agents gave the contrary aſſurances to the Proteſtants in England and Ireland, which the reverend Prelates of both nations could teſtify. The pledge, therefore, did not exiſt, or the late miniſters muſt have authorized their agents to ſeduce both ſides by contrary aſſurances: they muſt likewiſe have kept the King and parliament in treacherous ignorance on the ſubject. The noble ſecretary of ſtate, on a former occaſion, denied the pledge, but inſinuated that the meaſure followed as a neceſſary conſequence of the union. It was a curious conſequence, foreſeen by no perſon in either Houſe of Parliament in either nation; which was not even hinted at by thoſe who now wiſhed it to be conſidered as an indiſputable reſult, which, if they were not allowed to graft on its parent meaſure, they felt themſelves bound in honour to leave their country in the midſt of difficulties to its fate. It was impoſſible for the moſt credulous man to give the ſlighteſt faith to this motive of abdication.

On the other ſide it was obſerved that thoſe who were ſo eloquent in their attacks on the new miniſtry, did not act with much addreſs in repreſenting their antagoniſts ſo weak, becauſe they could expect little honour from a victory over perſons whom they repreſented to poſſeſs ſuch inferior talents. Men, however, who ſtood on the broad ground of the conſtitution, as eſtabliſhed at the Revolution, would not be overthrown by ſuch aſſaults, unleſs they proved themſelves unworthy of ſupport, by departing from their principles and profeſſions. Lord Auckland, while he ſpoke of the late adminiſtration with affectionate reſpect and unfeigned regret, paying every acknowledgment of gratitude for thoſe public ſervices, which, in a period of ſixteen years, diſtinguiſhed by ſo many gigantic events, had not only preſerved the Britiſh empire from deſtruction and deſolation, but had raiſed it beyond example in power, dominion, glory, and proſperity, acknowledged he had ſeparated from them, on account of a diverſity of opinion too ſerious to be compromiſed, and never to be obliterated or done away; namely, on the intention to give the Iriſh and Engliſh Catholics, for they could not be ſeparated, every judicial, executive, and legiſlative privilege enjoyed by thoſe who profeſſed the religion by law eſtabliſhed; a general right to hold military commiſſions; to exerciſe judicial functions; to be admitted into his Majeſty's councils; and to ſit and vote in both Houſes of Parliament. The exiſtence of ſuch an intention was now well known; but it was ſaid that collateral ſafeguards to our conſtitution and religion were meant to be formed and ſubſtituted in the place of what would have been taken away. It was matter of concern and ſurpriſe that a ſpeculative propoſition of ſuch extent, not called for by any pledge, nor urged forward by any preſſure,

preſſure, could have been ſo entertained by thoſe who entertained it. The propoſition was certainly of recent date, for it was not foreſeen or expected by the parliaments of the two kingdoms, nor, taken as a corollary, or as a poſtſcript to the union, was it ſtated to ſome individuals who contributed eſſentially to that arduous tranſaction, and who certainly had a claim to the fulleſt previous confidence. "Conſidering the ſuppoſed intention in this point of view," his lordſhip ſaid, "I am brought to a dilemma. On the one hand, I cannot diſcover a ſufficient cauſe for the unhappy reſignations which took place in a moment of accumulating and increaſing difficulties; on the other, it is impoſſible that men of high ſpirit, and of ſuch fair and well-founded ambition could, for a moment, be affected by a deſire to have leſs fatigue or leſs reſponſibility. I am obliged then to have recourſe to the words of a noble Earl (Carliſle,) and to ſay, that there is in this buſineſs "a myſtery, and ſomething difficult for one man to explain to another." There is a veil through which the eye cannot penetrate. Time and circumſtances may remove that veil; it cannot be drawn aſide by the committee, which the preſent motion ſeeks to eſtabliſh." To theſe candid remarks his lordſhip added a few equally liberal with reſpect to the new government; it was a ſtrange objection, he ſaid, that the new miniſters were untried men; but, in fact, they were not all ſo; ſome, though not all, had filled great ſituations in the ſervice of their country, and been diſtinguiſhed by their talents and virtues. From him they were not to expect a blind confidence; confidence was the work of time; but they ſhould have his ſupport, from attachment to the ſovereign and the country, in the hope and expectation that they would proſecute war, if it muſt neceſſarily be proſecuted, with energy and effect; and that they would ſeek pacification by means equally diſtant from national humiliation, and national inſolence; and on terms and conditions not inconſiſtent with the ſafety, honour, and intereſts of the Britiſh empire. To theſe arguments little was or could be added; Lord Grenville denied all myſtery, and treating with indignation the ſurmiſe of a trick or juggle, repeated the reaſons for his reſignation, and added that he did not believe the new miniſters capable of acting in the way that had been inſinuated. Lord Spencer alſo reſtated the cauſe of reſignation, and Lord Hobart declaring that he had accepted, but not ſolicited, an arduous ſituation under the crown, claimed for himſelf and colleagues the confidence of the country, till their actions ſhould prove them unworthy of it. Their conduct ſhould be regulated by no private and ſecret influence, but be the reſult of their own opinions and principles; if it ſhould be approved of by the country, to them alone ſhould the merit be attributable; and ſhould they unfortunately be diſapproved of, to them would all the blame be due.

On the Catholic queſtion little was ſaid, which is not included in the foregoing obſervations. The profeſſors of that religion were admitted, it was ſaid, to a participation in all the privileges of the

conſtitution, and excluded only from holding about thirty offices of public truſt, and from ſitting in parliament. But had the lords conſidered what they would have to do if they proceeded to take off thoſe inconſiderable diſabilities? Were they aware that it would be neceſſary to meddle with the Toleration Act, the Bill of Rights, the Act of Settlement, and probably the Act of Union with Scotland? The Catholics of Ireland, and thoſe of England, were, by the Act of Union, identified, and muſt ſtand or fall together.

The diſpute with the northern powers was diſcuſſed at conſiderable length, but the examination of its principles, with reſpect either to right or policy produced little novelty. Government was however ably vindicated againſt the charge of preferring the attack of Denmark to that of Ruſſia, becauſe the latter was the ſtronger power. The poſition of the countries, and the impoſſibilities of approaching Ruſſia till the ſeaſon was more advanced, were ſufficient reaſons. To abſtain from attacking Denmark, while the ice protected Ruſſia, might be magnanimous; but miniſters took a courſe, at leaſt more prudent: they did not wiſh to have any enemies, but when compelled by aggreſſion to act, they acted at once nobly and wiſely.

The conduct of the war both with reſpect to alliances and expeditions was warmly attacked, and it was ſaid a review of every year ſince its commencement would prove the neceſſity of inquiry. Miniſters had begun it with every poſſible advantage; the enemy oppreſſed with famine, involved in civil diſſenſions, without a friend or ally, and without credit: Great Britain, on the contrary, was ſupported by half the nations of Europe; our public credit in great vigour, even under the oppreſſive weight of a debt of 230 millions, the produce of many wars during the ſpace of a whole century. From this proſperous ſituation, the preſent melancholy reverſe exhibited the nation ſtill engaged in war; deſerted by thoſe miniſters who led her into it, the force of our principal adverſary increaſed by his ſucceſſes beyond all precedent; our friends and allies converted into bitter enemies, and our reſources exhauſted by the moſt profuſe expenditure of above 300 millions in a war of only nine years. The various expeditions were animadverted on with great ſeverity.

In defence of miniſters it was obſerved, that during the laſt campaign the great object of England was to divert the attention of the enemy. In that the ſucceſs was complete. France was alarmed for Holland, Belleiſle, her arſenals, and La Vendée. If the allies had been ſucceſsful on the Rhine, France would have been compelled to draw her troops from the interior and the ſea, from which a ſucceſsful and important impreſſion might have been made on the coaſt of France by this country. As it was with 16,000 men we had kept the coaſt alarmed, and filled with troops from the Helder to Carthagena. An army of the enemy was found wherever we went. An attempt was made on Ferrol (of which ſo much had been ſaid), hoping that we might ſtrike a blow there. The honourable gentleman who commanded the expedition found an army there; and, greatly

ly to his honour, took upon him the reſponſibility of a retreat, preferring the public ſervice to his own reputation. The grand operation of the Engliſh in the campaign was diverſion, and that was fully effected by the prudence and good conduct of the generals. Nor did the troops remain at ſea in the manner ſtated; they were diſembarked at the various garriſons by which they were relieved.

This vindication occaſioned ſeveral replies. If the argument was good for any thing, it was ſaid, the forces employed in this expedition might, by another diſpoſition, have excited a much greater degree of alarm, by leaving the enemy ignorant of the particular ſpot where a landing was to be attempted. If it was meant to operate as a diverſion againſt the French, this appeared to have been very ill accompliſhed; ſince, in the expedition againſt Ferrol, a conſiderable portion of time ſeemed to have been unneceſſarily conſumed. If theſe troops, which had thus been employed on a fruitleſs expedition, had been kept hovering over the French coaſts in the Mediterranean, the Firſt Conſul could not have ſpared a ſufficient number of men to have attempted the paſſage of the Alps, or by his deciſive victories in Italy dictated an armiſtice to Auſtria. If the meaſures alluded to were conceived with judgment, and executed with ſkill, it was to be lamented that the reſult was not attended with greater luſtre to our arms, and greater benefit to our country; but it was a ſingular inſtance of the benefits of the diverſion, that wherever we went to make a deſcent we found an enemy ready to receive us.

The expence of allies, and the little ſervice they had rendered, were alſo much dwelt on. On the latter point, it was obſerved in anſwer, that the money had been wiſely expended in drawing the enemy from an attention to their marine and colonial intereſts to oppoſe the allies that we had ſubſidized. Conſidering the danger to be encountered from an oppoſition to the undivided ſtrength and reſources of France, it might rather be affirmed, that we had been too parſimonious both of blood and treaſure. Thoſe who ſo much reprobated the expeditions, ſhould alſo conſider that the ſucceſſes in the preſent exceeded thoſe of any former war; the enemy had made many unproſperous expeditions; no leſs than four againſt Ireland, yet their failures were not ſubjects of reproach; and while thoſe of this country which in their iſſue had not been entirely ſatisfactory were attacked; ſurely it would be but candid to allow miniſters credit for their poſitive ſucceſſes in taking all the enemy's colonies, and making many valuable conqueſts. To theſe general arguments Lord Grenville added, that whatever charges any noble lord might think it right to bring forward with reſpect to thoſe expeditions, the miniſters, under whoſe direction they had been conducted, would always be ready to meet and diſcuſs them.

It was alſo inſiſted by the ſupporters of the motion that the ſtate of finances rendered the inquiry neceſſary, and they deſcanted on the money employed in ſecret ſervice, and the failure during the laſt year of the cuſtoms and

and exciſe, which they ſtated at two millions. In anſwer, it was ſaid that no committee on the ſtate of the nation could be requiſite on ſuch a ſubject, ſince every neceſſary information could be obtained by a motion; and with reſpect to the ſuppoſed defalcation it amounted only to 300,000l. and might be eaſily accounted for by the badneſs of the late ſeaſons, which occaſioned a deficiency in malt and beer, and the ſtoppage of diſtilleries.

Peace was a topic on which many peers dwelt with conſiderable animation: ſeveral who ſupported the motion for inquiry, joined the mover in reprobating the manner of rejecting Bonaparte's overture. For the obtaining of this bleſſing, if the late miniſters were unfit, their ſucceſſors were ſtill more ſo; the Firſt Conſul might ſpeak of them as men unworthy of confidence, and expoſed to the univerſal ridicule of their country; men who carried with them into power all the principles of pride and hoſtility which had animated their predeceſſors; men who carried in their favourite principles the ſeeds of eternal jealouſy betwixt the two countries, and the fruitful germ of a new war at no very remote period. On this view of the ſubject, he might with great plauſibility object to the concluſion of a peace likely to be ſo inſecure. "If the new adminiſtration acted on the principles of the old one," Lord Moira ſaid, "the country had no reaſon to hope for a pacific diſpoſition; for, excluſive of other circumſtances, he would only ſtate one document, which had not, he believed, been before urged; and that was, that, at the time of negotiation at Liſle, it appeared from the confeſſion of the agents of the Iriſh Directory, (and if their confeſſion was good for one point, it was for another) that the French muſt have made peace if we had been ſo inclined; but they were of opinion that this country was inſincere in its propoſals. He was afraid a notion prevailed in France, that though there was a change of miniſters, there was no change of principles; and that the old miniſters had merely ſtepped aſide to make room for new ones who might attempt a peace, but who could not keep the late adminiſtration from regaining their ſeats whenever they pleaſed."

To this laſt obſervation Lord Grenville anſwered, that for the anecdote there was not the ſlighteſt foundation. The noble lord was alſo miſtaken in ſuppoſing any wiſh had been expreſſed, that the negotiations at Liſle ſhould not ſucceed. The noble lord could not have heard ſuch a declaration, becauſe in point of fact it had never been made. This miſtake had ariſen from a groſs miſrepreſentation. It had been ſtated in another place, that under the then ſtate of affairs it was rather a fortunate circumſtance for this country that the ſincere wiſhes for peace, which we had expreſſed, had not been met with equal ſincerity on the part of the enemy. Without relying on the declarations of recorded traitors in Ireland, he would remind their lordſhips of one circumſtance, which was, that the negotiations at Liſle were broken off, becauſe there was a revolution in the government in France; and the new rulers of that country did not diſguiſe their ſentiments, but

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at once put an end to the treaty. When they rejected Bonaparte's overtures, miniſters were juſtified, from the novelty of his government, and the character of the revolutionary principle, in calling for experience. Theſe were the grounds of rejection, and not any perſonal objection to Bonaparte. Upon this, as well as the more recent offer of a ſeparate negotiation, it was evident that the country at large approved the conduct of miniſters, and were convinced that nothing had been omitted that could really contribute to a ſafe and honourable peace. If the preſent motion paſſed, it would lead Europe to think that parliament had departed from the firmneſs it had hitherto diſplayed; that the country was diſheartened; and that, by waiting a little longer, France would ſee us at her feet. More reliance was to be placed on the efforts of Sir Hyde Parker, Lord Nelſon, and Lord St. Vincent, for an honourable peace, than on any negotiation or diſcuſſions whatever; and the only effect of the preſent motion would be to miſlead Europe, diſhearten the public, and enfeeble our exertions.

On a diviſion, the motion was rejected by a majority of 87, the numbers being 115, to 28.

Mar. 25. Mr. Grey's propoſition was in the ſame terms with that of Lord Darnley. In moving it, he acknowledged he had impoſed on himſelf an extremely arduous taſk. It would be neceſſary to conſider a great variety of circumſtances which combined to make our ſituation ſo difficult, dangerous, and alarming; on every ſide the aſpect of affairs was menacing, and inquiry neceſſary now, if ever. If in the beſt times of our conſtitution, when the principles of freedom and ſound policy were well underſtood, and uniformly acted upon, as often as the country was in perilous circumſtances, parliament had inſtituted an inveſtigation into the cauſes of our misfortunes, and the beſt means to remove them, could that inveſtigation now be rejected? Of late, indeed, a different line of conduct had been purſued, and inquiries uniformly oppoſed, or members demanding inveſtigation were required to make ſpecific motions, but ſuch reaſoning was completely at variance with the practice of the Houſe. It might be ſaid, that agreeing to the preſent motion would imply a doubt in the propriety of the meaſures of government, but he was aſſured he ſhould not hear ſuch an argument on this occaſion. If there were any one who would ſtand up and affirm that he was perfectly ſatisfied with the economy which miniſters had exerciſed in the expenditure of the public money, with their vigour and foreſight in carrying on the war, and with the prudence, firmneſs, and dignity they had diſplayed in their treatment of foreign powers; if there was any man bold enough to aſſert, that he had no doubt of the propriety of their conduct, Mr. Grey would conſent to wave his motion, and abſtain from all the obſervations he meant to make in ſupport of it. There was alſo another general argument againſt ſuch propoſitions as the preſent, made in eloquent panegyrics on unanimity, and decrying retroſpects as uſeleſs; but this common place advice, though

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it had an air of generoſity, was miſerably deficient in true wiſdom. In politics, as in morals, reformation muſt be precarious, unleſs founded on conviction and repentance. At the preſent moment, it was neceſſary to inquire, not only into the cauſes of our misfortunes, but into our proſpect of ſurmounting them.

After a ſummary ſtatement of the diſadvantageous ſituation of the country, and undertaking to review its circumſtances in each particular, Mr. Grey obſerved that a Right Honourable Gentleman, (Mr. Dundas) had frequently profeſſed an anxious wiſh that the war ſhould be ſeverely ſcrutinized, alleging that he would defend it year after year, month after month, week after week, nay hour after hour: the opportunity was now arrived, and muſt be eagerly embraced, unleſs all thoſe profeſſions were empty boaſts. The conduct of that gentleman was blamed by the army, by the public, and by all the world; and it muſt be inferred, that it was blamed with juſtice, if he ſhould now ſhrink from the inveſtigation of it. In the committee, Mr. Grey ſaid, he would make diſtinct ſpecific motions, at preſent he would confine himſelf to a few leading features. The Right Honourable Gentleman had aſſerted the war was eminently ſucceſsful; but it was moſt diſaſtrous, not only in the general reſult, but in the particular operations. If this had been a ſucceſsful war, was there ever a war unſucceſsful? If victory had produced ſuch deplorable effects, what would have been the conſequences of defeat? It would be ſaid we had made important conqueſts, but thoſe who engaged in the war on principle, would never conſider them as equivalent to the loſſes which the war was undertaken to prevent. They ſerved only to extend, divide, and weaken us; all troops ſent to the Eaſt or Weſt Indies, were taken from that force which was to be employed againſt France, which was to root out jacobinical principles, which was to prevent the aggrandiſement of the regicide republic! It had been ſaid, that America was conquered in Germany; had France, then, done nothing towards the acquiſition of colonial poſſeſſions? "Her frontiers now extend to the Rhine, the Alps, and the ocean: ſhe has reached a pitch of greatneſs which Lewis XIV. never aſpired to in the maddeſt dreams of his ambition. All theſe poſſeſſions we have conſented to abandon, as the price of peace. Thus all our loſſes are irretrievable, and our triumphs empty. Miniſters have readily offered to give up all their boaſted acquiſitions for peace; for peace, which they might have made with France confined within her ancient limits, while their country was proſperous and happy."

Mr. Grey then aſſerted that there was no ſhore, from the Texel to the Adriatic, which had not witneſſed the defeat and diſgrace of our arms; and in proof of his aſſertion, cited Dunkirk, the retreat through Holland, Toulon, Corſica, Quiberon, and the laſt expedition to Holland. On obtaining an augmentation of the diſpoſeable force, miniſters confidently promiſed that an impreſſion would be made on France. The power of that country was ſaid to be at the loweſt ebb, her armies ruined,

ruined, her finances deranged, rebellion raging in her provinces, the inhabitants incenſed againſt each other, and agreeing in nothing but an abhorrence of the exiſting government. Overtures of peace were haughtily rejected; yet no attempt was made to fulfil the promiſe of miniſters till the French armies had penetrated into the heart of Germany, and the fate of the Houſe of Auſtria was decided in the battle of Marengo. Soon after that, Sir Ralph Abercromby arrived off Genoa, and found it in poſſeſſion of our enemies. Deſcribing Spain as the next object of our enterprizes, Mr. Grey ſpoke of the attempt againſt Ferrol, as eminently diſgraceful and detrimental, but of that againſt Cadiz as ſtill more diſhonourable; and the employment of troops againſt Egypt afforded no ground for ſanguine hopes, owing to the want of vigour, the delay and indeciſion of miniſters. What could they allege in their defence? Not want of money; their moſt extravagant demands had been cheerfully complied with; not want of men, for it appeared by the laſt returns from the War-office that we had 168,000 rank and file, which were more by half than when we extorted the admiration of Europe, at Minden, and humbled the Houſe of Bourbon at Quebec. Was it to be ſaid that the enemy were ſuperior? laſt year ſuch an aſſertion would have been treated with contempt and indignation. Vigour and enterprize would always have the advantage. Grant what you will to imbecility, ignorance, and indeciſion, and you never grant enough. While that mighty genius in France, truſting to the reſources of his own mind, reſtored life and energy to the government over which he preſided, led on his armies to victory, and laid his enemies at his mercy; our miniſters, poſſeſſed of every thing, idle, ſupine, and wavering, ſuffered the ſeaſon for action to elapſe; and, when they did ſend out expeditions, ſent them to excite the ridicule and contempt of our enemies.

The attempts at negotiation had been ſtill more impolitic than the conduct of the war. It would be well to compare the lofty language uſed to Chauvelin with the mean ſolicitations to Otto, but as it was not his intention to recur to early periods of the war, Mr. Grey adverted to the offer made by France in the beginning of laſt year. The ſolidity of the confederacy was then largely dwelt on by miniſters, and urged as a complete juſtification of our perſiſting in the conteſt. Did they then actually believe there was a firm and cordial union among all the confederates? Had they no fears of the Emperor Paul? Had they no ſuſpicion of the maritime confederacy? The Emperor of Ruſſia was not to be relied on after the defeat of his troops in Switzerland, Italy, and Holland; and Sweden had already begun a courſe of reſiſtance. If miniſters acted wrong in rejecting Bonaparte's firſt overtures, their error was ſtill greater in refuſing a ſeparate treaty. They were juſtified in not agreeing to a naval armiſtice, but, after the convention of Marengo, they were not bound by any ties of good faith to the Emperor of Germany; in fact, he was pacifically inclined, but our govern-

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ment ſtirred him up to revenge and to blood. To them he owed all his misfortunes ſubſequent to the recommencement of hoſtilities, the diſgrace of his arms, the loſs of his dominions, and the ruin of his houſe. It was improper always to judge by events; but where, on an immenſe ſcale of operations, every thing miſcarried, it muſt be concluded that there was never much chance of ſucceſs. Inquiry into this ſubject would not only be a cenſure on the old miniſters, but a leſſon to the new, who had uniformly ſupported their predeceſſors, and applauded the ſentiments of the Right Honourable Gentleman, who thanked Heaven for the failure of the negotiation at Liſle.

With reſpect to the neutral powers, Mr. Grey repeated the arguments uſed in former debates, vindicating the northern confederacy, and decrying the conduct of adminiſtration on ſparing Pruſſia, eſpecially after the ſeizure of Cuxhaven and Ritzbuttle.

On the internal ſtate of the country, he ſaid, "Two hundred and ſeventy millions have been added to our national debt excluſive of imperial and other loans, and of the reduction effected by the ſinking fund; and yet we are told by the ex-miniſters that they leave the country in a flouriſhing ſituation. I aſk any man, whether, from diminiſhed comforts, or from poſitive diſtreſs, he does not feel this declaration an inſult? Aſk the ruined manufacturers of Yorkſhire, Mancheſter, and Birmingham; aſk the ſtarving inhabitants of London and Weſtminſter. It is ſaid, that though one half of our property is gone, it is well ſacrificed, as it has ſaved the remainder. One half of our property is gone, but the remainder is in greater danger than before. Jacobiniſm has been confirmed beyond the terrors of the moſt apprehenſive, if it is true that Bonaparte is its child and champion. If our danger aroſe from French aggrandiſement, how dreadful muſt it be now! Has the conſtitution been preſerved? The power of the crown has been increaſed, but the Britiſh Conſtitution has ſuffered in proportion. Laws have been paſſed which have made miniſters completely abſolute; and they have annihilated the freedom of the preſs, that laſt and only guardian of the Conſtitution. During the late adminiſtration, eighty new peers have been created; and I am aſhamed to ſay, that, of the hereditary peers thoſe who do not hold offices are a minority in the Houſe. The Right Honourable Gentleman has acted on jacobin principles; he has deſtroyed our privileges, he puts our property in requiſition, impriſons our perſons, and tries our fellow-ſubjects by a military tribunal."

This courſe of argument naturally led to the mention of Ireland, which Mr. Grey obſerved had, ſince the recal of Lord Fitzwilliam, been a ſcene of tranſactions moſt ſhocking to humanity. The maſs of the population was diſaffected, and nothing prevented a ſeparation from this country, but the inability of France to aid the rebels. He appealed to the ſupporters of this oppreſſive ſyſtem, whether they would not inſiſt on inquiry, when the meaſure was rejected, which was declared by the

the Marquis Cornwallis to be the only thing which could ſave Ireland from being deluged with blood; when an adminiſtration went out becauſe they could not carry this meaſure, and another comes in rootedly hoſtile to it? This change was of itſelf a ſufficient ground of inquiry. On the myſtery in which the change was involved; the papers addreſſed to the Catholics of Ireland; and the report that the meaſure which would be acceptable to them, was objected to by the King, Mr. Grey dwelt at ſome length, and then aſked whether any ſuch engagement did, in fact, exiſt? If ſo, it was one of the greateſt crimes with which miniſters ſtood charged; had they any authority for entering into it? Were the ſupporters of the union, and Lord Clare in particular, acquainted with it? If not, the criminality of forming ſuch an engagement, without their privity and concurrence, almoſt equalled that of entering into it without the conſent of the crown.

Finally, Mr. Grey adverted to the new adminiſtration, of whom he ſpoke without aſperity, though far from giving them either applauſe or confidence; if they differed from their predeceſſors, either in views or principles, they would ſupport his motion. If the Houſe could be perſuaded by the repreſentations of the other ſide that the country was proſperous, the war ſucceſsful, the ſyſtem of the old miniſters beneficial, and that the new, profeſſing to act upon the ſame principles, were intitled to confidence, they would decide againſt him; but if they held the contrary opinions, they would accede to a propoſition, the object of which was, conſtitutional inquiry.

The motion having been ſeconded by Mr. Whitbread, Mr. Dundas accepted, without heſitation, the challenge contained in Mr. Grey's ſpeech, and entered into a vindication of government. He divided the charges made by the opener into ſeven heads, in the order they are above detailed, and obſerved that this great variety of ſubjects found in itſelf an inſuperable obſtacle to granting the motion, ſince each of them might be brought forward ſeparately.

To form a judgment on the conduct of the war, it would be neceſſary to decide; firſt, the principles on which Great Britain ought to engage in hoſtilities; ſecondly, how far thoſe principles had been adhered to in the preſent war; and thirdly, what had been the reſult in this war compared with any other.

On the firſt head he obſerved, that the primary object of this country in war, ſhould be moſt effectually to increaſe thoſe reſources on which depend our naval ſuperiority, and at the ſame time diminiſh, or appropriate to ourſelves, thoſe which might otherwiſe enable the enemy to contend with us. Navigation and commerce being inſeparably connected, it became as much the duty of thoſe intruſted with the conduct of a Britiſh war to cut off the colonial reſources of the enemy, as it would be that of the general of a great army to deſtroy or intercept the magazines of his opponent.

To prove that this principle had

had been effectually and beneficially followed, Mr. Dundas, premising that at the commencement of hoſtilities, the diſpoſeable force of the country amounted to no more than 20,000 infantry, recapitulated, year by year, and without omiſſion, all the conqueſts made by Great Britain during the war, beginning with Tobago, in 1793, and ending with Malta, in 1800. He then entered into a vindication of expeditions to Holland, Ferrol and Cadiz, defending them with great ability, on the grounds before uſed in Parliament. On the imputed delays in ſending a force to the Mediterranean, he ſaid, the regiments formed from the militia, which were ſent to Holland in 1799, were from neceſſity embarked before their clothing, arms, and neceſſaries could be completed; they had beſides, joined and met, almoſt for the firſt time, on the day of embarkation. At the end of that ſervice, they were in want of new arms, clothing, and requiſites of every deſcription, and on their return, it was the unanimous opinion and report of all the ſuperior officers, that men who had been brought together without any previous knowledge of each other, and from a great variety of regiments of militia, would require ſome time to become grounded in diſcipline and tactics, and acquire mutual knowledge and confidence. To the attainment of theſe points, the whole attention of the illuſtrious Perſonage at the head of the army had been directed, but his endeavours had been retarded by the early commencement and ſeverity of the winter. The old regiments too, which had, for the moſt part, been drawn from Ireland, were obliged to be replaced in that country. Miniſters at that period hoped to ſtrike a vital blow at the naval power of France, but, on inveſtigation, were obliged to abandon the project. In February, 1800, they recommended the collection of a force of 20,000 men, to co-operate with the Auſtrians on the ſide of Italy and the ſouth of France. Sir Charles Stuart had accepted the command, but the Duke of York, in a minute report, demonſtrated that the troops could not be completely equipped, formed, and inſtructed, in leſs than two months. In conſequence, however, of the urgent requeſts of adminiſtration, 6000 had been forwarded, and embarked in March, as a firſt diviſion, to be ſtationed at Minorca, and perfected in diſcipline. They were long delayed by contrary winds, and finally reached their deſtination the 12th of May.

In this place Mr. Dundas thought it neceſſary to obſerve, that in the winter of 1799 all communication between London and Vienna had been ſuſpended from December to March, through the rigour of the ſeaſon; and the reſolution to co-operate with Auſtria was taken without any previous knowledge of the ſentiments, views, or wiſhes of that court, conſequently ſo many delays aroſe in the negotiation, that it muſt be evident, the preparations of government, at leaſt kept pace with the poſſibility of giving them effect, nor could greater efforts have been attended with more beneficial conſequences, without the ſtrenuous co-operation and ſupport of the

the Auſtrian government. To elucidate this part of the ſubject, he ſtated, that according to the loweſt calculation made by Sir Charles Stuart, 3000 draught horſes would have been requiſite to enable a Britiſh force of 20,000 infantry to move and co-operate with the Auſtrians; that a proportionate number of baggage-waggons, &c. would have been neceſſary; that in order to procure theſe on the ſpot, (for it was evident they could not be ſent by ſea) as well as pioneers and every other appendage of an army in the field, and for the formation of our magazines, it was indiſpenſably requiſite to obtain the previous concurrence of the court of Vienna; and further, a large body of Britiſh infantry could be of no material ſervice, nor could it even provide for its own ſecurity, without a proportionate number of cavalry, eſtimated by Sir Charles Stuart, at not leſs than 5000. Adding to theſe conſiderations the diſlike all the great military powers of the Continent (but Auſtria perhaps more than any other) feel at their armies, ſerving with the troops of other powers, having different rates of pay, different allowances of proviſions, and different modes of diſcipline; and allowing for the political jealouſy which the Cabinet of Vienna might have entertained at the interference of any other power in her operations and military views in Italy, it would be felt and admitted, that the adjuſting a plan of co-operation for the Britiſh forces in the Mediterranean might require much time, and preſent many difficulties before it could be finally concluded.

Whatever might be the cauſe, Auſtria preferred that the Britiſh troops ſhould attempt diverſions, and miniſters, deſirous only to regulate their exertions in the manner moſt advantageous to the common cauſe, employed the remainder of the troops in an attack on Belleiſle, and in haraſſing the weſtern coaſts of France. The firſt diviſion, previouſly ſent to Minorca, together with ſuch diſpoſable force as could be drawn from the garriſon of that iſland and of Gibraltar, amounting to 9000 men in all, was to co-operate with the Auſtrians by diverſions on the French coaſt in the Mediterranean, or by more direct aſſiſtance in caſe of a reverſe; or if no reverſe occurred, which was then very little expected, Sir Charles Stuart was to proceed with them, to aſſiſt in the reduction of Malta; and Mr. Dundas here, in juſtice to himſelf and government, read an extract from a letter of Sir Charles Stuart, declaring his motive for reſigning the command, which was his repugnance to the introduction of a Ruſſian force into that iſland.

On this reſignation, Sir Ralph Abercromby received the command, and, after a long paſſage, arrived at Minorca the 22d of June. There he found a requiſition from General Melas for a body of troops, and actually ſailed with them on the following day for Genoa; but on the 14th the battle of Marengo had been fought, and the falſe ſecurity of the Auſtrians, while it rendered them in the outſet of the campaign too indifferent perhaps to our aſſiſtance, and afterwards too inattentive to the movements of the French on the ſide of the Alps, had enabled

Bonaparte to ſtrike that fatal blow, which ruined at once the hopes of the campaign and of the war. In conſequence, the armament went to Leghorn, whence a part of it was diſpatched to Malta, and the remainder returned to Minorca.

Mr. Dundas having concluded his defence of the military conduct of the war, briefly enumerated the reſult of our naval ſucceſſes. The moſt ſignal victories had been obtained; the moſt gallant exploits achieved, and in the courſe of the war, we had taken or deſtroyed 78 ſhips of the line, 181 frigates, and 224 ſmaller veſſels, making a general total of 483 ſhips of war, beſides 743 French privateers, 15 Dutch, and 76 Spaniſh, in all 834, which, added to the 483 ſhips of war, made a grand total of 1317 veſſels equipped for the purpoſes of war; while, on the other hand, Great Britain had loſt by capture, only three ſhips of the line, and one ſhip of 50 guns, of which one of the line and that of 50 guns had been retaken; and of the frigates taken from Great Britain, only one of 32 guns, (the Ambuſcade) was in poſſeſſion of the enemy, or perhaps two, as it appeared that another had lately been captured in the Mediteranean. Moſt of the ſmaller veſſels had alſo been retaken. Theſe ſucceſſes ought not, according to the unfair practice too generally adopted, to be ſeparated from the military exploits of the country, nor would thoſe who planned or achieved them be flattered by compliments paid them at the expence of the other ſervice.

Applying the details of our conqueſts, to the principles he had firſt laid down, Mr. Dundas ſaid, that in 1799, the exports to our Weſt India conqueſts, and to the Cape of Good Hope alone, amounted to 1,775,000l. beſide a vaſt increaſe of export to our own colonies, occaſioned chiefly by the ſecurity they derived from the capture of the ſettlements of the enemy. In 1792, the exports to our own colonies amounted to 2,550,000l. and in 1799, the exports to the ſame colonies reached 3,983,000l. adding this exceſs, which was 1,433,000l. to the exports to the conquered colonies in the ſame year, they amounted to 3,206,000l. During the ſame period, the exports to Denmark, Ruſſia, Sweden, Poland, Pruſſia, and Germany, amounted to 2,883,000l. being 313,000l. leſs than the extended exports to the Weſt Indies; the reſult of this ſtatement was, that, by our ſucceſsful exertions in the courſe of the war, we had provided markets for our exports more than ſufficient to form a ſubſtitute for all the markets of Europe. Beſide theſe advantages, the exports to India had increaſed from a million to 1,600,000l. owing, in a great meaſure, to the conqueſt of Ceylon; and the poſſeſſion of Malta opened bright proſpects in the Mediterranean.

Theſe exertions had been made without any diminution of the force requiſite for the defence of Great Britain and Ireland; there was in England, an eſtabliſhment of 21,500 regular cavalry, and 81,900 infantry: and in Ireland a regular cavalry of 4,400 men, and 48,600 infantry. This was excluſive of the artillery; excluſive of marines, to the amount of about 10,000, ſerving on board

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ſhips of war on the home ſtation; excluſive of ſea fencibles, amounting to near 7,000; and excluſive of the volunteer force in both iſlands. That of Ireland, for want of a regular ſtatement, might be calculated at 40,000. In England, according to an examination very recently made of their effective ſtrength, it amounted to 20,685 cavalry, and 107,353 infantry.

To prove that in the preſent war the Britiſh arms had obtained greater ſucceſſes than that which was conducted by Lord Chatham, Mr. Dundas recapitulated the conqueſts effected in that period, beginning with the capture of a fort in Nova Scotia, and of Severndroog, in 1755, and concluding with the taking of the Havannah, in 1762. The naval ſucceſſes produced only 32 ſhips of the line taken and deſtroyed; about 50 frigates and a proportionate number of ſmaller veſſels. In that war too, he obſerved, the glories gained both by ſea and land, were tarniſhed by failures, involving the commanders in no ſmall ſhare of blame. With the exception of Guadaloupe, the Havannah, and Belleiſle, we now held every advantage and every poſſeſſion which the ſeven years war procured for this country; and we had the addition of Trinidada, Surinam, Demerara, Berbice, Eſſequibo, and Curaçoa, in the Weſt Indies. We were in poſſeſſion of Minorca and Malta, in the Mediterranean, with an unrivalled ſuperiority in that ſea, and in the Levant. In the Eaſt Indies, we were in poſſeſſion of all the Dutch ſettlements; and an extenſive confederacy formed between France and the moſt powerful prince in India, had terminated in the loſs of their poſſeſſions in that quarter, and in the complete ſecurity of our Aſiatic Empire, by the overthrow of our moſt inveterate enemy, and the conqueſt of the Myſore. Our footing in St. Domingo too, though attended with conſiderable expence, had not been without advantage, both as it impeded the commerce and reſources of the enemy, and deſtroyed the rendezvous, which made it a terror to Jamaica. With this reſult before him, the miniſter, who for ſo many years had guided the councils of this country, and had ſuperintended the conduct and operations of the war, need not be afraid to tranſmit his fame to poſterity as a companion to that of his illuſtrious father.

The compariſon might conclude here, but it was neceſſary to attend to ſome collateral conſiderations, diſtinguiſhing the preſent war from that of 1755. The firſt was, the reſources of a revolutionary government, which, though they muſt ultimately fail, were, while they laſted, all-powerful. In the ſeven years war, France had the ordinary means of credit and taxation; ſhe had not recourſe, as in this, to the violent ſeizure of capitals, accumulated during centuries, to ſucceſſive public bankruptcies, to the appropriation of one half of the landed property; to travelling guillotines, to general requiſitions and conſcriptions, nor were whole colonies of ſlaves armed and arrayed againſt their maſters.

Nor were the effects of the revolutionary principles reſtricted to France, but had unfortunately

found their way into Great Britain and Ireland. On this topic Mr. Dundas expatiated for ſome time, obſerving, that in proportion as Bonaparte and Moreau had been ſucceſsful againſt the allies, they had been more extolled by party in this country, and every hero and ſtateſman, ancient and modern, brought forward as a foil to ſet off their luſtre.

Another principal feature, which added to the comparative difficulty of the preſent war, was the total diſregard on the part of France, of all principles of public faith, as exiſting between nation and nation. This was particularly inſtanced in the attack on Egypt, which had obliged this government to employ ſo great a portion of naval and military force to watch proceedings in that quarter.

Great and manifeſt as were theſe diſadvantages compared with the condition of miniſters in the ſeven years war, there was another circumſtance ſtill more ſtriking. A ſuſpenſion of animoſities took place during Lord Chatham's adminiſtration; party feelings and party animoſities were not leſs acrimonious in reality than in the preſent day; but the conduct of parties was widely different; the country was then ſuppoſed to be in imminent danger, and men of every deſcription thought themſelves bound to unite in ſaving it. During this conteſt, a ſpirit of a very oppoſite tendency had been woefully diſplayed. The neceſſity and juſtice of the war had been reviled. The neceſſary evils of war had been exaggerated by every expreſſion calculated to inflame the minds of the people; and in ſo far as it was poſſible for our enemies to derive comfort and conſolation from the repreſentations conveyed to them, they had been cheriſhed and encouraged in the conflict. This ſubject Mr. Dundas preſſed at conſiderable length; then returning to the cauſe of the war, denied, as he ever had, that it was undertaken for the reſtoration of monarchy in France. Its object had been to defend ourſelves, and to maintain that ſyſtem of government by which the property, the liberties, and the religion of this country had been maintained, and for the preſervation of which, againſt an unprovoked and ſyſtematic aggreſſion, the deciſions of parliament, and the ſenſe of the people, had ſo repeatedly declared the preſent war in its origin, juſt, neceſſary, and unavoidable.

On the bad ſucceſs of our allies, Mr. Dundas profeſſed to be at leaſt as ſincere in his lamentation, as thoſe gentlemen who took delight in expatiating on them, but he diſclaimed all ſhare in their failures; miniſters were intitled to credit for their endeavours to impreſs on every court in Europe, the neceſſity of energy, firmneſs, and vigour, to reſiſt thoſe calamities which there was no chance of averting by any other weapons. If their advice and remonſtrances had been followed, and if the various potentates in Europe had been induced to lay aſide their own jealouſies and animoſities, the iſſue would have been different to all of them, and they would have been relieved from the riſk of thoſe future aggreſſions, and dangers, which they would, ſooner or later, be obliged to encounter. As to the word diſaſtrous, by which the

gentlemen

gentlemen on the other ſide characterized the war, it ſeemed deſtitute of any preciſe meaning, it was uſed by them no leſs when the victorious Auſtrians had recovered Italy, and were on the confines of France, than when they were diſcomfited and driven back to the walls of Vienna.

The remaining topics in the ſpeech of the mover, Mr. Dundas forbore entering into, leaving them to be inveſtigated by others; but on the change of miniſtry, as implicating him perſonally, he added a few words, denying that it was a tranſaction which contained any myſtery; affirming that thoſe who reſigned on account of a ſerious difference of opinion, muſt have incurred the moſt ſevere and merited cenſure, had they acted otherwiſe; but they retired in no diſguſt, nor in any ſpirit of faction. They perceived with heartfelt ſatisfaction, that the talents, the character, and the virtues of their ſucceſſors, had intitled them to the confidence of their Sovereign; and he could only prove the ſincerity of this feeling, by declaring his determination to give them his decided ſupport in whatever way it could be uſeful. From perſons inimical to the conſtitution, they might expect to receive, like their predeceſſors, an inveterate oppoſition, but from that very oppoſition they would derive plentiful means of aſſiſtance. "I cannot better explain the light in which I view this matter," he ſaid, "than by ſtating an anecdote of two royal brothers: Charles II. being cautioned by the Duke of York againſt the danger of mixing, according to his frequent cuſtom, with the people, and of expoſing his perſon, unguarded, at a period of conſiderable ferment and diſcontent, replied,—"Brother, brother, do not be uneaſy; I have nothing to fear, for they know who expects to be my ſucceſſor; they will never murder me to make way for you."

In concluſion, Mr. Dundas expreſſed his confident expectation, that miniſters would uſe their beſt endeavours to obtain a ſafe and honourable peace, or, failing in that, would continue to call forth the reſources of the country in proſecution of a vigorous and ſucceſsful war.

After a few obſervations from Earl Temple, Mr. Elliſon, Mr. May, and Sir William Young, deſigned chiefly to ſhew their reaſons for granting confidence to, or withholding it from, the new adminiſtration, Mr. Pitt roſe, obſerving, that had not ſome of the late ſpeakers intimated that they thought the change of miniſtry a ſufficient reaſon for inſiſting on an inquiry into the ſtate of the nation, he ſhould not have conceived that any gentleman would give his vote, but on a conſideration of this ſimple queſtion: "Do the arguments uſed this night, alter the principles on which we ourſelves have acted for nearly nine years?" On the poſition of parties, Mr. Pitt explained, at great length, his perſonal feelings, expreſſing the regret he ſhould experience, if ever, in that Houſe, the principles of thoſe ſhould prevail, who had, by their arguments, aided the enemy; and he obſerved the conduct of thoſe who profeſſed friendſhip for him, and yet ſupported this motion, was moſt unfair and unkind, and likely to

be moſt miſchievous to the public. He contraſted the reaſonings of oppoſition with thoſe which they had uſed on his coming into office, in 1783; they then, profeſſing to poſſeſs the confidence of the Houſe, contended that he was not intitled to it, becauſe he was not friendly to their principles; yet now they alleged that the new miniſtry ought not to be favoured with the confidence of parliament, becauſe they would be governed by the ſame principles as were profeſſed by the retiring adminiſtration, to whom the oppoſition made it a ſubject of reproach, that they had enjoyed the full confidence of the Houſe. Mr. Pitt then adverted to the characters of the new members of government, paying particular compliments to Mr. Addington; challenging the oppoſition to produce from their ranks, a man more eminently qualified, from underſtanding, information, hereditary habits of attention to buſineſs, and perſeverance, for the high office of ſecretary of ſtate, than Lord Hawkeſbury; except Mr. Fox, (who, from his rare attendance of late, might almoſt be conſidered as a new member;) whoſe tranſcendant talents, indeed, made him an exception to almoſt any rule in every thing that required uncommon powers, but whoſe conduct was alſo, what ought, generally ſpeaking, to be an exception to the rules which ſhould guide the affairs of this nation; which conduct had been at variance in ſome reſpects from that of almoſt every other public man, and which, if followed, muſt have been highly injurious to the true intereſts of the country. Mr. Pitt paid ſimilar compliments to Lord Eldon, who was ſoon to have the great ſeal, and to Lord St. Vincent's, who was amply qualified to ſucceed Lord Spencer at the head of the Admiralty, and whoſe name was a ſhield and bulwark to the nation. With reſpect to this change, a committee on the ſtate of the nation could be of no uſe, ſince nothing would be there diſcloſed of which the Houſe was not already apprized. For his colleagues and himſelf, he repeated the reaſons formerly given for reſigning, denied that any myſtery attended the tranſaction, and vindicated himſelf and friends againſt the charge of ſhrinking from difficulties.

On the meaſure which he had intended to bring forward, he obſerved, he was not anxious to have the queſtion agitated at the moment; he did not think it could be done beneficially, either to the public, or thoſe who were the immediate objects of it; but whenever it was agitated, he would give his full opinion on it. He diſclaimed the term commonly in uſe, "Catholic Emancipation," not thinking the ſituation of thoſe perſons ſuch as that any relief from it could be ſo deſcribed; but he thought the few remaining benefits of which they had not yet participated, might ſafely have been added to the many which had been ſo bounteouſly conferred on them in the courſe of the preſent reign. Theſe benefits, if they had gone before the union, would have been raſh and deſtructive; the meaſure alluded to, as a claim of right, could not be maintained; and it was on the ground of liberality alone, and political expedience, (and in that

ſenſe wiſdom, as connected with other meaſures) that he ſhould have thought it deſirable, adviſeable, and important; but he would not have it founded on a naked propoſition, to repeal any one thing which former policy had deemed expedient for the ſafety of the church and ſtate. He meant to have afforded additional ſecurity to both. Nothing favourable to the Catholics, could, however, proceed from a Committee on the ſtate of the nation, and therefore all that part of the mover's ſpeech, which tended to connect ſuch a committee with the condition of the Catholics in Ireland, although it might ſerve the purpoſe of engaging men's affections for a moment, had, in reality, no connexion with it. A Committee could be productive of no explanation on this point; for a committee, or even the Houſe of Commons itſelf, could have no right to require that any man ſhould ſtate his reaſons for reſigning. Mr. Pitt then noticed the paper circulated in Ireland, obſerving, in the firſt place, that the word uſed in it was *inſuperable*, and not *innumerable*, and denying that it brought the Sovereign's name in queſtion. It was a memorandum ſent in the name of a revered lord at the head of the executive government of Ireland; he felt it right, as a matter of public duty, to make a communication to perſons moſt immediately among the Catholics, to ſtate the motives which led to the late change, for the purpoſe of preventing any miſrepreſentation on that ſubject, which might have added to the dangers which menaced the public tranquility. It was Mr. Pitt's expreſs deſire, conveyed through Lord Caſtlereagh, that he ſhould do ſo; they loſt no time in making that repreſentation and explanation of their motives; on the principle, that the attempt to realize their wiſhes at the time, would only be productive of public embarraſſment. The repreſentation was therefore made; but with reſpect to the particular paper delivered, it was not previouſly concerted with himſelf how it ſhould be penned, and therefore, for the particular phraſes of it, he did not hold himſelf reſponſible. All the knowledge he derived or conveyed was founded on verbal interpretation. As to the tenor of the paper, the ſentiments in it were conformable to thoſe which he had already expreſſed, and ſhould again expreſs whenever he had occaſion. This paper promiſing to promote the claims of the Catholics by peaceable means was his only pledge, and he ſhould give no other. He denied that the perſons retiring had ſo pledged themſelves to the Catholics as to be obliged to reſign; the Catholics never conſidered themſelves to have received ſuch a pledge, but they had expectations, though perhaps leſs ſanguine than his own. His opinion was in favour of the meaſure, when the queſtion of the union was debated; ſuch was ſtill his opinion, and the reaſons in favour of it did very much preponderate, though it was afterward given up on motives of expediency.

Having ſaid thus much on theſe points, he would not trouble the Houſe, after the able ſtatements of Mr. Dundas, with arguments as to the cauſe and progreſs of the war. The cauſes were three; firſt, the reſtoration of royalty; which

was conſidered the beſt, but not the indiſpenſable means of reſtoring peace; ſecond, the ſecurity of internal tranquillity, and ſuppreſſion of deſtructive and anarchical principles; and third, the preſervation of the national independence and proſperity. If we had failed in one of theſe objects, we had moſt completely accompliſhed the others; and it was no inconſiderable conſolation to us, that we had at this moment, in the wreck of ſurrounding nations, the glory and ſatisfaction of maintaining the dignity and happineſs of the country. We had kept our reſources entire, our honour unimpaired, our integrity inviolate, amid all the diſcordant elements of jarring confederates; while thoſe ſtates which did not act in uniſon with the manly protection we afforded to their wants and prayers, became the victims of the common enemy. We had not loſt, in the midſt of all the dreadful convulſions which had devaſtated Europe, a ſingle foot of territory; and we had given to the reſt of the world many chances of ſalvation.

The ſubject of finance, he obſerved, required no committee on the ſtate of the nation; but on this point he entered into a general vindication of his adminiſtration, affirming and ſupporting his ſtatement by comparative eſtimates, that the preſent war, all circumſtances conſidered, had been conducted with unexampled economy and frugality.

The laſt topic treated on by Mr. Pitt was the northern confederacy; he vindicated the conduct of this country, and ſtating the offer made by Mr. Fox during the Rockingham adminiſtration, to cede the right of ſearch, which he deſcribed too as a very valuable conceſſion, inferred, that, even in his opinion, we certainly poſſeſſed that right. Whether the offer was prudent, at that time, was another queſtion; but by voluntarily ceding the right at this, we ſhould ſacrifice our maritime greatneſs, and be expoſed to ſcorn and contempt. Four nations had leagued to produce a new maritime code in defiance of the eſtabliſhed law of nations, and in defiance of the moſt ſolemn treaties and engagements, which they endeavoured arbitrarily to force upon Europe; what was this but the ſame Jacobin principle which proclaimed the rights of man, which produced the French revolution, which generated the wildeſt anarchy, and ſpread horror and devaſtation through that unfortunate country? Whatever ſhape it aſſumed it was a violation of public faith, a violation of the rights of England, and imperiouſly called on Engliſhmen to reſiſt, even to the laſt ſhilling, and the laſt drop of blood, rather than tamely ſubmit to degrading conceſſion, or meanly yield the rights of the country to ſhameful uſurpation.

Mr. Fox claimed indulgence under the title Mr. Pitt had conferred on him, of a new member, for delivering his ſentiments at ſo late an hour as midnight. Adverting firſt to the ſtatements reſpecting himſelf, he allowed, that in 1782, he did offer to the Empreſs of Ruſſia the recognition of the principle in queſtion; but it was the meaſure of the whole cabinet, which was compoſed of many of the greateſt names in the country, ſuch as the Marquis of Rockingham,

ham, Lord John Cavendiſh, the Duke of Richmond, the Marquis of Lanſdown, and Lord Keppel; it was, in a word, the act of an adminiſtration which had been the leaſt cenſured, and the moſt praiſed, of any that exiſted during the King's reign. Nor was that cabinet deficient in lawyers, ſince it poſſeſſed Lords Aſhburton, Camden, and Thurlow. The offer was made in the intention of receiving an equivalent, and therefore it was both natural and reaſonable to eſtimate it highly; to have depreciated the boon would have been a meaſure evidently unwiſe, and remote from policy.

Mr. Fox then entered into a long diſcuſſion on the rights claimed by the northern powers, ridiculing the vehemence with which Mr. Pitt had decried them. "Whether the neutral principle," he ſaid, "be jacobinical or not, its origin is certainly of more antiquity than the French Revolution, being as old as the middle of the laſt century, and having for its patron and propounder no leſs a republican than Frederick the Great. That prince was undoubtedly a philoſopher, and by ſome deemed not quite orthodox in his theology. This neutral principle might therefore with as much reaſon be called deiſtical as jacobinical; and if the Honourable Gentleman had now been in as high favour with the church as in paſt times, poſſibly he might get the point for which the powers of the north were contending, branded with ſome ſuch epithet by eccleſiaſtical authority; in the ſame manner as, toward the end of the ſeventeenth century, the Univerſity of Oxford declared the principles which led to the aſſertion and conſervation of the Britiſh conſtitution, and which ſeated the preſent Royal Family on the throne of England, doctrines tending to atheiſm! The imputations are equally juſt, and jacobiniſm may be applied with exactly as much truth to the neutral queſtion, as atheiſm to the principles of the Engliſh Revolution." In reality, the Right Hon. Gentleman's indiſcriminate cry of Jacobin! Jacobin! to every thing and perſon he diſliked, had brought utter contempt on his continual cant. With far more grace and likelihood might this term 'Jacobin' be retorted on himſelf, and ſeveral indeed of his own meaſures, and particularly his late communication to the Catholics of Ireland on the event of his reſignation, might by many, though not by Mr. Fox himſelf, be conſidered in that light. In Mr. Fox's opinion thoſe who fancied ſome ſtrange intereſt in this dreadful trade of war; ſeeing jacobiniſm, and all their other pretexts for its duration grow ſtale and diſguſting, had manœuvred to aſſociate with the national enthuſiaſm in favour of the navy, a point in which its real intereſts are but little involved. They had fallen, as it were, upon this lucky neutral queſtion, in good time to rouſe the expiring energies of the country into new offers of lives and fortunes, for an object that might ſeem nearer and dearer to them than the further prolongation of the war with France.

From

From this ſubject Mr. Fox turned to a ſeries of obſervations on the war. "It now ſeems," he ſaid, "this war was undertaken for the purpoſe of 'conquering the colonies, and deſtroying the commerce of France.' The reſtoration of monarchy; the overthrow of jacobin principles; the abaſement of France, and confining her to her ancient limits; the balance of power; the cauſe of law, order, and religion; all theſe are gone by; and the ſplendid reveries, that were ſoothed by ſuch contemplations, are fallen, alas! and ſunk down to the capture of ſhips, and tropical ſettlements. In this view of things the ſucceſs of the preſent is boldly compared with that of the ſeven years war, and great conſolation ariſes from a diſcovery, that, even in that glorious contention, there were ſome reverſes; alluding particularly to Minorca and to Rochefort." On the failures of the ſeven year's war, he obſerved, inquiries had always been inſtituted, and the Secretary of State in that day (the late Lord Holland,) for whom Mr. Fox had the deepeſt gratitude and love, far from reſiſting, like Mr. Dundas, was the moſt eager to inſiſt on inquiry. Unlike the preſent times, the Houſe of Commons had not then been tutored into that confidence in miniſters which diſtinguiſhed later periods; and the parliamentary inquiries that followed the failures which had been alluded to, ſo far from embarraſſing the operations of government, or unnerving the martial energies of the country (thoſe ſtale objections to the approved and happy practice of our anceſtors,) were ſucceeded by a ſeries of unexampled ſucceſſes, and the eſtabliſhment of unrivalled renown.

Neither Mr. Fox nor any of his friends had attempted to tarniſh the conduct of the navy; but it could not be blended with that of the military expeditions. For Lord Spencer he had conſiderable reſpect, though ſome parts of his adminiſtration were not free from blame; but Mr. Dundas had attempted to incorporate the two ſervices, and was ready to take his ſhare in the blame of the Admiralty, generouſly commuting the glories of his own department for their miſcarriages. Every preſumption was in favour of the Admiralty, every proof againſt him. If all his expeditions had been marked with diſcomfiture and diſgrace; if the failure of ſome was aggravated by circumſtances too painful to touch upon; if ſuch armies, poſſeſſing indiſputable courage, had produced only ſuch effects; the reſult muſt be infallible; it was only neceſſary to name the enterprizes, and the information, the ſkill, the vigour, and the ability of thoſe who planned them, were as plain as demonſtration could make them. No man would ever inquire about the wiſdom that projected the expeditions to Quiberon, to Flanders, to St. Domingo, to Holland, to Ferrol, and to Cadiz; theſe things were paſt all curioſity.

Mr. Fox then obſerved, that Mr. Dundas, with a preciſion abſolutely ludicrous, and a gravity of face, which, unleſs he were quite certain of his audience, would excite a ſuſpicion that he was mocking the Houſe, had given the dates, to an hour, of the days on which

which his expeditions failed, when they landed, retreated, or capitulated: ſometimes it was the wind, ſometimes the rain, ſometimes the froſt, the ſnow, the cold, the heat; now it was too early, and then it was too late: and to this notable narrative the Houſe liſtened without once ſaying, "Tell us of a ſingle military enterprize in which you have ſucceeded? and if you cannot, give us ſome better reaſons than your own word to believe that you are blameleſs? Let us inquire into the facts, and judge for ourſelves." The Hon. Gentleman, with this maſs of defeats before his eyes, had the hardihood to talk of the ſucceſs of this war; and thought the enumeration of iſlands and ſettlements, and a ſchedule of captured ſhips and frigates, would blind the eyes, and confound the underſtandings of men, ſo as to divert them from the only proper conſideration, the only rational teſt of comparative ſucceſs, namely, the relative ſituation of the two countries in point of power. This was the true criterion of ſucceſs, even without recurring to all the former motives to this war; reſtoring monarchy, and putting down atheiſm and jacobiniſm, and God knows what.

In this manner Mr. Fox animadverted on the defence which had been made of the expedition to Holland; the intended co-operation with Auſtria, which was prevented becauſe the troops who were fit to conquer Holland in Auguſt, could not in five months afterward be employed in the field, unleſs two months more were allowed to drill them. But was this co-operation deſired by Auſtria? No; the co-operation of twenty thouſand Engliſhmen was ſo ſlighted by our allies, that they deprecated their aid, reſolved to touch nothing belonging to us but our guineas. On the ſtatement reſpecting the ſeverity of the winter, Mr. Fox exclaimed, "never ſure did any analyzer of atmoſpheres conceive that the very weather which, in England, prevented ſoldiers from peeping out of their quarters, enabled France to collect, and to create, from raw recruits a perfect army, and to carry this army, ſo created, over thoſe mighty barriers, the paſſage of which was one of the wonders of the ancient, and one of the doubts of the modern world. It was in that very weather, at the remembrance of which the Hon. Gentleman ſhivers, that Bonaparte, but not until he had almoſt proſtrated himſelf in his ſolicitations for peace, before the infatuated rulers of the unhappy nations at war with France; then it was, even in that weather, that this extraordinary man aſſembled and animated the youth of France. He found good weather for field days, and had time enough ſo to drill and diſcipline his new raiſed corps, as to break to pieces the veteran legions of Auſtria, and in one day to recover all the conqueſts of two ſucceſsful campaigns.

"I defy imbecility itſelf," he proceeded "to ſtring together a more motley pack of excuſes than the Hon. Gentleman has laid before the Houſe this night. Amſterdam had been taken if Sir Ralph Abercromby had landed on the 16th inſtead of the 27th of Auguſt. Sir Charles Stuart's diſlike to the Ruſſians protracted Sir Ralph's

Ralph's departure for the Mediterranean. Ten thouſand Iriſh militia were to come to England, and ten thouſand Engliſh to go to Ireland; ſome of the troops wanted their new coats; ſome their arms. One expedition ſailed on the 8th of April, took ſhelter on the 13th, and reſailed on the 24th. It was deſigned to aſſiſt the Auſtrians, but the Auſtrians would not be aſſiſted. There was no plan or concert between the two courts. An account current with the ſeven years war; took more ſhips than Lord Chatham, and more iſlands. St. Domingo was unhealthy, and rather expenſive; but it was a good market. This war has opened worlds of new markets. Returns, even to a man, of the new raiſed corps at Gibraltar, Minorca, Malta, Portugal; and the total of your force now and in 1797, with a moſt comfortable exactneſs. The Hiſtory of England from 1755 to 1762; from Severndroog to the Havannah. In a word, ſuch a ſeries of inſulting puerilities as no Houſe of Parliament was ever before entertained with under the name of defence."

Noticing next the ſtatement of Mr. Pitt reſpecting finance, he obſerved, that from ſuch a population as that of Great Britain, forty millions were annually wrung, and for poor rates ten millions more, being double the produce of the whole rental of the country, or nearly the amount of its whole income, if the income tax was taken as a criterion. As to the ſinking fund, its effects, highly beneficial as they were, muſt depend upon the revenue keeping its level. If the revenue ſhould fail, the charm of the ſinking fund would vaniſh into nothing. Such was the true picture of our financial condition as a ſtate, and the condition of the people was ſtrictly anſwerable to it. One ſixth of all the ſouls in England was ſupported by charity; and the plight of a great proportion of thoſe who contributed to their maintenance was but little better than that of the paupers, whom they ſuccoured. How the Hon. Gentleman had nerves to ſuſtain him in venturing to talk of the happineſs of this country would be incomprehenſible, if long experience had not convinced the Houſe of the fondneſs with which he could ſurvey every act of his own. The repetition of his deluſions deluded even himſelf. He had indulged ſo much in theſe fallacious and fatal reveries, that he appeared to have become his own bubble, and almoſt to miſtake for realities the phantaſms of his bewildered wits.

Having deſcribed theſe as the internal, Mr. Fox proceeded to the external effects of the war; we had deſtroyed the commerce of France at the expence of three hundred millions of debt; iſlands were a bootleſs capture, ſince we muſt reſtore them to obtain peace; and we had laid the Houſe of Auſtria proſtrate at the feet of France. "Have you reſtored monarchy?" he ſaid, "its very hopes are entombed for ever. Have you deſtroyed jacobiniſm, as you call it? Your reſiſtance has made it ſtronger than ever. Have you reduced the power of France? France is aggrandized beyond the wildeſt dreams of former ambition. Have you driven her within her ancient frontiers? She has enlarged herſelf to the Rhine, and

to the Alps; and added five millions to her population in the centre of Europe. You had all the great States of Europe for your allies againſt France. What is become of them? All that you have not ruined are your determined enemies. Where are the neutral powers? Every one of them leagued with this very France for your deſtruction. Could all this be chance? No; it is the true ſucceſſion of effect to cauſe. It is the legitimate iſſue of your own ſyſtem. You began in fooliſhneſs, and you end in miſchief. Tell me one ſingle object of the war that you have obtained? Tell me one evil that you have not brought upon your country?"

Mr. Fox then noticed the complaints of Mr. Dundas and Mr. Pitt of the oppoſition they had encountered, and the attempt to decry the party adverſe to them for maintaining exploded opinions, when ſeven eights of the Houſe and nine tenths of the people were in their favour. Againſt ſuch doctrines he cited the practice of Lord Chatham, and of Mr. Pitt himſelf, in the early part of his life. The Houſe by going into the propoſed inquiry might diſgrace its former votes, but would ſave the country; it ſhould aſſume for a model the parliament of 1782, which terminated the American war.

On the change of adminiſtration Mr. Fox followed Mr. Pitt in praiſing Lord St. Vincent, but allowed Mr. Addington no further credit than belonged to him as Speaker; and of Lord Hawkeſbury he ſaid, that had the country been polled, a man could not have been leſs happily ſelected for the particular department he occupied. Mr. Fox here introduced many obſervations on the Catholic queſtion; the King's reign, he affirmed, was marked by no conceſſions which the blameleſs conduct of the Catholics was not calculated to exact from the moſt unwilling government in the world. To the Catholics nothing was given while they were deprived of a right to ſit in the Houſe of Commons. Political rights ought to be common to all the King's ſubjects, and a ſyſtem of proſcription, on account of theological differences, would for ever be found not more unjuſt and abſurd than pernicious. If this principle needed illuſtration, Ireland afforded it beyond the power of controverſy. Divided by the government, it preſented a conſtant temptation to the enemy. Rebellion was the fruit of bad policy, and invaſion was encouraged by diſunion. The pretence of Mr. Pitt, who had refuſed conceſſion to the Catholics ſeveral years ago, when it would have produced tranquillity, that he was now a martyr to thoſe principles, was abſurd; as was his pretence of ſome ſecret means to counterbalance the danger to which the benefits intended for them would expoſe the Church and State; and the ſituation of the King, and the Houſe, on this ſubject was quite unexampled. The change of miniſtry was not for the worſe upon the whole, for worſe could not be, but no effectual benefit could be expected from men whoſe fundamental principle was adherence to the conduct of their predeceſſors; and whoſe only novelty, or deviation from that ſyſtem, conſiſted in their repug-

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nance to the only meaſure, of thoſe whom they ſucceeded, that had any pretenſion to good policy.

In treating on the probabilities of peace, Mr. Fox made a warm eulogy on the character of Bonaparte, both military and political, terming his letter to the King frank, but reſpectful, and aſcribing to the ever notable reply of Lord Grenville to Talleyrand, the battles of Marengo and Hohenlinden. He deſcribed the progreſs of events during the laſt year as uniformly mortifying and diſgraceful to Great Britain, and obſerved that the head of the Houſe of Auſtria, owing his crown to the forbearance, magnanimity, and clemency of that perſon with whom our own miniſters had ſaid it would be atrocious and fooliſh to negotiate, had ſigned a ſeparate peace at Luneville, in which this country was not ſo much as named. All this paſſed without a murmur; and the country, with a ſottiſh ſtupidity, ſaw that, like every other opportunity for reſtoring peace, go by in ſilence and ſtupor.

After ſome more obſervations on the attempts to prevent inquiry, and the probability that, notwithſtanding Mr. Pitt's aſſertions, the change of miniſtry was a mere juggle; Mr. Fox made ſome obſervations on his own abſence from parliament; if he ſaw reaſonable grounds for thinking that his regular appearance could be really beneficial to the public, the public ſhould have that benefit: but if the diviſion of the night ſhould manifeſt, notwithſtanding the circumſtances of the country, both in matters domeſtic and foreign, the ſame determined confidence in the executive government, and in that ſyſtem which had produced thoſe effects, whether adminiſtered by its firſt leaders, or by their followers, raiſed from ſecondary into ſuperior offices; if that ſhould be the obvious inference and fair concluſion from the votes of the night; then, ſenſible of the perfect inutility of his exertions, he ſhould certainly feel himſelf juſtified in exerciſing his own diſcretion as to the degree of regularity with which he ſhould attend the Houſe.

Mr. Addington ſucceeded Mr. Fox, and having noticed the diverſity in that Gentleman's opinions at various periods with reſpect to confidence, ſtated how very far he was from deſiring to exchange the ſituation he had filled during twelve years, for that in which he was now placed, in obedience to the commands of his Majeſty. He defended the claims of Great Britain with reſpect to the northern powers, adding, that he conſidered with ſatisfaction, that while he was ſtruggling for the rights of his own country, he was alſo promoting thoſe of all Europe. On the Catholic queſtion, he deprecated whatever might have the appearance of intolerance and proſcription. No reſtraint ought to be impoſed on thoſe who diſſented from the eſtabliſhed church, but what was deemed abſolutely neceſſary for its ſecurity and ſtability; and he anxiouſly hoped that Diſſenters of all deſcriptions would feel aſſured, that they were regarded in no other light by the government than as truly valuable and reſpectable members of the community. On the ſubject of peace and war it had been aſked by the Hon. Gentleman who ſpoke laſt, how it was poſſible that the reſtoration

reſtoration of peace could be expected from thoſe who had rejoiced at the failure of the negotiation at Liſle? He would only ſay, that he had never expreſſed any ſuch ſentiment; and he could truly aver he had never entertained it. To the Houſe, however, he thought it incumbent on him to declare, that it was the diſpoſition and determination of his Majeſty's ſervants to take ſuch ſteps as appeared to them beſt calculated for the reſtoration of peace: that no conſideration ariſing from the form of government in France would, on their part, obſtruct negotiation; and that, if there was a correſponding diſpoſition on the part of the enemy, the grand object to which the hopes and efforts of government would be directed, would, he truſted, be happily accompliſhed. The arrangement would be of terms, and of terms only; and without calling in queſtion the ſincerity of the French government, he was ſure he ſhould meet the ſentiments of the Houſe in ſtating, that it would juſtly be diſcredited by the advancement of any claims that might be inconſiſtent with the ſecurity and honour of this country. For his colleagues and himſelf he aſked for no confidence, but what was ſtrictly conſtitutional; he would occupy no party ground, but throw himſelf entirely on that Houſe, and the country.

After a reply from Mr. Grey, in which he declared himſelf happy to find the tone of the late adminiſtration changed to ſentiments of more becoming moderation, the Houſe divided, and his motion was rejected by a majority of 186; ayes 105, noes 291.

CHAP.

CHAP. VII.

Debates on Supply. Naval and Military Eſtimates. Proceedings in the Committee of Ways and Means. Amount of Expences for the Year. Terms of the Loan. New Taxes; Debates on ſeveral of them; alterations found neceſſary. Vote of Credit. Alterations in the collection of ſome old Taxes. Statements on Finance by Mr. Tierney and Mr. Addington, which introduce a converſation on Peace. Sentiments of Mr. Windham on that ſubject. Finance of Ireland. Grants for charitable purpoſes in that Country; other regulations reſpecting Ireland; relief of Iriſh Members from local Taxes; regulations reſpecting Peers influencing Elections; reſpecting the Trial of controverted Elections in Ireland; reſpecting private Bills. Excluſion of Placemen in Ireland from ſitting in the Houſe of Commons. Alteration propoſed in the Office of Maſter of the Rolls in Ireland; Debates on this Bill, which paſſes. Attempt to amend the practice in the Iriſh Courts of Common Law. Bill for the more ſpeedy recovery of Debts due to the Crown. Regulation for the better promulgation of Statutes. Meaſures reſpecting Scarcity. Repeal of the Brown Bread Act; other laws on the manufacture of Bread. Encouragement for the growth of Potatoes. Meaſures for relief of Ireland. Motion of Lord Suffolk reſpecting Country Bank Notes. Of Lord Warwick on Monopoly. Motion of Lord Folkſtone in the Houſe of Commons for a Bill to regulate the Buſineſs of Corn-factors. Efforts toward a general Incloſure. Bill for exempting poor Houſeholders from Payment of Rates, loſt. Another for regulating Appeals, carried. Act for relief of Inſolvent Debtors; other Meaſures relative to Impriſonment. Motions reſpecting the Houſe of Correction in Cold Bath Fields.

Feb. 16. WHEN it was moved, that the Houſe of Commons ſhould, as uſual, reſolve itſelf into a Committee of Supply, the propoſition was oppoſed on account of the large ſums which were likely to be required, and becauſe the office of Chancellor of the Exchequer was vacant. It was alleged that Mr. Pitt could no longer be conſidered as filling that poſt, and his ſucceſſor not being formally appointed, that reſponſibility in a miniſter to which alone the country could look as a check on improper or unconſtitutional meaſures, could not, in the preſent ſtate of things, be afforded. Theſe remarks, inforced with great ability, were encountered by ſtatements of the preſſing neceſſity that the army, navy, and other ſervices of government ſhould be adequately ſupplied; and the argument on reſponſibility was founded on miſapprehenſion, ſince, by whomſoever the ſupplies might be raiſed, reſponſibility muſt of neceſſity attach on thoſe by whom they were expended. A long converſation enſued, in which the character of adminiſtration was principally treated on, and according to the influence of opinion, thoſe who retired, and their intended ſucceſſors were defended, extolled, or loaded with obloquy. At length

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the queſtion was put, and agreed to without a diviſion.

Lord Arden required for the naval ſervice, in the enſuing ten months, 135,000 men, including 30,000 marines, being 15,000 more than were employed in the preceding year; and they were voted almoſt without obſervation.

In moving the army eſtimates Mr. Windham obſerved, the Committee would perceive in them this year many things which had not in former times been included, particularly the ſtatements reſpecting the army in Ireland, which uſed to be ſeparate, but which was now introduced in conſequence of the union. The number of regular forces, cavalry and infantry, amounted to 193,187 men. The number of militia, both Britiſh and Iriſh, was 78,046; of fencibles, both Britiſh and Iriſh, 31,415; ſo that the whole force in the empire, in theſe three deſcriptions of troops, excluſive of the volunteer corps, amounted to 302,648 men. The expence of maintaining this force would be 12,940,889l. In diſtinguiſhing between the expence of the two crowns it would ſtand thus: for Great Britain 9,617,033l. for Ireland 3,323,856l. The eſtimates for the preſent exceeded thoſe of the laſt year by 762,459l.; but of this ſum no leſs than 656,388l. was incurred in conſequence of an augmentation which had been made in the army by adding two companies to each battalion, and by increaſing the cavalry. The real difference, therefore, between the eſtimates of this and of laſt year was not much more than 100,000l. With reſpect to the Iriſh eſtimates, he could not compare them from his own knowledge, but he underſtood the difference was not conſiderable. He alſo explained ſeveral circumſtances relating to the different cauſes of expenditure in various branches of the ſervices, and the means which had been adopted to place the Iriſh on the ſame footing with the Engliſh ſoldiery. This ſtatement produced ſome obſervations, in which the projects reſpecting the army, and the employment of it in general, were conſidered, but in the end the reſolutions propoſed were agreed to without a diviſion; and 58,887 men, including 5,797 invalids, were voted for Great Britain, Jerſey, Guernſey, and Alderney; and 17,232 men, including 661 invalids, for Ireland. Other reſolutions provided for the militia and fencible corps, and for the ordnance land ſervice.

Theſe reſolutions having been ſanctioned by the Houſe, and a Committee of Ways and Means being formed, in the accuſtomed manner, Mr. Pitt addreſſed the Chairman, propoſing firſt to call his attention to that part of the eſtimates for the preſent year, which, under the arrangements made at the union, were to be jointly borne by Great Britain and Ireland, deſcribing firſt the charges to be incurred, and then the means by which he propoſed to defray them. He ſtated ſpecifically the ſums required for the navy, which, in conſequence of a great augmentation in that force, exceeded by 2,200,000l. the ſupply allotted to it laſt year; the army, in which department was included, according to the practice of the preceding year, a vote of 2,500,000l. Feb. 18.

for extraordinaries; the ordnance and miſcellaneous ſervices, in which were included, the plantations, the allowances to French refugee clergy, and many other ſources of expenditure. In the navy eſtimate, no peculiar ſhare was borne by Ireland; but in the three others, ſeparate ſums were apportioned to that branch of the united kingdom, and there was a ſum required, under the name of Iriſh permanent grants, for the accompliſhment of certain patriotic undertakings in that country. The whole ſupplies, as recapitulated by Mr. Pitt, were,

			£.
Navy			15,800,000
Army	England 9,617,000	12,117,000	15,902,000
	D°. extraordinaries 2,500,000		
	Ireland	3,785,000	
Ordnance	England	1,639,000	1,938,000
	Ireland	299,000	
Miſcellaneous	England	550,000	757,000
	Ireland	207,000	
Vote of Credit	England	500,000	800,000
	Ireland	300,000	
Iriſh permanent grants			390,462
		Total £.	35,587,462

Mr. Pitt had ſtated the expences to be borne by the two countries, under ſeparate heads, becauſe by the Act of Union, Ireland was to pay two ſeventeenths only of the whole, and Great Britain the remaining fifteen. The permanent charge in this country for the Civil Liſt, and other demands on the Conſolidated Fund, not relating to the public debt, muſt however be allotted in due proportion; they amounted to 1,170,000l. two ſeventeenths of which falling on Ireland, and being added to her ſhare of the ſum before mentioned, would make the whole burthen on that country 4,324,000l. Whatever elſe remained, except the national debt of Ireland, was to be provided for by Great Britain.

The demands which ought ſeparately to be met by England, were thoſe which aroſe from cauſes exiſting before the 1ſt of January, 1801. As the firſt of theſe, Mr. Pitt mentioned the effects produced by the late unfavourable ſeaſons, which had operated on ſeveral branches of the public revenue, and in which defalcation, he did not think it right, according to a fair and liberal conſtruction of the articles of union, that Ireland ſhould bear any ſhare. Several other deficiencies were mentioned, reſting excluſively on England, of which the general abſtract was,

To make good the deficiency of the income tax for laſt year	£. 1,000,000
Diſcount upon the loan and lottery	200,000
Deficiency of malt duties of 1799	400,000

To

To pay off Exchequer bills iſſued on the credit of the aſſeſſed taxes of 1798, the imports and exports, and the income duties of 1799 -	1,350,000
Intereſt of the Exchequer bills -	460,000
For the ſinking fund	200,000
To pay off Exchequer bills iſſued on the conſolidated fund	3,000,000
£.	6,610,000

The whole charge on the two countries then, would amount to 42,197,000l. of which Great Britain would have to pay, in round numbers, 37,870,000l. and Ireland the ſum already mentioned, 4,324,000l.

As ways and means for raiſing this ſum, Mr. Pitt ſtated firſt the expected produce of the uſual taxes, and ſome other reſources, as follows:

	£.
Sugar, malt, and tobacco	2,750,000
Lottery - -	300,000
Income duty, deducting the intereſt with which it ſtands charged - -	4,260,000
Duty upon exports and imports - -	1,250,000
Surplus of the conſolidated fund -	3,300,000
To be provided by Ireland - -	4,324,000
Sum not iſſued for ſubſidies - -	500,000
Surplus of Grants -	60,000
£.	16,744,000

Twenty-five millions and a half would then remain to be raiſed by loan, and the terms on which this contract was concluded, Mr. Pitt conſidered as a ſtriking proof of the confidence of the country in government, notwithſtanding the pains that had been taken to encourage, or rather inſtil into the public mind feelings of alarm. There was a rivalſhip between two great parties, which ſhould have the loan; and it was taken without premium or bonus, except the diſcount of 3l. 12s. per cent. on prompt payment, which, as they had received ſtock at a higher than the market-price, did not, on the whole, give a profit exceeding 2 per cent.

Mr. Pitt was not ſufficiently ſanguine to hope, that in the ninth year of a war ſo expenſive, new taxes to pay the intereſt of ſo large a loan, could be impoſed without being felt ſeverely, and meeting conſiderable objections; but he hoped they would not be found likely to interfere with the public proſperity, nor bear hard on the lower claſs of the community, whoſe intereſts were always watched over with tender concern by the Houſe, and never more than at the preſent period.

The objects intended to be taxed were then enumerated: the firſt was tea, which Mr. Pitt obſerved had twice, ſince the paſſing of the Commutation Act, furniſhed a reſource to government, without affording an encouragement to ſmuggling. When the Commutation Act paſſed, the importation of tea was only 6,000,000 pounds; it had now increaſed to 22,000,000; he did not mean ſo to place the duty as to increaſe the price of the kinds uſed by the lower orders of the

community, but to put on the teas ſold at the Company's ſales for more than two ſhillings and ſixpence per pound, an additional duty of 10 per cent.

Paper was to be ſubjected to a new duty and regulation, but exceptions were to be made in favour of thoſe uſed for hangings, exported, glazed, and ſome other articles; and a compenſation by way of diſcount was to be allowed on newſpapers, ſo as not to interfere with the proſperity of thoſe compilations, to which Mr. Pitt paid high compliments.

On printed cottons, ſugar, timber, pepper, raiſins, and lead, additional duties were propoſed, the particulars of which it would be uſeleſs here to detail.

On horſes in general a new duty was to be laid; thoſe uſed for pleaſure, where only one was kept, being charged with ten ſhillings; where more than one, twenty ſhillings each; and horſes for huſbandry, with four ſhillings each.

The ſtamp duties on bills, notes, ſea policies, and deeds, were to be augmented, and the rates of poſtage of letters to be raiſed in moderate degrees.

The ſum required as intereſt of the loan was 1,785,000; the taxes propoſed were calculated to produce,

Tea	300,000
Paper	132,000
Printed cotton	154,000
Sugar	166,000
Pepper	119,000
Stamps	350,000
Horſes	306,000
Poſt-office	150,000
Timber	95,000
Raiſins	10,000
Lead	12,000
	£.1,794,000

Having completed this part of his taſk, Mr. Pitt proceeded to ſhew why no greater ſum towards the annual expences could be raiſed within the current year, than had been within the laſt. He acknowledged with regret, that his ſanguine hopes, with reſpect to the income tax, had been diſappointed, and his calculations erroneous. He did not wiſh to load that tax beyond its preſent burthen, and rejoiced in the relief which by it, and by the redemption of the land-tax, had been gained for the funds; and he made ſeveral obſervations on the increaſing proſperity of the country, and the augmentation of imports and exports, affirming that the laſt year might be called the era of our proſperity, as well as our trial. He obſerved, that by the ſcrupulous adherence of government to the ſyſtem of the ſinking fund, 52,000,000l. of the capital of our debt had been redeemed, and more than half the additional burthens under which the country laboured in the courſe of this unexampled war, were occaſioned, not by ſupporting ourſelves, under engagements entered into by ourſelves, but in paying debts contracted by our anceſtors.

On the report of the reſolutions moved by Mr. Pitt in the Committee being brought up, ſome obſervations were made in contradiction to his ſtatement of the general proſperity of the country, and on the miſery of the poor, the increaſe of poor-rates in various parts of the kingdom, and the diſtreſſes of manufacturers, occaſioned by the diſpute with Ruſſia; the reſolutions all paſſed without a diviſion, but ſeveral of the propoſed taxes were afterward much altered,

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altered, and other meaſures of finance reſorted to in the courſe of the Seſſions.

The bill for laying a duty on paper occaſioned no debate, except in ſo far as the intereſt of proprietors of newſpapers was concerned. Mr. Roſe, obſerving that the tax would materially affect them, and that they were prohibited by Act of Parliament from raiſing their prices beyond ſixpence, moved to allow them an additional diſcount of 4l. 10s. per cent. on their ſtamps, as a compenſation, which Mr. Sheridan endeavoured to increaſe to 8 per cent. but without ſucceſs.

On the addition to the poſtage of letters, Mr. Allardyce, member for Glaſgow, objected to the extenſion of duty in proportion to the diſtance of delivery from the Poſt-office. He contended, that if the poſtage was intended as a tax on the ſubject, it ſhould be borne by all alike, without reference to the place of their reſidence; and therefore, after making allowance for the expences of the Poſt-office, a further impoſition, to what amount Parliament might think fit, might be laid on every letter, but it ſhould equally affect thoſe who reſided at Barnet and at Inverneſs. To theſe obſervations Mr. Pitt anſwered, the premiſes would not warrant the concluſion which Mr. Allardyce endeavoured to eſtabliſh; that perſons reſident at the greateſt diſtances ought to be rated lower than at preſent; for if the benefits of a ſpeedy communication with diſtant parts were admitted, and a fair remuneration allowed for the facility of that correſpondence, which diſtance would greatly interrupt, without the convenience of the eſtabliſhment; and as all letters to Scotland, with one exception, muſt paſs through the Poſt-office at Edinburgh, thoſe parts neareſt to England paid more in proportion than thoſe which were ſent to a greater diſtance. It was alſo explained, that the increaſe on letters to Glaſgow was made in conſequence of an application from the inhabitants, who wiſhed to receive them by a leſs circuitous route than the Poſt-office at Edinburgh. Mr. Jones, obſerving that paper was become extremely coarſe, thick, and heavy, in conſequence of vaſt quantities of rags being uſed to dreſs the wounds of thoſe who were engaged, up and down Europe, in this horrid war, moved that the franks of Members of Parliament ſhould carry an ounce and a half inſtead of an ounce, and perſiſted in dividing the Houſe on this propoſition, which was rejected by 93 againſt 21.

The tax on horſes produced various debates, the reſult of which was, that farmers, who made their livelihood by farms, for which they did not pay a greater rent than 20l. a year, and whoſe horſes did not eat oats or corn, were to pay only two ſhillings per annum for each; many ineffectual efforts were made to extend this exemption to the rent of 50l.; and on the repreſentation of the commiſſioners, horſes uſed in hackney coaches were freed from additional impoſitions. A ſeparate act was alſo made for exempting the poorer clergy from the payment of tax, if they kept but one horſe.

At an advanced period of the ſeſſion, Mr. Addington ſtated to the Houſe, that from the repreſentations of per- May 26.

ſons beſt qualified to judge of the meaſures, he had been induced to abandon the tax propoſed by his predeceſſor, on printed calicoes, and in part that on pepper. Their produce was eſtimated at 232,000l. and to make good that deficiency, he propoſed additional impoſts, the amount of which he calculated as follows:

Additional tax on probates of wills, where the property left amounted to 600l. or upwards, increaſing gradually as far as property of 100,000l.	120,000
Additional duties on deeds, of two ſhillings, in addition to three ſhillings impoſed in the preſent ſeſſions	62,000
Additional duty on ale licences, of ten ſhillings and ſixpence	32,000
Sixpence per pack additional on cards, and two ſhillings and ſixpence per pair on dice, with ſome regulations to prevent the evaſion of thoſe duties -	20,000
£.	234,000

Theſe alterations were agreed to without objection, as were ſome other reſolutions moved by the new miniſter, for making good deficiencies in other parts of the revenue voted, and propoſing to raiſe an adequate ſupply, by duties on playing cards imported from foreign countries, and from Ireland.

June 8. Beſides the ſums already mentioned, a vote of credit was paſſed, in purſuance of a royal meſſage, enabling his Majeſty to iſſue 2,000,000l. to defray extraordinary expences, and to take ſuch meaſures as the exigency of affairs might require.

Such were the principal ways and means reſorted to for raiſing the ſupplies expreſsly required for the current year, but other departments of finance were objects of beneficial attention. The duties on hair-powder certificates, and armorial bearings, were transferred from the Stamp-office to the Tax office, by which the charge of collection was greatly diminiſhed, and the public relieved from the vexations of common informers; a committee was appointed to inquire into the laws relative to the duty on ſalt, and as great abuſes had prevailed under pretence of importing ſculptured marble, which had been hitherto free from duty, they were remedied by charging that article with three-pence per pound weight.

Several diſcuſſions, tending to elucidate the ſtate of the finances, alſo took place in the courſe of the Seſſion, particularly on a ſeries of reſolutions on that ſubject moved by Mr. Tierney, and encountered by others, not greatly differing, propoſed by the new miniſter. Their ſtatements introduced many obſervations, particularly on the effects of the income and other taxes, and on the probabilities of relieving the country by a treaty of peace. On this latter ſubject, ſome members of oppoſition having expreſſed expectations that large ceſſions of conqueſts muſt be made by Great Britain, Mr. Windham offered ſome obſervations in the way of caution againſt notions which, he

June.

ſaid,

ſaid, were not only expreſſed in the Houſe, but induſtriouſly propagated elſewhere. If conceſſions were to be made on our part, were none to be expected from the enemy? He did not underſtand that ſort of language, by which it was taken for granted that countries were to meaſure their treaties by the way in which their poſſeſſions had been obtained. He knew of no principles to direct the demands on a country in making peace, but thoſe of prudence, and the probability of what it was likely to obtain. Why ſhould the immenſe acceſſion of French power become a reaſon for augmenting that very power by freſh conceſſions on our part? The argument went to the very reverſe; and in proportion to the vaſt addition to the power and territories of France, this country was bound to endeavour to maintain a balance, by retaining every thing we could for ourſelves and our allies: ſome ſort of balance he conſidered abſolutely neceſſary for the ſafety of this country and of Europe againſt that over-grown power. He conſidered it of importance, that the ſentiments of the country on this point ſhould not be miſ-ſtated, more eſpecially, as great events might take place before Parliament was called together again.

The finances of Ireland were alſo the occaſion of many diſcuſſions. As a preparatory meaſure, and for the information of members, numerous papers were laid on the table of the Houſe of Commons, ſhewing the income, the expenditure, trade, debts, arrears, balances in the hands of public accountants, and many other particulars; ſo that the whole financial affairs of Ireland might appear before the Houſe, like thoſe of England. Feb. 21.

A Committee of Supply being formed in the ſame manner as for England, the continuance of the annual duties was voted without any objection, except what aroſe from the laudable caution of an Iriſh member, in deſiring that every poſſible publicity ſhould be given to the burthens impoſed on his country. Mar. 12.

In a ſubſequent committee, Mr. Corry, the Chancellor of the Exchequer for Ireland, moved reſolutions for granting, or rather, on account of the circumſtances of the times, ſomewhat increaſing, the donations which had been made in the Iriſh Parliament for uſeful and charitable purpoſes. Theſe donations were as follows: Mar. 30.

	Engliſh.				Iriſh.		
Proteſtant Charity Schools -	£. 18,213	4	7	being	19,731	0	0
For the Foundling Hoſpital - -	13,846	3	1	——	15,000	0	0
Marine Society - - -	1,846	3	1	——	2,000	0	0
Hibernian Society for Soldiers' Children - - -	3,655	7	9	——	3,960	0	0
Weſtmoreland Lock Hoſpital	6,183	13	10	——	6,699	0	0
Roman Catholic Seminary -	7,384	12	4	——	8,000	0	0
Society for diſcountenancing Vice - - - - -	276	18	6	——	300	0	0

	English.				Iriſh.		
Female Orphan Houſe - - £.	461	10	9	being	500	0	0
Houſe of Induſtry - -	15,594	9	3	——	16,894	0	0
Pratique Dublin Port - -	966	18	7½	——	1,047	10	0
Apprehending Offenders -	2,307	13	10	——	2,500	0	0
Civil Buildings - - -	29,538	9	3	——	32,000	0	0
Criminal Proſecutions - -	23,076	18	6	——	25,000	0	0
Printing the Statutes of Ireland	3,477	2	4	——	3,766	17	6
Printing Gazette - -	6,485	10	9	——	7,026	0	0
Treaſury Incidents - -	1,846	3	1	——	2,000	0	0
For working the Wicklow Gold Mines - - - - -	923	1	6	——	1,000	0	0
For the Battle of Axe Guards -	683	1	6	——	740	0	0
For Herald's new Cloathing -	1,002	9	3	——	1,086	0	0
Offices for Records - -	5,538	9	3	——	6,000	0	0
For Stationary, &c. for Dublin Caſtle and the Public Offices	18,166	11	10	——	19,680	9	6
To the Accountant General -	313	16	11	——	340	0	0
To the Deputy Accountant General - - - - -	221	10	9	——	240	0	0
To Paymaſter of Corn Bounties	738	9	3	——	800	0	0
To the Examination of Corn Bounties - - - - -	184	12	4	——	200	0	0
To the Inſpector General of Imports and Exports - -	184	12	4	——	200	0	0
To the firſt Clerk to Ditto -	129	4	7	——	140	0	0
To the examination of Exciſe	129	4	7	——	140	0	0
The Linen Bounties - -	19,938	9	3	——	21,600	0	0
Firſt Fruits - - -	4,615	7	8	——	5,000	0	0
Dublin Society - - -	5,076	18	6	——	5,500	0	0
Paving - - - -	9,230	15	5	——	10,000	0	0
Wide Streets - - -	4,153	16	11	——	4,500	0	0
To theſe were afterwards added,							
For the Farming Society -	1,846	3	1	——	2,000	0	0
To the Dublin Society, towards completing the additional Buildings in Hawkins-ſtreet, Dublin, and for the Botanic Gardens at Glaſnevin -	4,153	16	11	——	4,500	0	0
£.	212,391	11	4½	£.	230090	17	0

The other affairs of Finance were not ſo debated as to require circumſtantial detail; the trade in ſpirits and hops was regulated by ſuch duties as would put the two countries, as much as poſſible, on a level, and the principal meaſure for raiſing the intereſt on the loan for

for that part of the kingdom, was a ſlight augmentation of the ſtamp-duties. With a view alſo of protecting property in each country from injury, and preventing every kind of miſunderſtanding, a law was framed for ſecuring the copies and copy right of printed books to the authors and their aſſigns, the chief purpoſe of which was to prevent the practice which prevailed before the union, of reprinting in Ireland, every work which appeared in England, by which means the benefits of exportation were intirely taken away from thoſe who, on every ground of juſtice, ought to have poſſeſſed them.

May 1. While the finance of Ireland was under conſideration, a bill was moved for by Mr. Addington, for relieving the Members of Parliament, repreſenting that part of the United Kingdom from a preſſure of taxation, which might be conſidered unjuſt. Several taxes, payable in England, were not ſo in Ireland. Parliament ought to exempt the inhabitants of the one country from local taxes in the other, unleſs their reſidence was optional. From the operation of indirect taxes, which were included in the price of the article purchaſed or conſumed, they could not, in the nature of things, be exempt, but from all aſſeſſed taxes, as thoſe on horſes, ſervants, carriages, hair-powder, armorial bearings, and ſome others, but above all, the income tax, Iriſh Members of Parliament ought to be indemnified, if their reſidence in England was only during the ſitting of Parliament, and for twenty days afterward. Mr. Addington alſo propoſed, as matter of juſtice and equity, to protect them againſt the charges and inconveniences of having articles they brought with them, as books, plate, and carriages, made liable to duties on landing. This propoſition being cordially aſſented to, both in the Houſe, and in a Committee, a Bill was brought in by Mr. Abbot, for carrying it into effect. It was, however, diſcovered, that the indulgences in reſpect to plate, books, carriages, and ſome other things, were expreſsly repugnant to the Act of Union, and the Bill was withdrawn for the purpoſe of framing another, which ſhould not be open to theſe objections.

June 16. In the debates on the corrected Bill, an objection was taken to the principle, as tending to leſſen that proper connexion betwixt the repreſentative and his conſtituents, which ought ever to be cultivated, and it was conſidered dangerous to put Iriſh Members on ſuch a footing as would enable them to vote for many taxes to be impoſed on this country without any ſort of connexion or ſympathy. It was anſwered, that thoſe to whom the bill applied, had the great bulk of their property in Ireland, and, independent of the diſcharge of a public duty, would be diſpoſed to reſide in that country. If, under ſuch circumſtances, they came here, and in doing ſo, were ſubjected to taxes from which otherwiſe they would have been free, they had the faireſt and moſt incontrovertible claims to relief. The bill paſſed.

Some other meaſures, not immediately connected with finance, were alſo deviſed for the relief and accommodation of Ireland. At the

Feb. 3. the beginning of the ſeſſion, the ſpeaker propoſed to extend to that country the uſual ſtanding order, that it is a breach of privilege for any peer of Parliament, or Lord Lieutenant of a county, to interfere in the election of members to ſerve in parliament. It was ſuggeſted, that in Ireland, there are no Lord Lieutenants of counties but governors; and it appeared that the office of theſe perſons was different from that to which it was conſidered parallel in England, inaſmuch as they had no military authority. On a conſideration of the old reſolution, ſome members were inclined to aboliſh it altogether, except as to peers; but others conſidered its antiquity, for it had been eſtabliſhed a century, as intitled to more reſpect, and all concurred in thinking that the private influence of a Lord Lieutenant was not meant to be affected by it, but only that which he might derive from his military command. This explanation was adopted, and the reſolution entered into declared it a high infringement of the liberties and priviſeges of the Commons, for any Lord of Parliament to concern himſelf in the election, or for any Lord Lieutenant of any county in that part of the United Kingdom called Great Britain, to avail himſelf of any authority derived from his commiſſion, to influence the election, of any member to ſerve for the Commons in parliament.

Feb. 9. A Committee alſo reported, that in caſes of controverted election, as to members already returned, or writs already directed, the petition muſt be preſented to the Houſe twenty-eight days after the writ ſhould be returned to the clerk of the crown in England. In future caſes, petitions muſt be preſented to the Houſe within fourteen days after ſuch return, or within the ſame period, lodged with the clerk of the crown in England, or in Ireland, and rules were eſtabliſhed for obliging the clerk of the crown in Ireland to forward the petition with due ſpeed. In conſequence of a further report of the ſame Committee, the Houſe reſolved, that no peer of Ireland, unleſs he were actually elected and ſerving as a member of the Houſe of Commons of the United Kingdom, had a right to vote at elections, and expreſsly not if he were elected one of the repreſentatives of the Iriſh peerage. Feb. 23.

Still, however, as the trial of controverted elections for Ireland, according to the uſual mode under the Grenville Act, would have been attended with enormous expence, it was conſidered neceſſary to frame a law for regulating the deciſion. The ſubject was introduced to the Houſe of Commons by Mr. Abbot, who ſtated, that by the fourth article of union with Ireland, controverted elections there, were to be decided like thoſe in this country; ſo that witneſſes muſt be brought over at an expence ruinous to the candidates, and the effect would be to put ſuch elections in the hands of the returning officers. The queſtion then was, whether Parliament could truſt the deciſion of ſuch caſes to any power reſident in Ireland? The privilege of deciding, the Houſe could not be expected to delegate; nor ſhould the claims be referred to the Judges Mar. 28.

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in Ireland, becauſe they would occupy too large a portion of time and attention. Another mode would be to leave the inveſtigation to be made in Ireland, reſerving the final deciſion to a Committee of the Houſe. The plan would be to leave the commencement of every proceeding on controverted elections to be by petition, which ſhould be referred, in the ordinary way, to a ballot; and when any of the parties intereſted ſhould pray the Committee to have the matter inveſtigated in Ireland, it ſhould be warrantable for the clerk of the crown to iſſue a commiſſion to certain perſons there, who muſt return to the Committee the evidence they ſhould obtain. The only difficulty was, how to diſcover an adequate, unexceptionable tribunal. He thought the Judges ſhould be freed from the tax, for the reaſons already given; the country gentlemen might be conſidered a ſort of impannelled jurors; but ſufficient reliance would not be placed on their impartiality, as they might feel intereſted. The fitteſt perſons, therefore, to be employed as Commiſſioners, both as to character and competency, were the aſſiſtant Barriſters of Ireland, who attended at the county ſeſſions, holden eight times a year, and were of ſeveral years ſtanding, and legal experience. Thoſe who were ſelected ſhould take the evidence for each vote, and afterward tranſmit the whole to the Committee; and the Commiſſioners ſhould be paid by the public for performing their duties. To this meaſure many objections were made, and ſome members recommended that it ſhould be printed, and the ſummer allowed as a reaſonable time for conſidering it; the aſſiſtant Barriſters were expunged, and other Commiſſioners ſubſtituted; and, with many amendments, the Bill paſſed, but its duration was limited to the 1ſt of May, 1802.

On the ſubject of private Bills relating to Ireland, the Houſe made ſeveral regulations tending to place petitioners from that country on a footing as advantageous as thoſe of Great Britain. The orders directed, that between the firſt and ſecond reading of every ſuch private Bill there ſhould be fifteen days; before any petition ſhould be preſented for extending the term of a patent, notice ſhould have been given three times in the London and Dublin Gazettes, and the Edinburgh Papers, if the patent extended to Scotland; ſuch advertiſements, the form of which was particularly limited, to be publiſhed in the months of Auguſt and September preceding the ſeſſion in which the application was intended to be made. In Bills of Divorce, damages muſt have been recovered in England or Ireland, or good cauſe ſhewn why they had not; and in all private Bills the parties intereſted muſt attend and conſent, or get their aſſent certified before one of the judges in Ireland, and thoſe judges were empowered to receive and certify proof that the requiſite notices had been duly given. June 25.

The fourth article of the union having provided that no greater number of members than twenty, holding offices or places of profit under the crown in Ireland, ſhould be capable of ſitting in the Houſe of Commons until an act of the Imperial

Imperial Parliament ſhould declare in what caſes perſons holding ſuch offices or places ſhould be incapable of being members, the ſubject was referred to a committee, who taking in general for their model, the excluſions provided by the law of England, reported that after the termination of the preſent parliament, no perſon, who by himſelf, deputy, or truſtee took, held, enjoyed, or retained any of the places afterward mentioned, ſhould be capable of ſitting as a member of the Houſe of Commons. The excluſions were thus expreſſed, "no perſon who ſhall be a Commiſſioner of Cuſtoms, Exciſe, or Stamps, or who ſhall be concerned directly or indirectly in the farming, collecting, or managing any ſums of money, duties, or other aids heretofore granted, or which ſhall hereafter be granted by any Act of Parliament to his Majeſty, his heirs or ſucceſſors, (except the Commiſſioners of the Treaſury, and their Secretary;) nor any perſon who ſhall be a Commiſſioner for determining appeals concerning the ſaid duties of Cuſtoms, Exciſe, and Stamps, or for controuling or auditing the account of the ſaid duties, (except the Auditor General of the Exchequer;) nor any perſon who ſhall be a Commiſſioner of Impreſt Accounts; nor any Agent for any Regiment; nor any perſon who ſhall, directly or indirectly, himſelf, or by any perſon whatſoever in truſt for him, or for his uſe or benefit, or on his account undertake, execute, hold or enjoy, in the whole or in part, any contract, agreement, or commiſſion, made or entered into under or from the Commiſſioners of his Majeſty's Treaſury in Ireland, or with any one or more of ſuch Commiſſioners, or with any other perſon or perſons whatſoever, for or on account of the public ſervice in Ireland; or who ſhall knowingly and willingly furniſh or provide, in purſuance of any ſuch agreement, contract, or commiſſion, which he or they ſhall have made or entered into as aforeſaid, any money to be remitted abroad, or any wares or merchandize to be uſed or employed in the ſervice of the public during the time that he ſhall execute, hold or enjoy any ſuch contract, agreement, or commiſſion, or any part or ſhare thereof, or any benefit or emolument ariſing from the ſame, (except perſons who ſhall be members of any incorporated trading company now exiſting or eſtabliſhed in Ireland, and conſiſting of more than ten perſons,) ſo far as relates to any contract, agreement, or commiſſion, which now is, or ſhall or may hereafter be made, entered into, or accepted by ſuch company in its corporate capacity, for the general benefit of ſuch incorporation or company; nor any deputies or clerks in any of the ſeveral offices following: That is to ſay, the office of the Lord High Treaſurer, or the Commiſſioners of the Treaſury, (except the Secretary of the Treaſury,) or Auditor of the Receipt of his Majeſty's Exchequer, or of the Tellers of the Exchequer, or of the Chancellor of the Exchequer, (except the Secretary of the Chancellor of the Exchequer;) or of the Commiſſioners of the Stamps, or of the Commiſſioners of Appeals; nor any perſon who ſhall have, in his own name, or in the name of any perſon or perſons in truſt for him,

May 8.

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or his benefit, any office or place of profit either immediately or directly under the crown, or from or by the nomination or appointment, or by any other appointment, ſubject to the approbation of the Lord Lieutenant, Lord Deputy, Lord Juſtices, or other chief Governor or Governors of that part of the United Kingdom called Ireland, created or erected at any time after the paſſing of an Act of Parliament of Ireland, in the thirty third year of the reign of his preſent Majeſty, intitled, An Act for ſecuring the freedom and independence of the Houſe of Commons by excluding therefrom perſons holding any offices under the crown to be hereafter created, or holding certain offices therein enumerated, or penſions for terms of years, or during his Majeſty's pleaſure. But reſolved, that nothing in the preceding reſolution ſhould extend, or be conſtrued to extend, or relate to, or exclude any perſon having or holding any office, place, or employment for life, or for ſo long as he ſhall behave himſelf well in his office, other than except all ſuch perſons concerned in the managing, collecting, or farming of the ſaid duties, or of any ſums of money, duties or other aids granted, or to be granted to his Majeſty, his heirs or ſucceſſors, and Commiſſioners for auditing the public accounts."

May 28. A Bill, framed in purſuance of this report, was brought in by Mr. Abbot, and paſſed without much objection; thoſe which were made ariſing principally from a deſire to limit rather than extend the excluſions.

Feb. 23. In conſideration that the preſence of the Lord Chancellor of Ireland would frequently be neceſſary in this country, and in order that the ſuitors in his court might not experience delay, Lord Caſtlereagh moved for leave to bring in a Bill for rendering the office of Maſter of the Rolls efficient, and a place for life, as in England, and it was referred to a Committee of the whole Houſe to conſider what portion of the ſalary ſhould be made good out of the public fund. The Committee reported to the Houſe as their reſolutions, that his Majeſty ſhould be empowered to give to the office of Maſter of the Rolls in Ireland certain judicial powers exerciſed by the Chancellor, and to grant it during good behaviour; and that there ſhould be iſſued out of the conſolidated fund of Ireland ſuch an augmentation of the preſent ſalary and profits of that office, as would make up the annual ſum of 3500l. and a Bill was ordered to be brought in accordingly.

Mar. 3.

In the Committee, previous to the Bill, this meaſure met with ſome objections. Dr. Laurence did not conſider the propoſed ſalary too large, but apprehended the effect of the change would be to render the office of Lord Chancellor a ſinecure, or perhaps to get it put in commiſſion. It was anſwered that, as the law ſtood, the King might appoint Commiſſioners to execute the office of Lord Chancellor, but the end to be accompliſhed was merely that of giving the Chancellor an aſſiſtant during his abſence. The Maſter of the Rolls in Ireland would by this regulation

gulation have powers, particularly in matters of bankruptcy, which it would be very desirable to see also annexed to the same office in England.

Mar. 9. The Bill was read a first and second time without opposition, but when it was committed Mr. Sheridan expressed disapprobation of a measure which would enable the Lord Chancellor to be absent for a considerable length of time; and as to the salary, there were two noblemen who held the sinecure office of Keeper of the Rolls, and the salary should be made up from their emoluments, rather than the public purse. Lord Castlereagh answered, that as to those Lords, a Bill had passed in the last session of the Irish Parliament, allowing them to claim an indemnification, as it was foreseen that the office of Master of the Rolls must be rendered legal and efficient, and their office in consequence suppressed. It had ever been a principle, governing the Parliaments of both countries, that when individuals were deprived of offices, without the imputation of any fault, they should receive a compensation, and the Parliament of Ireland, who were certainly the best judges, had given their sanction to the principle. It was never in the contemplation or intention of that body, that a Master of the Rolls should be appointed at the expence of the Commissioners of the Rolls; and he hoped the united Parliament would not commence their proceedings by a breach of faith towards Ireland. In reply it was alleged that compensations had never been granted, but when the office taken away was held during good behaviour; but the Commissioners of the Rolls were only appointed during the pleasure of the crown, and had no right to expect any compensation. What was called faith might be merely fraud, and as the House ought to take time for consideration, it was moved that the Committee should report progress, and ask leave to sit again, but the motion was rejected by 109 to 46.

Mar. 19. On the third reading the opposition was still more strenuous. Mr. Hobhouse, in a speech of considerable length, combated the principle of the Bill, stating, as a fundamental axiom, and supporting it by quotations from Lord Chief Justice Hale, the Commissioners for examining into fees of office appointed in 1786, and the Select Committee of finance formed in 1797, that offices executed by deputy should be considered as sinecures, and abolished, since all sums of money which the deputies returned to their principals, after deducting their own gratuities, were in fact taken from the public without rendering any service in return. Such, were the present Bill to pass, would be the situation of the Lord Chancellor of Ireland, who received 8000l. a year, besides 4000l. a year for life, as a compensation for the loss of his place as Speaker of the House of Lords. The Master of the Rolls would perform all his duties for 3500l. a year, and there could be no reason why the Lord Chancellor should receive more. Mr. Hobhouse also analyzed the offices which would remain for the Lord Chancellor to perform, for the purpose of proving that his office would absolutely

be

be rendered a ſinecure, from the impoſſibility of its being beneficially exerciſed. Adverting then to the two Commiſſioners of the Rolls, whoſe offices were not ſuppreſſed without the allowance of a compenſation, he treated the Bill as a job, which removed two ſinecure offices, but erected one enormous ſinecure in their ſtead. As to the pledge given by the Iriſh Parliament, he diſdained to be bound or fettered by it. Whenever an Iriſh ſtatute was made the foundation of any proceeding, his ſupport or oppoſition would depend on an examination how far it was warranted by juſtice. He moved that the third reading ſhould be deferred till that day ſix months.

The obſervations in ſupport of this motion turned chiefly on the compenſation to be made to the Commiſſioners, which it was contended was exceſſive; and the ſuppoſed pledge of the Iriſh Parliament, which was treated only as a part of thoſe meaſures of corruption which were reſorted to for the purpoſe of carrying the union. The Houſe did not know the hiſtory of this office of Maſter of the Rolls. It was ſeveral years ſince held by Mr. Rigby, to whom and his family a compenſation was given, for the profeſſed purpoſe of rendering it effective. The place was then given to the Duke of Leinſter, but, as his Grace did not agree with government on the ſubject of the union, he was diſmiſſed, and replaced by the two preſent joint Commiſſioners. If, therefore, the Houſe paid the repreſentatives of Mr. Rigby, and the preſent Commiſſioners, they were giving double compenſation, and all to perſons merely nominal. If, by means of the union with Ireland, ſuch principles, and ſuch meaſures as the preſent, were to be introduced into the Houſe, Great Britain would ever have cauſe to rue and lament that that union had taken place. This meaſure had been mentioned as a teſtamentary diſpoſition of the Parliament of Ireland; but if the Britiſh Senate inherited from that body its full power of jobbing, it had gained a moſt unfortunate legacy. Of ſuch a bequeſt Dr. Laurence obſerved he knew no precedent, except in the will of Mirabeau, who left to one of his friends the payment of his debts. Even thoſe who treated the meaſure moſt mildly conſidered it as one of the acts of corruption which had been connived at in the Iriſh Parliament, on account of great benefits expected from the union, but which, on that great event, ought to have found a common grave with the Iriſh Parliament, and not been brought forward in that of the United Kingdom, as means of poſthumous corruption.

The defence of the meaſure was not proportioned to the vigour of the attack; the Attorney General expoſed ſome errors in the ſtatements reſpecting the effect of the Bill, which might have been avoided by peruſing it. Lord Caſtlereagh juſtified, on his former grounds, the principle of compenſations; and Mr. Alexander expreſſed ſurprize at the abuſive epithets which had been applied to the Iriſh Parliament. The tranſaction under conſideration had been diſcuſſed there, in the preſence of fifty of the ableſt Iriſh Lawyers, and although it was objected to on

other

other grounds, it was allowed on all hands that the appointment of an efficient Maſter of the Rolls was expedient and neceſſary.

Two diviſions took place; Mr. Hobhouſe's motion of poſtponement being rejected by 61 againſt 43, and the queſtion that the Bill do paſs carried by 62 againſt 41. In the Houſe of Lords it paſſed without oppoſition.

A Bill was brought in by Mr. George Ponſonby, for amending the practice of the Courts of King's Bench and Common Pleas in Ireland; but after a little progreſs had been made, it was dropped; one for the more ſpeedy recovery of debts due to his Majeſty, by tranſmitting certified copies of judgments obtained in the courts of either country paſſed into a law; and for the better promulgation of ſtatutes throughout the United Kingdom, it was ordered, that in future the King's printer ſhould print, deliver, and tranſmit according to a certain mode of diſtribution, 5,500 copies of every public, and 306 copies of every public local and perſonal ſtatute; the former to be preſerved for public uſe and inſpection, and tranſmitted to his ſucceſſor, by every chief magiſtrate and head officer of any city, borough, or town corporate in England and Ireland, and of every royal burgh in Scotland, and every ſheriff, clerk of the peace, and town clerk, in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. Private acts were to be diſtributed among thoſe whom they concerned at the expence of the parties, and the King's printer was allowed to head and claſs the ſtatutes of each ſeſſion in ſeveral volumes as public, local, and perſonal ſtatutes, with ſeparate title pages, and a general table.

A brief account has already been given of the meaſures taken during the laſt ſhort ſeſſion of the Britiſh Parliament for relief of the people under the calamities occaſioned by ſcarcity. The Imperial Parliament, at the very commencement of its ſittings, appointed Committees in both Houſes, compoſed of the members to whoſe labours the public was already ſo largely indebted, with the addition of ſome repreſentatives of Ireland. The firſt meaſure recommended by the Committee in the Houſe of Commons, was the ſuſpenſion, and afterward the repeal of the Act recently paſſed, prohibiting the manufacture of fine flour, and commonly called the Brown Bread Act. Thoſe who propoſed the regulation, Mr. Ryder obſerved, expected it would be productive of a great ſaving, and if that could have been ultimately effected, the Committee would have felt it their duty to perſevere, notwithſtanding any temporary inconvenience; but, ſuch were the habits of the people in this country, that ſince the Act had paſſed, foreign wheat could not be manufactured according to its proviſions, and the coarſe grain of this country was in danger of being thrown out of the market, while the fine wheat had proportionably advanced in price, and, on the whole, the quartern loaf was not reduced in value more than ſix or ſeven farthings. The Committee, therefore, had been deceived in ſuppoſing that the poor would have obtained a compenſation for the deterioration of bread

Feb. 3.

Feb. 16.

in the reduction of the price, and alſo in believing that a greater quantity of bread could be manufactured from a ſack of coarſe than of fine flour.

In the progreſs of this Bill through the Houſe, Mr. Wilberforce Bird ſtated ſome ſtrong facts reſpecting the advance in the price of corn, notwithſtanding the exertions of economy, and great importations; and obſerved, that in the part of the country with which he was moſt acquainted, the poor rates had advanced, from nine to twenty-three ſhillings in the pound, and in the neighbourhood of Sheffield, out of 26,000 manufacturers, 18,000 were unemployed. Lord Sheffield did not approve of the total, as the Committee had only recommended a partial, repeal of the act. The principle was good, but the flour or bread made under it was coarſer than had been intended, and this was owing to the new mode of dreſſing wheat through a wire cylinder, by which means, inſtead of taking from each buſhel, from ſix to nine pounds of coarſe pollard, the whole meal was made to paſs. The Act certainly had not had a fair experiment, and the adulteration had been exceſſive; nor could he diſcover why the difference in price had been ſo ſmall. He had, before the Act took place, cauſed a conſiderable quantity of bread, nearly of the quality intended by the Act, to be made, and ſold to particular deſcriptions of perſons, at two thirds the price of the London white bread. He did not conceive he had any great profit, but he was not a loſer, and the bread was ſo good, and ſo well liked, that he could not completely ſatisfy the demands. His Lordſhip did not mean to oppoſe the general ſentiment againſt the preſent Act, but wiſhed that in the Bill before the Houſe ſomething ſhould be ſubſtituted for a total repeal, which would be a miſchievous indulgence of the prejudices of the people, and afford encouragement to the tricks of millers and bakers, while another Bill, relative to brown bread, if brought forward at ſome future period, would only teaze and perplex the country.

The Bill paſſed the Lower Houſe without any further oppoſition than was compriſed in theſe remarks, and it was forwarded through the Houſe of Lords with ſo much rapidity, as to draw from Lord Auckland a cautionary remonſtrance againſt ſuch ſpeed being brought into a precedent, as it would aſſimilate the proceedings of Parliament to the revolutionary ſyſtem of paſſing laws by acclamation.

The remarks of Lord Sheffield, which were reinforced by many other members, occaſioned the introduction of a Bill to amend an Act, paſſed in the 36th year of his Majeſty's reign, empowering bakers to make bread of various kinds of grain. Late in the ſeſſion too, the Committee preſented a report, being their ſixth, which contained the examination of Robert Ferryman, and his Grace the Duke of Bedford, in favour of a project for taking off the outer coat from wheat previous to its being ground; but as no very ſanguine expectations were expreſſed of great ſucceſs from this plan, unleſs public mills were erected to grind for the poor, no conſequent meaſures were adopted. May 22.

In their second report, the Committee, in pursuance of a communication from the Board of Agriculture, recommended to Parliament to encourage by bounties the growth of potatoes, distributing in prescribed portions among persons not being cottagers, 12,000l. for the production of crops, on land not previously used for potatoes, or hops, or which had not within the last seven years produced any arable crop; among cottagers in England and Wales, 13,000l. to be adjudged according to a prescribed ratio, by magistrates in petty session; among cottagers in Scotland 3000l. at the discretion of the Board of Agriculture, and a sum of 2000l. was to be granted to that Board, to be distributed in honorary premiums, to such owners or occupiers of land as should allot the greatest quantities among cottagers this year, to be planted with potatoes in certain portions. This proposition occasioned several debates, in which various members uttered sentiments rather produced by their general party feelings, than by a mere consideration of the measure, and it was finally rejected; but a clause was framed by Sir William Pulteney, and added to the Bill for better cultivating commons and wastes, for encouraging the growth of potatoes in common field lands.

Feb. 23.

March 6.

The bounties granted during the last session on importation, were subjected to improved regulations, and when in pursuance of the third report of the Committee, it was proposed to extend a similar system to Ireland, Sir John Parnell immediately gave notice that he should move to dispense with the charter of the East India Company, which prevented the landing of rice in that country. At present, he said, it was sent there in a circuitous way, which not only retarded its arrival, but enhanced its price: a bounty on importation had been intimated, but he did not apprehend that measure was equivalent to his, which was calculated to preserve the lives and tranquillity of the people, among whom scarcity prevailed in a much greater degree than in England. Bounties were in consequence granted on the importation of certain kinds of grain into Ireland, similar to those allowed in England; and the commerce between that country and America being freed from several restrictions existing before the union, the importation of grain and rice from the United States was greatly facilitated. A Bill was also passed according to the proposition of Sir John Parnell, and the Lord Lieutenant was empowered to prevent the exportation of provisions from Ireland, with an indemnity to those who had already acted under his orders in doing so.

Feb. 26.

Mar. 10.

Among the causes to which some Members of Parliament ascribed the scarcity, several were only incidentally mentioned in the course of debates, as party feeling prompted, such as the war, and the expeditions and expences to which it gave birth; but two were made the express subjects of motions, namely the extensive circulation of country bank notes, and the unfair dealings of monopolizers. The first of these topics was introduced in the Upper House by the Earl of Suffolk, who intimated an intention

tion of moving that no paper but that of the Bank of England ſhould paſs in circulation. Having in another debate mentioned the ſame ſubject, the Noble Earl at length moved that it ſhould be an inſtruction to the Select Committee to aſcertain the amount of country bank notes in circulation, in order to determine how far it had influenced the price of proviſions. In ſupport of this propoſition, his Lordſhip, in a ſpeech of conſiderable length, ſtated the cauſes of the ſcarcity to be, 1ſt, the war, in which 400,000 perſons were employed, for whom as much proviſion was furniſhed as would maintain a million in time of peace; 2d, the enormous and burthenſome taxes; 3d, a partial ſcarcity in wheat, for it did not exiſt in other grain, or in butcher's meat, cheeſe, or bacon; 4th, the Duke of Portland's letter, and the inattention of miniſters to offers by which a copious ſupply would have been obtained; and 5th, the grand evil of all, paper credit. To this latter point, the Earl principally confined his attention; quoting, in the firſt place, Adam Smith and Mr. Boyd; and, in the next, recapitulating the evidence given by the Earl of Egremont before the Committee, which went to prove, that the ſcarcity in the eaſtern part of the kingdom was not real, and deſcribing the means by which country bankers contributed to raiſe the price of grain. Farmers, Lord Egremont had ſtated, would be obliged to ſell their corn much ſooner, but the country bankers would advance them money by diſcounting their notes with other notes of their own; and if

March 4.

Mar. 30.

theſe remained in the country, as they frequently did, without being ſent to town, the banker received five per cent. intereſt, for nothing but a little ſilver paper, with a ſtamp upon it. After dwelling ſome time on theſe objects, Lord Suffolk recommended that the number of country bankers ſhould be aſcertained, and every one, in every firm, obliged to take out a licence of 50l. or 100l. a very ſmall ſum, conſidering that the paper circulated by them amounted to 12,000,000l. The expired acts prohibiting the iſſue of notes under 5l. ſhould be renewed, and the notes of country bankers numbered, to aſcertain the quantity in circulation. Public granaries ſhould be formed; weights and meaſures equalized; two markets for corn, eſtabliſhed in the metropolis inſtead of one; and the fiſheries carried to their greateſt poſſible extent. In ſupport of the laſt meaſure, his Lordſhip quoted Sir Walter Raleigh, and even propoſed that the cavalry ſhould be employed in forwarding the ſervice: they coſt, he ſaid, three millions a year, and ought, in ſome way, to be made uſeful to the nation. The cultivation of waſte lands was a meaſure of great importance, but the price of proviſions would never be lowered till the quantity of paper currency was reduced; and if government would not apply a remedy, he exhorted their Lordſhips, inſtead of receiving, as they did, nine-tenths of their rents in country bank-paper, to forbid their ſtewards to accept of any payments but in Bank of England notes, or in ſpecie.

Lord Hobart, declining to follow the Earl through the whole

courſe of his ſtatements, ſtyled the motion unneceſſary, as the important ſubjects to which it related were under conſideration of the Committee. He juſtified the Duke of Portland's letter as perfectly warranted by the badneſs of the ſeaſon, which alone occaſioned the public diſtreſs, and the reports of both Houſes of Parliament would prove that the ſcarcity was real. With reſpect to provincial banks, the Houſe would feel the impolicy and danger of treading on that ſyſtem of commerce, by which the country hnd riſen to unexampled greatneſs aud happineſs. The ſurmiſe reſpecting theſe eſtabliſhments was new, for in 1793-4, and in 1797, they never had been conſidered the cauſe of the advanced price of proviſions, and there was no reaſon why they ſhould be thought ſo now. Theſe reaſons were ably ſuſtained by Lord Auckland, and the Duke of Athol obſerved, that in the northern parts of the kingdom particularly, the provincial banks had produced moſt beneficial effects. The Earl of Warwick and Lord Darnley ſaid a few words in favour of the motion, but it was negatived without a diviſion.

Mar. 30. On the ſame day, the attention of the Lords was invited to the ſubject of monopoly by the Earl of Warwick, who declared his firm opinion, that the ſcarcity was artificial; nay, he had no doubt of being able to prove, that there was then as much grain in the kingdom as there had been at any period in the laſt ſeven years. The granaries and the river were full, beyond any former example; and he had been told of an inſtance of two veſſels having returned laden from whence they came, becauſe there was no room for them in the Thames. To have it demonſtrated whether the ſcarcity were real or not, he moved that directions be given to every mayor, bailiff, juſtice of the peace, and other magiſtrate, throughout the kingdom, to cauſe a return to be made on oath, of all the wheat, barley, oats, and pulſe, in poſſeſſion of any farmer, factor, or corn-merchant, either in granaries, or on board any ſhip, barge, or boat within their reſpective diſtricts; and alſo a return, upon oath, of all the wheat, barley, oats, and other grain, or pulſe, ſold ſince the 10th of April laſt, with the price charged for the ſame.

This propoſition was oppoſed by the Earl of Morton, who, both as a Magiſtrate and a Member of Parliament, declared it impracticable; and by the Duke of Montroſe, who vindicated the Committee, and obſerved that the clamour about the quantity of grain on board ſhips in the Thames was moſt unjuſt, becauſe London was, at that time, the depot for almoſt the whole kingdom, and ſhewed that the meaſure, even if practicable, which he ſtrongly denied, could not have any beneficial effect. Lord Darnley ſaid, the propoſition could not fail to do harm; Lord Hobart alſo enlarged on the ſame topics, and related an inſtance of a falſe report reſpecting damaged corn which had been conveyed to him; and finally the Duke of Bedford deprecated all diſcuſſion on this ſubject, becauſe far from remedying an evil, for which remedy, under all exiſting circumſtances, was impracticable, he feared the only effect would be

to

to aggravate it, and irritate the public mind, already but too much exaſperated. He denied that the public diſtreſs aroſe ſolely from combination or monopoly, and in forming his opinion on this ſubject, he did not take the teſtimony of individuals which could only relate to particular diſtricts, but relied on the general view of the average of the whole kingdom. The motion was not ſupported by any member of the Houſe, and negatived without a diviſion.

In the Houſe of Commons, Lord Folkſtone, after ſeveral notices, moved for leave to bring in a Bill for regulating the trade of cornfactor in the city of London. His principal object was, to prevent that fluctuation of the corn-market, which was ſolely occaſioned by the undue influence of factors; a body of men, who were formerly ſubſervient to their employers, but upon whom their employers now depended, and who, by means of large capitals and extenſive credit, were enabled to command the market, and enhance the price of corn at pleaſure. One of their abuſes, he ſaid, was, receiving ſeveral quantities of corn of different qualities from various perſons, mixing the whole together, ſelling it without diſtinction, and dividing the produce as well as they could among their employers. He wiſhed to compel the factors to make returns of the quantities of corn received and ſold by them, from and to whom, together with the reſpective prices. Mr. Yorke obſerved, that by the ſtatute 31ſt. Geo. III. factors were obliged to make returns (though not on oath) of the quantities ſold by them, together with the reſpective prices; and by a ſubſequent ſtatute, every factor, on firſt entering into buſineſs, was obliged to take an oath that he would make juſt an true returns. He ſubmitted to the Noble Lord, whether it woul not be better to poſtpone the meaſure. To this propoſition Lord Folkſtone acceded, wiſhing the effort he had made to ſtand as a notice of his intention to bring the queſtion forward as early as poſſible in the next ſeſſion. June 26.

As the moſt general, effective, and permanent relief againſt ſcarcity in future, for to that which exiſted it could not apply, a general ſyſtem of incloſure, and particularly of waſte and uncultivated lands, was recommended. On a meſſage, moved for in the Upper Houſe by Lord Carrington, the Houſe of Commons furniſhed ſome papers, containing information on the ſubject, and a report was brought up by the Duke of Athol, ſtrongly recommending the cultivation and improvement of waſte and unprofitable land. A Bill on the ſubject was brought into the Houſe of Lords, but dropped on account of its interfering with the rights of the clergy. Other meaſures were however taken by the Lower Houſe for facilitating the progreſs, and diminiſhing the expence of Incloſure Bills, by permitting certain facts to be proved before Commiſſioners in the country, and by conſolidating into one general act, the proviſoes, which were before ſeparately inſerted in every bill. This regulation, ſo far as it went, was declared to be highly ſatisfactory by the Duke of Bedford, and by Lord Feb. 17. May 15.

Sheffield in the Lower Houſe, but both added that a more extenſive and radical meaſure was highly deſireable.

The ſtate of the poor, and the diſtreſs to which many pariſhes and diſtricts were reduced by the increaſe of rates for their relief, were frequently adverted to in both Houſes. Mr. Grey mentioned them in very ſtrong terms in the debate on the ſtate of the nation, and Mr. Fox, in the ſame debate, affirmed that one ſixth of the whole population received parochial alms; Mr. M. A. Taylor adduced the ſame circumſtances as a reaſon for withholding the ſupplies required for carrying on the war; citing in particular the vaſt increaſe of theſe burthens in the Weſt Riding of Yorkſhire; a petition was preſented from the pariſh of Foleſhill, in the county of Warwick, repreſenting that their rates amounted to twenty-four ſhillings in the pound; and in conſequence of a petition from Coventry, a ſeparate Bill was brought in for relief of the poor in that city. The Committee on the high price of proviſions, in their fifth report, recommended, that, in conſideration of the poverty of ſome diſtricts, means ſhould be taken for granting relief by a temporary advance of public money, with a proviſo for its gradual repayment. In the Houſe of Lords, the Duke of Bedford brought in a Bill for relieving the poor houſeholders from the payment of rates; it paſſed that Houſe, but was rejected by the Commons, as an infringement of their privilege to originate every meaſure affecting the public purſe. Lord William Ruſſel, however, re-introduced the Bill; it was from the firſt declared to be uſeleſs, by Mr. Mainwaring, whoſe experience rendered him fully competent to pronounce an opinion, which the Solicitor General expreſſed in terms ſtill more deciſive. After lingering for ſome time in the Houſe, the Bill was loſt. From theſe efforts it appeared that the diſtreſs of the country was not to be aſcribed to any defect in the poor laws, which could be ſpecified and removed; but the general ſyſtem received a conſiderable improvement from a Bill brought in by the Attorney General, and which paſſed into a law, enabling overſeers to levy rates notwithſtanding the appeal of a pariſhioner, on thoſe who had not appealed, and empowering magiſtrates, (under certain circumſtances) to allow appellants their coſts.

Such were the principal proceedings which reſulted from, or appeared immediately to ariſe out of, the inveſtigations into the cauſe of the public calamity; but ſome other meaſures of relief were applied to particular claſſes. To the condition of the inſolvent debtors, the attention of the Upper Houſe was called at an early period of the ſeſſion, by the Earl of Moira, who, under all Feb. 12. the difficulties of the times, conſidered them entitled to the interference of government. The Lord Chancellor (Loughborough) ſaid, the general ſyſtem of law between debtor and creditor required amendment; he had long beſtowed a conſiderable ſhare of attention on the ſubject, but requeſted the aid of thoſe beſt qualified to aſſiſt him. He had a Bill already drawn up, which he would bring in, that it might

might be printed, and for the ſake of correction, diffuſed as widely as poſſible. This Bill however not proceeding, and Lord Moira being further excited by various petitions, particularly by one from priſoners in Dublin, which he laid before the Houſe, brought in, though he avowed his general diſapprobation of them, a Bill for relief of inſolvent debtors. The debates on this meaſure were guided ſolely by the deſire of affording relief to thoſe who were really unfortunate, while the diſhoneſt ſhould be prevented from receiving the benefit of the act. In this view, the Bill firſt brought in was withdrawn, and one leſs exceptionable ſubſtituted; the Houſe of Commons made ſeveral amendments, reſpecting which conferences were had between the two Houſes, and at length, the Bill thus carefully moulded, received the royal aſſent. No general meaſure of the extent intimated by Lord Loughborough, could perhaps be ſuddenly adopted, but a change in the law, ſo far as related to impriſonment of the perſons was effected, with great benefit to the debtor, and without poſſibility of injury to the creditor. Another act was paſſed for the protection of aliens reſiding in this country, from arreſt for debts contracted by them in ſtates with which Great Britain was at war.

As generally connected with the ſubject of impriſonment, it may not be improper to mention that Sir Francis Burdett endeavoured to invite the attention of Parliament to the Houſe of Correction in Cold Bath Fields, by relating a caſe of great cruelty exerciſed by Aris, the keeper of that priſon, on an individual, named Hudſon. A few days afterward, Sir William Elford, having perſonally made inquiries into the matter, which he thought enabled him to contradict the previous ſtatement, propoſed that Mr. Aris ſhould be called to the Bar of the Houſe. This motion was ſupported by Sir Francis Burdett, who perſiſted in affirming the truth of his original narrative, and declaring that an inquiry before the Houſe had been an object of his labour for the laſt two years, but the evident unfitneſs of the examination induced the Houſe to reſiſt it, by voting againſt the previous queſtion.

Feb. 9.

Feb. 12.

CHAP. VIII.

King's Meſſage to Parliament, reſpecting Sir Sidney Smith; his penſion, and other gratuities. Motion by Mr. Tyrwhitt Jones, on the breach of the Convention of El Ariſch; defence of that tranſaction by Mr. Dundas and Mr. Pitt; papers laid before Parliament. Further diſcuſſions. Parliamentary honours to the memory of Sir Ralph Abercromby, and the army and fleet. Acknowledgments to Sir Hyde Parker and Lord Nelſon. Debates in both Houſes on a propoſed ſubſidy to Portugal. Regulations reſpecting the Scotch and Iriſh militia. Royal Meſſage on the formation of a military college; outline of the plan detailed by Mr. Yorke, who alſo recommends the eſtabliſhment of a military aſylum for five hundred children of ſoldiers; both propoſitions adopted. Statement of Mr. Dundas on the affairs of the Eaſt India Company; controverted by Mr. Jones and others. Relief granted to ſome Weſt India Iſlands; regulation of prize courts in that part of the world. Proceedings on the ſubject of Mr. Horne Tooke, who, although he had been in Prieſt's orders, obtained a ſeat in the Houſe of Commons; motion of Earl Temple for the attendance of witneſſes; who, after a debate, are examined; a Committee appointed to ſearch for precedents; their report; debate on it; motion of Earl Temple; Mr. Addington moves the order of the day; obſervations of Mr. Horne Tooke; Lord Temple's motion diſmiſſed; Mr. Addington brings in a Bill for declaring all perſons who have received the orders of Prieſt or Deacon, incapable of ſitting in the Houſe of Commons; which paſſes both Houſes. Bill paſſed for ſtaying proceedings againſt the clergy for non-reſidence.

THE attention of Parliament was frequently engaged during the ſeſſion, by ſubjects connected with the war, ariſing as well from tranſactions of preceding years, as thoſe which originated in the varying circumſtances of the day. Early in the ſeſſion, a Meſſage from the King was delivered to both Houſes, ſtating his Majeſty's deſire to confer a ſignal mark of his favour and approbation on Sir Sidney Smith, in conſequence of the eminent ſervices he had rendered, and the valour and ability he had diſplayed on the coaſt of Egypt, and particularly in the gallant and heroic defence of the fortreſs of Acre, and recommending it to Parliament to ſecure him a penſion of 1,000l. a year for life. In the Upper Houſe, Lords Spencer and Auckland expreſſed, in animated terms, their ſenſe of the public merits and private worth of that excellent officer; and in the Houſe of Commons, when the meſſage came under conſideration in a Committee, no difference of opinion was expreſſed, except what aroſe from obſervations that the gratuity was too ſmall in amount, and too tardily beſtowed, and that the Royal meſſage did not render complete juſtice to the merits of Sir Sidney, in omitting to notice his ability as a negotiator. The firſt objection was in a conſiderable degree removed, and the penſion itſelf rendered additionally complimen-

Feb. 16, 17.

Feb. 18.

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tary, by dating its commencement from the 21ſt of May, 1799, the day when Bonaparte, with his army, retired from the walls of Acre. In one of the ſhort debates to which this propoſition gave riſe, Mr. Tyrwhitt Jones promiſed to move at the India Houſe for an additional reward: a propoſition

April 3. was made by the directors to the general court to allow Sir Sidney, as a complimentary teſtimonial, the ſum of 3000l. which was unanimouſly agreed to; and the corporation of

Dec. 18. London granted him the freedom of the city, and a valuable ſword.

The mention in the Houſe of Commons of Sir Sidney Smith's talents as a negotiator, formed part of a ſeries of animadverſions begun in a previous ſeſſion, and continued through this, on the rupture of the treaty of El Ariſch. Of an intention to bring forward a motion on this topic, Mr. Jones gave notice on the firſt day of the ſeſſion; and when the change of miniſters appeared complete, he

Mar. 27. addreſſed the chair, ſtating, that although ſome might conſider the tranſaction as not demanding ſo much perſeverance on his part, and although he proceeded with fear and trembling, he would not ſhrink from his duty, but make it his utmoſt endeavour, in ſpite of the evaſive anſwers of ex-miniſters, to ſift the buſineſs to the bottom. The dreadful ſuſpence which prevailed after the ſailing of the armament from Toulon, the glorious exultation on the victory of Aboukir, as the ſalvation of India, proved the ſerious alarm which was felt at the occupation of Egypt by the French; but then came the "intercepted correſpondence," uſhered into the world with a well written preface, the object of which was, to prove that the portion of the French army which could eſcape the ſwords of the Ottomans, Arabs, and Mamelukes, would inevitably fall a prey to famine, diſeaſe, and diſorganization. The laſt of theſe publications was the ſpring and origin of our evils, as it occaſioned the breach of the convention of El Ariſch; but the French, far from verifying the predictions of thoſe who publiſhed the letters, proceeded from battle to battle, and from victory to victory, to the poſſeſſion of Cairo; nor was their career ever ſtopped, but by the gallant and wonderful defender of Acre; the negotiator of the convention of El Ariſch; the ſaviour of the Ottoman and Indian empires, and the only man who had ever yet foiled the great Bonaparte. To all the plain interrogatories he had put to the late miniſtry, Mr. Jones ſaid he had received no plain anſwer, and every paper he had required had been peremptorily refuſed; but the ſentiments of the ex-war-miniſters on his motion of the 8th of laſt July, had been ſent by Bonaparte to the army of the Eaſt; it was printed and emblazoned in the ſtandards of Abdallah Menou; it had conciliated and fraternized with the French, the Jews, the Greeks, the Copts, the Syrians, the Smyrnites, and the Turks, and animating them with one common zeal and thirſt for glory, had urged them, on the one hand, to threaten the Ottoman empire, and on the other to accompliſh the deſtruction of our territorial

territorial poſſeſſions in India. The breach of the convention of El Ariſch had afflicted England, and haraſſed all Europe; the exiſtence of the Ottoman empire depended on it; all Aſia trembled at it. It had been agitated not only in parliament, but it had convulſed moſt of the courts and cabinets of Europe; and in one point of view only, it had rendered eſſential ſervice by cauſing the diſmiſſal of Thugut from the councils of the Emperor of Germany, and by laying proſtrate the moſt woeful and deſpotic, and yet unpuniſhed miniſters that ever ruled in Great Britain. It had crippled, humbled, and nearly demoliſhed, our grand ally, Auſtria; it had ſubjugated Italy; acquired Egypt to the French; it had poſtponed the general peace, (witneſs the correſpondence between Lord Grenville and M. Otto with Egypt, in every page almoſt;) it had aggravated the univerſal and grinding miſery of millions, and it had confirmed, if not eternized, the bondage of the whole human race.

Having made theſe preliminary obſervations, Mr. Jones entered into, what he acknowledged to be, a copious detail of the event in queſtion, for the purpoſe of proving, that the Engliſh government had flagrantly violated the treaty, and thereby ſecured Egypt to France; which muſt be conſidered, in all points of view, as a real compenſation for her vaſt colonial loſſes. His obſervations were intended to ſhew that the French were in the act of fulfilling the articles; that Sir Sidney Smith underſtood himſelf, and was conſidered by all others to be perfectly authorized to conclude ſuch a compact, and had ſigned himſelf miniſter plenipotentiary of his Britannic Majeſty; he had, as ſuch, made a triple alliance; and ſurely he who was qualified to execute ſuch a contract, was alſo qualified to make a convention. Yet Mr. Dundas had, in laſt July, termed him a ſubordinate officer, as if a perſon, who had before poſſeſſed ſuch large powers, could at the moment of executing ſo important an act, have been ſuddenly degraded into a character ſo inferior, without powers, and without inſtructions. But the ſame miniſter had ſtated that when the convention appeared to be the tranſaction of a Britiſh officer, though unauthorized, and contrary to the true intereſts of the country, the miniſtry ordered its ratification. This Mr. Jones treated as a groſs inſtance of diſhoneſty. The French army, having ſuffered itſelf (in reliance on Britiſh faith, hitherto untarniſhed,) to be entrapped in the Delta, had given up its ſtrong holds, Damietta, Salahieh, Belbeis, and the Wells of the Deſert, and opened the doors of Egypt to the Turks; when this gallant and brave army, weakened by the Turks, and cannonaded by the Engliſh ſhips, had been expoſed to utter extermination; then the Britiſh government thought it their duty not to forbid its admiral to allow the wretched remains, perhaps two or three hundred, a ſafe paſſage; if after all the horrors of a premeditated maſſacre, ſo many could eſcape the fire of its ſhips, and the ſwords of the Ottomans, the Arabs, and the Mamelukes. The miſſion of Mr. Morier, ſecretary to Lord Elgin, to Conſtantinople, proved Sir Sidney Smith to

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have been a plenipotentiary, and the letters to Admiral Blanket, and the two to Kleber, refuted every notion of a ſurpriſe; but what muſt have been the aſtoniſhment of the French when their general read to them that letter which Mr. Pitt had whimſically called the old letter, and which coſt the lives of 20,000 of our allies. Sir Sidney Smith's powers, and Lord Elgin's miſſion, ſhewed that miniſters, with a double embaſſy, thought they might have a double faith. The Turks, by virtue of a convention, were to croſs the Deſert, and make themſelves maſters of Egypt; but when the French army were out of Cairo, then the *ruſe de guerre* was to be put in force, and to ſuperſede the convention; and this convention, and the laws of nations, were in defiance of all humanity, at once to be immolated at the ſhrine of miniſterial imbecility, vengeance, and intemperance.

Aſſuming that he had proved Sir Sidney Smith to have had ſufficient powers to treat, Mr. Jones ſaid he would next reaſon on a falſe hypotheſis, that he had no ſuch powers, and no miniſterial inſtructions. Even in this ſituation, commanding the troops, for the purpoſe of landing, directing, by his officers, the attack and defence of places, concurring with his ſoldiers in all the military meaſures of the Turkiſh armies, and overlooking and managing their operations; together, above all, with the circumſtance of his being ſo diſtant from the ſeat of his government, Sir Sidney, by the law of nations, as explained by Grotius and Vattel, had a right to treat. Mr. Jones maintained, that the Grand Vizier, fighting on his own territory, and for the purpoſe of reſtoring to the Ottoman empire one of the provinces conquered by the French army, had a right to negotiate alone, in the abſence of its allies, and that then the ſtipulated conditions became a law which England and Ruſſia could not violate without injuſtice. The reſult of ſuch an event muſt be the univerſal diſcredit of Britiſh faith; no military convention could hereafter be conſidered ſafe. In the triple alliance which was entered into between Ruſſia, the Porte, and England, Ruſſia could be but a mere cypher; England could have no object but the ſafety of India, the Porte none but the ſafety of the Ottoman empire, and the evacuation of Egypt; this laſt was the fundamental intereſt, to which all other conſiderations yielded: it was not the war in Italy, or the war in Germany, but the war in Egypt and in Syria, which bound the Porte. His Majeſty's miniſters had impoſed on the nation, on parliament, and on all Europe, by firſt giving Sir Sidney Smith powers, as a military commander, and a diplomatic agent; and then denying their own act, and repreſenting him as a ſubordinate officer. They had deceived our ally; they had violated the law of nations; they had put humanity out of doors, and the conſequence too well known to afflicted Europe, was the firm poſſeſſion (in ſpite of all our efforts) of Egypt by the French.

What would be the ſituation of England in conſequence of this convention? The armament under Sir Ralph Abercromby was reported to have reached Egypt; the

the army of Condé was to have joined, but would not ſtir; another co-operation was to be diſpatched from Bombay to Suez; they could not exceed 10,000, and muſt traverſe ſeventy miles of deſart. The Engliſh troops, not inured to the climate, would have to encounter a French force equal to them in numbers, and augmented by Copts, Greeks, Syrians, and Turks, who had, in vaſt bodies, joined the French ſtandard; the French were at leaſt 16,000, and the others three times that number, and cordially attached; they were all in the beſt ſtate of diſcipline, reinforced and ſupplied; they conſidered themſelves the children of Bonaparte, who termed them his darling ſons; and they would preſerve Egypt for him by enduring the greateſt privations. In the camp of the Grand Vizier, on the contrary, the plague raged, and our allies were, to the greateſt exceſs, jealous of our troops. If we did drive out the French, it would coſt the flower of the Britiſh army, and incalculable treaſure, but, under all the circumſtances, there was not a chance of ſucceſs. Mr. Jones then dwelt at conſiderable length on the fondneſs of Bonaparte for Egypt, the conqueſt of which had identified him with Alexander, and on his mighty talents; there might perhaps be a change in the councils of France, as there had been in ours; that government might give up Egypt on receiving the Cape of Good Hope, Malta, Gibraltar, or Jamaica as an equivalent; but if the ex-miniſters were to box all the points of the political compaſs, they could not juſtify the breach of the convention of El Ariſch.

What was the internal ſtate of the country in conſequence of this tranſaction? twenty-eight millions had been already voted, and while miniſters were forging chains and taxes for the people of Great Britain, gracious heaven had defeated their machinations by a famine. Auſtria crippled, humbled, manacled, and almoſt demoliſhed; Italy ſubjugated; Portugal driven to war; Egypt acquired by the French; Conſtantinople paralized; and the government of India ſhaken to its very baſis. All this had followed the breach of the convention of El Ariſch; and all theſe achievements had been accompliſhed by Bonaparte without a fleet. After ſome further obſervations on the ſtate of Europe, and a detailed explanation of the aſſertion that Bonaparte had identified his character with that of Alexander, nay, that he united Alexander and Hannibal in one, for he had Hannibalized St. Bernard; an aſſurance that the confederate ambition of Paul and Bonaparte would form a Greek empire at Conſtantinople, open a paſſage for Bonaparte to India to the ruin of Great Britain, and the probable ſubjugation of the world; and a paſſionate apoſtrophe in behalf of his bleeding country, Mr. Jones moved that a committee ſhould be appointed to inquire into the breach of the convention of El Ariſch.

In anſwer to this ſpeech Mr. Dundas and Mr. Pitt both ſtrenuouſly maintained that there was no breach of convention, nor violation of good faith in the tranſaction. Sir Sidney Smith had powers only to act as a military officer in the Mediterranean; but his brother, Mr. Spencer Smith, being

being Britiſh Miniſter at Conſtantinople, it was thought fit, when Sir Sidney was ſent to command the Britiſh force on the Coaſt of Egypt, to add dignity to his ſtation, by joining him with his brother as plenipotentiary for the concluſion of the defenſive treaty between this country and the Ottoman Porte, which had been ſolicited by the latter. Special powers were granted him for this purpoſe; but as ſoon as that treaty was ſigned, his authority as a plenipotentiary was at an end, and he had no powers to go beyond that ſingle act. Indeed the fact was ſelf-evident; for, before the convention of El Ariſch, Lord Elgin had gone to Conſtantinople as repreſentative of his Majeſty with the Ottoman Porte; and, of conſequence, both Sir Sidney Smith and his brother were ſuperſeded in any diplomatic character which they might previouſly have held. Yet Mr. Jones was allowed to have better grounds for his preſent motion than he uſually had, ſince it appeared from a publication by the French government, that Sir Sidney Smith had ſigned himſelf, in his correſpondence with Kleber, miniſter plenipotentiary of his Britannic Majeſty. He had no power to be a party to the convention in queſtion, for when he had performed the taſk aſſigned him by his firſt powers, he was *functus officio*. He was commander, but not in chief; he had no ſpecial or full power; and the queſtion, if any could ariſe, would be, whether his general power gave him authority to enter into any convention in Egypt? The firſt time that miniſters had any reaſon to think ſuch a convention might be propoſed, was in December 1799; they immediately ſent inſtructions on the ſubject to Lord Keith, not to Sir Sidney Smith, for he had no command in chief, but only commanded a detachment of Lord Keith's fleet. This country was, at that time, in alliance with Ruſſia and Auſtria, as well as the Ottoman Porte; and it was the duty of miniſters to take care, as far as poſſible, of the intereſts of its allies. The evacuation of Egypt was deſirable; but it was their duty to prevent, and they ſaw the importance of preventing the return of the French army in Egypt to France, where it would immediately have been employed to act againſt the Ruſſians and Auſtrians in Italy, or in Germany. The inſtructions ſent to Lord Keith therefore were, that if any convention for the evacuation of Egypt ſhould be propoſed, he ſhould agree to it; but, at the ſame time, not to conſent that the French army ſhould be ſent back to France. Lord Keith did not receive theſe inſtructions till the month of February, 1800; and before that time, Sir Sidney had ſigned a convention, an event which miniſters could not anticipate, being conſcious that he had no powers. Lord Keith immediately diſpatched Sir John Douglas with the intelligence, and although miniſters conſidered Sir Sidney Smith's proceeding improper and unauthorized, and the convention unfavourable to the intereſts of this country; yet, as they found that a Britiſh officer had interfered, and (whether with proper powers or not) had ratified the convention, they thought

thought it moſt conſiſtent with the honour of the Britiſh name to agree to it. They were guilty of no breach of faith; on the contrary, they confirmed the convention, becauſe they ſaw that the French, truſting to its validity, might have given up ſome of their ſtrong poſts, which could not be reſtored to them in the ſame ſtate. A French Paper had furniſhed the Hon. Gentleman with his authority for aſſerting that this country had been guilty of a breach of faith, but in conſenting to ratify, on any terms, a treaty conſidered as diſadvantageous, becauſe a Britiſh officer, although unauthoriſed, had conſented to it, government gave not only an inſtance of unſullied faith, but of ſcrupulous delicacy.

Mr. Sheridan obſerved, it was very improbable, ſo good an officer as Sir Sidney Smith, ſhould have utterly miſtaken his powers, and concluded a convention, which occaſioned ſo great a deſtruction of our allies. If the fact alleged were true, why had miniſters beſtowed on that officer the remuneration, (pitiful as it was, compared to his ſervices) for which they had applied to Parliament? What! reward a man who had forged a character fatal to the peace of the world, and the intereſts of Great Britain? To this Mr. Pitt anſwered, he ſhould be ſorry if the Houſe, or any part of the country, thought, that becauſe Sir Sidney Smith had acted without authority, and expoſed his Majeſty's then miniſters to the unmerited opprobrium which for a time they had borne, they would, on that account, feel reſentment againſt him; or that any miſtake, where the intention was honourable, could cancel in their breaſts, the feelings they had once cheriſhed of the conduct of that gallant officer, who had added glory to the Britiſh arms, and veneration to the Britiſh character; extended the Britiſh intereſt; and proved himſelf an honour even to the moſt renowned claſs of Britiſh ſubjects. He felt much intereſted in having it underſtood, that the approbation of the Sovereign, and the gratitude of his ſubjects, teſtified as it was by the vote of Parliament and the aſſent of the Throne, to the gallant defender of Acre, was not effaced by his miſtake in aſſuming, without authority, the powers of a plenipotentiary.

Thus far the debate tended to an examination of the conduct of the late cabinet; Mr. Sheridan had, in the courſe of his ſpeech, made many obſervations on the new miniſters, which ſhewed that his opinion of them was leſs unfavourable than when they firſt came into office. From Mr. Addington, he ſaid, he had heard, with reſpect and ſatisfaction, his ſincerity in wiſhing to negotiate for peace. It was ever the practice of the Hon. Gentleman, who lately filled the office of miniſter, to treat the oppoſition with contempt, as incapable of doing any thing for the benefit of the country; his ſucceſſor had rejected, with ſome degree of diſdain, the idea that he was to depend on other principles than his own, he had ſaid he would not deal out coarſe ſcurrility againſt the enemy; nor be dictated to by any party whatever; he had not joined in that arrogant ſtrain of excluſion, of which his predeceſſor had

had ſet him the example, or ſaid that thoſe on the other ſide of the Houſe, were unworthy of being liſtened to; but ſtill Mr. Sheridan declined beſtowing confidence, for that muſt ever be a queſtion of experience. He blamed adminiſtration, however, for reſiſting Mr. Grey's motion for inquiry into the ſtate of the nation, and hoped, in the preſent caſe, he would not throw the broad ſhield of influence over the accuſed; if he did ſo, he would not act the independent part he profeſſed, but would make himſelf the partaker of their guilt. Lord Hawkeſbury riſing immediately after Mr. Sheridan obſerved, that the papers publiſhed by the French government, charging this country with a breach of faith, rendered it neceſſary, whatever inconveniences might reſult from it, that all the papers on the ſubject ſhould be produced; and propoſed, if Mr. Jones would withdraw his motion, to ſubſtitute one of more extenſive operation, and enumerated documents which would in conſequence be laid before the Houſe. After a deſultory converſation, this propoſition was carried, and a conſiderable number of official papers ſubmitted to Parliament.

Several diſcuſſions afterward took place, in conſequence of obſervations by Mr. Jones, on the inſufficiency of the papers, or of what he conſidered miſrepreſentations of their contents. Some aroſe incidentally in the courſe of debates on other ſubjects, but one June 2. was a formal motion for an addreſs to the King, requiring the diſcloſure of further documents, and reciting at length the events in Europe, which the mover ſuppoſed to have ariſen intirely from the rupture of the treaty of El Ariſch. A long debate enſued, in which the motion was ſupported by Mr. Grey and others, and the cauſe of government ably vindicated by Mr. Windham and Mr. Pitt. The motion was rejected by 138 againſt 22.

The fears expreſſed by many members in theſe debates, that the force employed in Egypt would be inadequate to the taſk of expelling the French, were in a conſiderable degree diſpelled by the intelligence received during the ſeſſion of the firſt operations of the Britiſh troops; although the joy ſo univerſally felt at events tending to remove the diſtinction which ſome perſons affected to make between the naval and military prowеſs of the country, was conſiderably damped by the death of the brave Abercromby. On this occaſion, Mr. Addington, May 18. after a pathetic eulogy on the merits of the deceaſed general, and the brave army he had commanded, moved an addreſs to his Majeſty, praying that he would order the erection of a monument to his memory in St. Paul's cathedral; the thanks of the Houſe to the general and other commiſſioned officers; and its acknowledgements and approbation to the non-commiſſioned officers and privates. He alſo moved thanks to Rear Admiral Bickerton, his Captains and Officers, and an acknowledgment to the ſeamen and marines on board the fleet. Theſe propoſitions were warmly applauded, and paſſed without any animadverſion, except a memorandum from Mr. Jones, that the loſs of the General, and the ſufferings of the

the army, whom he termed "the noble army of martyrs in Egypt," were all to be aſcribed to thoſe who violated the convention of El Ariſch. The Houſe of Lords was equally eager with the Commons in giving thanks and approbation to the brave men whoſe ſervices were ſo highly intitled to acknowledgment. Lord Suffolk was deſirous that a monument in St. Paul's for General Abercromby, ſhould have been voted by that Houſe, but was reminded of the privilege of the Commons to begin every meaſure which would cauſe an expenditure of public money; the Duke of Clarence alſo endeavoured to extend the acknowledgments to Captain Cochrane and Sir Sidney Smith, by name, but although the whole Houſe joined in the praiſe of thoſe meritorious officers, the motion was conſidered contrary to preeedent, and, after a ſhort converſation, withdrawn.

May 20. The King, not only complied with the requeſt of Parliament, but, by a meſſage to each Houſe, informed them he had conferred on the relict of Sir Ralph Abercromby, the dignity of a Baroneſs of Great Britain, by the title of Baroneſs Abercromby, of Aboukir, with remainder to the heirs male of the deceaſed General; and as he was deſirous of ſettling a clear annuity of 2000l. on her Ladyſhip, and the next two heirs male of Sir Ralph on whom the barony ſhould deſcend, he recommended to the Houſe of Commons to provide the proper means of granting, extending, ſecuring, and ſettling ſuch annuity, as ſhould be thought moſt effectual. With this requeſt both Houſes cheerfully complied, and a bill framed accordingly, paſſed without oppoſition.

April 16. It may not be improper to mention, that Parliament had previouſly beſtowed ſimilar marks of approbation on Sir Hyde Parker, Lord Nelſon, and thoſe who, under them, achieved the victory of Copenhagen, and alſo voted the erection of a monument in St. Paul's, to Captains Moſſe and Riou, who fell in that glorious conflict.

May 14. In conſequence of hoſtilities having been commenced by France and Spain againſt Portugal, a royal meſſage was delivered, requiring a ſubſidy of 300,000l. to enable the Queen of that country to protect her dominions againſt her enemies. This meſſage being referred to a Committee, Lord Hawkeſbury defended the ſyſtem of granting ſubſidies by this country, as a broad and liberal policy, obſerving, that the only war in the laſt century, in which we had been unſucceſsful, was the American war, in which we could grant no ſubſidies, becauſe we had no continental allies. He noticed alſo the fidelity of Portugal to its engagements with this country, and cited the conduct of the French towards Naples, to prove how little probability there was, that Portugal ſhould make peace conſiſtently with her honour and independence. The ſubſidy propoſed would enable her to negotiate on better terms, or, ſhould negotiation fail, to prepare for more effectual reſiſtance. The ſmallneſs of the ſupply might be an objection, but for this Lord Hawkeſbury apologized, on account of the ſtate of the money-market,

market, arising from the vaſt ſums expended by this country for corn.

Mr. Grey, diſſenting from the motion, would not lay down any univerſal poſition with regard to ſubſidies; each muſt be determined by a candid examination of its peculiar circumſtances. The late miniſters, and the Noble Lord following their example, ſeemed to think, that in all poſſible caſes ſubſidies were politic, and nothing ſo deſirable as opportunities of granting them; yet the hiſtory of the preſent war would ſhew, that extravagant ſums had been ſquandered in the moſt injudicious manner, and produced the moſt fatal conſequences. He admitted the importance of Portugal to this country, but affirmed that the propoſed ſupply, if employed in forwarding negotiation, would only raiſe the demands of the enemy, and finally enrich Bonaparte. Miniſters ſpoke of ſacred obligations, but ſince when had they commenced? An invaſion of Portugal had long been threatened; the miſſion of Berthier to Madrid in the ſummer, and of the Firſt Conſul's brother, in the beginning of the winter; while a celebrated general was ſoon afterward diſpatched, and a formidable army collected on the Spaniſh frontier, indicated a fixed reſolution to attempt invaſion, but miniſters remained inactive. Now, when it was doubtful whether our money could arrive before the enemy ſhould be in poſſeſſion of Liſbon, they manifeſted the greateſt zeal, and ſaid that by delay we ſhould incur eternal diſgrace. If 20 or 30,000 French troops were to join thoſe of Spain, Portugal could not have the ſlighteſt chance of ſucceſs in reſiſting them. Had the Portugueſe ſpirit to enliſt and fight for their country, there was now no time to bring them into a ſtate of diſcipline, or even to raiſe them. When Portugal was not threatened with invaſion; when Spain ſhewed diſpoſitions rather friendly; when every ſoldier that could be raiſed in France, was ſent to Italy, and the Banks of the Rhine, then a formidable Britiſh force was kept up in Portugal, under Sir Charles Stuart. When the continental war was over; when our enemies had the ability, and teſtified the ſtrongeſt inclination to attack our ally, what did we do for her? Portugal was left, without a ſingle Britiſh ſoldier, an eaſy prey to the conqueror. Our ancient and natural ally did not want money, but a well-diſciplined army. With that ſhe might have ſome chance of ſafety; without it, none. The expedition to Egypt, rendered neceſſary by the breach of the convention of El Ariſch alone, had prevented our giving the moſt effectual aſſiſtance to Portugal; and ſhould we ſucceed in expelling the French from the former, which he was ſorry ſtill to conſider doubtful, we ſhould ſtill in Europe be ſuffering a ſevere loſs.

Mr. Pitt reprobated the mode adopted by Mr. Grey, of making collateral charges againſt the late adminiſtration, with reſpect to ſubſidies, while notice had been given of a ſpecific motion on the ſubject, which had never been brought forward, but which he was ready, at any time, to meet. He vindicated the drawing of the troops from Portugal for the recovery of Egypt, and ably defended his own adminiſtration againſt the allega-

allegation of tardineſs and want of energy. To the vigour and ſucceſſes of that adminiſtration, he ſaid, the Hon. Gentleman owed the opportunity he then uſed, of talking in his place with retroſpective criticiſm of the conduct of the war. Mr. Pitt again juſtified the refuſal of the convention of El Ariſch by noticing the great advantages France would have derived from the aſſiſtance of that veteran army in Europe, and concluded in theſe terms. If the Hon. Gentleman conſidered the propoſal before the Houſe as too late, and the ſubſidy too ſmall, he ought, if conſiſtent with himſelf, to endeavour to accelerate that which he deemed tardy, and increaſe that which he thought too ſparing, inſtead of oppoſing it altogether. The ſum in queſtion was not advanced to Portugal for the purpoſe of inducing her, againſt her judgment, to continue the conteſt, and brave danger; but if for their own ſakes, the rulers of that country thought it more wiſe, more manly, more dignified, and more ſafe to meet the danger, rather than to agree to unknown conceſſion, indignity, and inſult, then Great Britain would be true to her engagements; and although Government would abſolve Portugal from her promiſes, they would not make that abſolution a maſk to conceal their own avarice or puſillanimity. The money could only be uſeful, if Portugal had ſpirit and courage enough (which no ſubſidy could give) not to compromiſe with an oppreſſive and perfidious enemy. The motion was carried.

May 19. When the report was brought up, Mr. Robſon objected to the meaſure, founding himſelf on the ingratitude and treachery of thoſe powers, to whom, in the preſent war, Great Britain had granted ſubſidies and loans. Mr. Nicholls alſo made a few obſervations on the tardineſs and inutility of the ſupply, compared with an aid in troops, but the reſolution of the Committee was agreed to.

In the Houſe of Lords, the only objection was the ſmallneſs of the ſupply; the Marquis of Sligo bore honourable teſtimony to the good diſpoſition of the Portugueze nation toward this country; and the Marquis of Townſhend ſtated his own knowledge of the ſame diſpoſition prevailing in 1762, when he ſerved in the army, ſent to aid that kingdom. May 20.

Several meaſures were adopted in the courſe of the ſeſſion, for improving the domeſtic condition of the country, in reſpect to the military. An act paſſed for regulating the Scotch militia, a clauſe of which, enabling officers of Scotch regiments to ſit with Engliſh officers of equal rank in courts martial on Engliſh officers, was, after ſome debates, withdrawn. On the motion of Mr. Dundas, a bill was alſo brought in, by which the militia of Ireland was placed on the ſame footing with that of England, in the number of officers and men.

Looking beyond the mere occaſions of the day, and contemplating the abſolute neceſſity there was, in the preſent ſtate of Europe, for a ſchool in Great Britain, where a certain number of young perſons might be regularly trained up in military ſcience, his Majeſty, by a meſſage, June 3.

informed

informed Parliament, that such an establishment had been formed under his direction, and considering that it must conduce to the improvement of that skill and discipline, which, combined with the valour of the British troops, had so often maintained the rights, and asserted the honour of the nation, he recommended to the Commons the making of an adequate provision for enabling him to accomplish an object of such great national importance.

The Message being referred to a Committee, Mr. Yorke, the Secretary at War, explained the plan in the following terms. June 8. "The proposition applies "to the institution of a Royal "College, or Seminary for mi-"litary instruction, comprehend-"ing as well the education of "such young men as are, from "early life, intended for the ar-"my, in the rudiments of mili-"tary science, previous to their "attaining the age which ena-"bles them to hold a commission, "as the perfecting and forming a "certain number of officers of ma-"turer years, and riper expe-"rience, in the more arduous, "difficult, and important duties "of their profession; I mean "those which belong to the Ge-"neral Staff of the Army, and in "particular to the quarter-master "general's department in the field. "It is unnecessary, I presume, to "observe, that it is this de-"partment of the service that is "particularly charged with all "the combinations, movements, "positions, and supplies of an ar-"my. The papers and estimates "which I had the honour of pre-"senting to the House, will suf-"ficiently explain the nature and "details of the proposed institu-"tion. From these it will ap-"pear, that it is intended to con-"sist of a senior and junior depart-"ment; the first and most im-"portant of which will be occu-"pied in the education of offi-"cers for the staff, and will in-"clude thirty officers, selected "from the service, and recom-"mended by their zeal and intel-"ligence; grounded at least in the "rudiments of their profession, and "of an age capable of reflection. "It is to this class more particu-"larly that the chief military "director and superintendant will "devote their time, and apply "their personal instructions; the "nature and design of which, I "presume, it will not be neces-"sary for me to enlarge upon in "this place, as the object to be "attained will naturally suggest "to every mind the mode and "system of information necessary "to be afforded and required. It "will be sufficient, perhaps, to "state that the plan of instruc-"tion for this class appears to "have been conceived on the "justest practical military prin-"ciples; adapting itself particu-"larly to the nature of ground "actually under examination at "the time; to the choice of camps "and positions; to the best mode "of occupying, attacking, or de-"fending them with a given "force; to the proper combina-"tion of all the component parts "of an army; to its movements "from place to place, either in "advancing or retreating; and, "among other essential acquire-"ments, to the most ready and "effectual means of affording as-

" ſiſtance to the commanding Ge-
" neral, in making his diſpoſi-
" tions, by military plans, ra-
" pidly deſigned by the habitual
" accuracy of the eye, corrected
" by the ſcientific preparation and
" judgment of the mind. This
" plan of inſtruction, ſo deſcribed
" in its nature and details, has
" been already acted upon, and
" brought to maturity, by the very
" able and ſkilful general officer,
" whoſe ſervices in this line this
" country has at preſent the ad-
" vantage of poſſeſſing; (I mean
" General Jarry;) firſt in the Pruſ-
" ſian ſervice, under the inſpec-
" tion and with the approbation
" of Frederick the Great; and
" latterly in this country, at High
" Wycombe, (with the aſſiſtance
" of a very able and intelligent
" officer of our own, Colonel Le
" Merchant,) though on a very
" limited ſcale, in a manner the
" moſt uſeful and advantageous to
" the ſervice. I muſt alſo ob-
" ſerve, that this inſtitution is
" nearly of the ſame ſort and de-
" ſcription with that which is
" now in uſe for the formation of
" ſtaff officers in the Auſtrian,
" Pruſſian, and French armies;
" and that it has the advantage of
" having been examined and re-
" commended by his Royal High-
" neſs the Commander in Chief,
" aſſiſted by the quarter maſter,
" and adjutant generals, and by a
" board of general officers of the
" higheſt reputation in the Britiſh
" army.

" The ſecond, or junior depart-
" ment, is intended to receive
" 300 young men, from the age
" of 14 to 16; 100, the ſons of
" noblemen and gentlemen, in-
" tended for the profeſſion of arms;
" 50 cadets of the Eaſt India
" Company; 100, the ſons of of-
" ficers actually in his Majeſty's
" ſervice; and 50, the ſons of
" officers who have died, or been
" diſabled in the ſervice, leaving
" families in diſtreſſed circum-
" ſtances. For theſe, maſters and
" profeſſors of all the arts, ſci-
" ences, and accompliſhments re-
" lating to the military profeſ-
" ſion will be provided, of the
" deſcriptions, and under the de-
" tails ſpecified in the papers and
" eſtimates, to which I beg leave
" to refer for the particulars. It
" is further propoſed, that as the
" eſtabliſhment is intended to be
" intirely of a military nature,
" it ſhall be governed and regu-
" lated as a military body, by
" the rules and ordinances pre-
" ſcribed for the diſcipline of his
" Majeſty's ſervice; with ſuch
" additional regulations and re-
" ſtrictions as may be found ne-
" ceſſary for the conduct of youth,
" and the good order of the inſti-
" tution."

The reſidue of Mr. Yorke's ſpeech, which was one of great ability, conſiſted in obſervations calculated to demonſtrate, on every ground, general as well as particular, the utility and even the abſolute neceſſity of the eſtabliſhment. In the courſe of the debate he alſo recommended an additional ſum of 8,400l. to be granted for the purpoſe of founding a military aſylum at Chelſea, for the reception of 500 children of ſoldiers, in addition to the 500 already maintained, and that the ſum ſhould be defrayed from the public purſe inſtead of being levied on the pay of the military. To the latter propoſition, which was enforced

enforced by a ſpeech from Mr. Windham, no objection was made, nor was the oppoſition to the military college at all ſerious; it was confined to a few obſervations on ſtanding armies and barracks, with praiſes of the old conſtitutional defence, the navy and militia; theſe objections ſlightly urged by Mr. Jones and Mr. James Martin, were anſwered by Dr. Laurence, Mr. Windham, and Mr. Wilberforce, and the grants voted without a diviſion. In the Houſe of Lords the diſcuſſion was ſtill ſhorter, and the bill founded on the reſolutions of the committee paſſed without impediment.

June 12. As the laſt act of his Indian adminiſtration, Mr. Dundas laid before the Houſe of Commons, in a committee, a diſtinct view of financial affairs, and general information as to the ſituation of that country. In a very long ſpeech, of which no abſtract can afford an adequate notion, he diſplayed the ſtate of the Company's concerns in every part of India, illuſtrating by a compariſon with former years, their progreſs in proſperity, or lapſe into embarraſſment, diſcloſing, in minute ſpecific ſtatements, the ſources of revenue, and cauſes of expenditure, and vindicating the neceſſity of thoſe wars, which had, for a time, retarded their proſperity. The general reſult of the revenues, and charges of the ſeveral preſidences in India, as eſtimated for the year 1800-1, was as follows:

REVENUES.

Of Bengal	- -	£.6,339,204	
Madras	- -	3,273,071	
Bombay	- -	300,475	
Total Revenues	-	———	- 9,912,750

CHARGES.

Of Bengal	- -	4,422,048	
Madras	- -	3,723,112	
Bombay	- -	1,051,693	
Total Charges	-	———	- 9,196,853
Net eſtimated revenue of the three Preſidences,			715,897
Deduct ſupplies from Bengal to Bencoolen, &c.			82,360
The Remainder is	- -		633,537
And deducted from the intereſt payable on the debts			1,082,042
Shews the eſtimated deficiency of the territorial, &c. revenues to amount to	- -		448,505
Which being deducted from the produce of the ſales of imports, amounting to	- -		591,975
The Remainder	- -		£.143,470

is the amount eſtimated to be applicable to the purpoſes of commerce in the year 1800-1. The advances expected to be made in this year, for

the purchaſe of inveſtments in India, are ſtated at 2,109,000, and for China 743,000l. together 2,852,000l.

The general comparative view of the debts and aſſets, by the laſt and preſent year's accounts, was

The debts in India have increaſed in the ſum of			£.1,644,876
Deducting therefrom the decreaſe of the debts at home			436,233
The net increaſe of debt will appear to be			1,208,643
The aſſets in India have increaſed		£.1,310,446	
Deducting the decreaſe of aſſets at home amounting to		781,214	
The increaſe of aſſets is		529,232	
To which is to be added the net improved balance at China and St. Helena, as follows:			
China improvement	£.1,446,101		
Deduct St. Helena, which is leſs than laſt year	3,869		
The difference is		1,442,232	
And the total ſhews the net increaſe of the aſſets to be			£.1,971,464
Deducting the increaſe of debt, above ſtated, from the increaſe of the aſſets, an improvement would appear, in this point of view, to have been made in the ſtate of the Company's affairs, generally in the courſe of the year, to the amount of			762,821

But as, on a nearer examination of the ſtatements from which theſe computations are made, it appears that, at the period for making up ſtock accounts at home, thoſe from India were not received to the date on which the ſtate of the debts and aſſets abroad is now made up: I have found it neceſſary, in order to bring this very material part of the calculation to as near a point of accuracy as practicable, in a general review of ſo extenſive a concern, to make ſeveral adjuſtments. They are as follow:

On the debit ſide of the account, N° 24, an adjuſtment is made of the quick ſtock at Bengal, by the

addition

addition of bills drawn on the remittance loan. As the amount of thoſe bills could not be included with the bills owing in England, from not having been accepted, and as they were excluded from the account of the debts in India on the 30th of April, 1800, from the ſuppoſition of this debt being payable here, they could not properly be inſerted in any other form. In the view now given, their amount ſhould be deducted from the improvement, being certainly a debt owing by the Company. It is - £.391,915

On the credit ſide of the account, N° 23, it appears neceſſary to make exactly the ſame kind of adjuſtment as in the laſt year, on the value of the cargoes from England not arrived in India, at the date of the ſeveral quick ſtocks on which the home accounts are made up. As the ſtate of the aſſets abroad is calculated in quick ſtocks of a later date, and included a part of thoſe cargoes, it will be neceſſary to deduct their amount, which was - - - £.280,441

The total ſum to be deducted is - - 672,356

The difference remaining amounts to - £. 90,465

and is the ſum in which the general ſtate of the whole concern appears, on the principles of this examination, to have improved in the courſe of the year of account now before the committee.

Such were the ſtatements for the current year, on which Mr. Dundas founded a ſeries of reſolutions, the moſt material of which affirmed, that on the 1ſt of March, 1801, the debts of the Eaſt India Company amounted to 5,393,989l.; their effects to 15,404,736l. and that their ſales had increaſed ſince February 1793 from 4,988,300l. to 7,602,041l.

Theſe reſolutions paſſed the committee without oppoſition, but on the report being taken into conſideration, Mr. Jones, in the abſence of Mr. Dundas, made ſeveral reflections on his ſtatements, and ſeizing one of his phraſes, that during his adminiſtration of Indian affairs, chaos had been ſucceeded by ſunſhine; Mr. Jones obſerved, that on the Company the ſun did not ſhine, but chaos was come again, and termed Mr. Dundas's ſunſhine mere moonſhine. He criticized with ſeverity the wars and expences of India, particularly the penſions, terming them, and the accounts of Engliſh and Iriſh penſions, which by order of the Houſe had been laid on the table, three ſhocking and terrible *livres rouges*. He alſo intimated that the Company borrowed money to pay their dividends, but this fact was poſitively denied by Mr. Dent. The aſſertions that the affairs of the

June 24.

Company were not only leſs proſperous than they had been ſtated by Mr. Dundas, but even in a rapid decline, were corroborated by Sir Francis Baring and Mr. Johnſtone, but denied by Mr. David Scott, and Mr. William Dundas; there was, however, no motion but merely a notice from Mr. Jones, that in the enſuing ſeſſion he would call the attention of the Houſe to this ſubject.

The Weſt Indies alſo claimed a portion of attention from parliament, the local wants of ſome iſlands were relieved as neceſſity required, and a bill paſſed, allowing a drawback on ſugar exported. Another meaſure of conſiderable importance relating to theſe colonies was introduced to parliament by Sir William Scott, who ſtated the great irregularities and inconveniences which had ariſen from want of knowledge and other deficiences in the Prize Courts, and brought in a bill for their better regulation. The chief effect of the law was to limit the eſtabliſhment to three courts at Jamaica, Martinique, and Halifax; the judges of which were to be ſelected from the Engliſh bar. The general outline was received on all ſides of the Houſe with approbation, but when it was recommended in a committee, that the judges on their retiring ſhould have penſions for life, an objection was made againſt it, as tending to increaſe the influence of the crown. Mr. Addington readily admitting the force of this obſervation, it was afterward fixed, that the judges ſhould have a ſalary of 2000l. a year during their continuance in office, and of 1000l. after their reſignation, provided they had ſerved a certain number of years, and under other reſtrictions. April 29.

The commerce with America was alſo a ſubject of particular regulation, as was that of Malta, and for the prevention of diſputes, the iſland itſelf was declared to be a part of Europe.

It may have been obſerved, that in a preceding page the name of Mr. Horne Tooke occurs as a member of the Houſe of Commons; he was returned on a vacancy for Old Sarum, and, according to the opinions which at the time generally prevailed, it was conſidered impoſſible that he, who was known to have been in holy orders, ſhould retain a ſeat. On the firſt day of his appearance, his preſence occaſioned the animadverſion of Earl Temple, who ſaid he ſhould wait the allotted period of fourteen days, to ſee whether any petition was preferred againſt his return; if not, he ſhould move to take the ſubject into conſideration. No petition being preſented, Earl Temple, preparatory to his intended proceeding, moved that the deputy regiſter of the dioceſe of Sarum, and the pariſh clerk of Brentford, ſhould attend the Houſe, to prove that Mr. Horne Tooke had received prieſt's orders, which, if they eſtabliſhed, he ſhould proceed to other meaſures, according to the judgment and deciſion of the Houſe. Mr. Horne Tooke conſidered this as ſetting the cart before the horſe; the proper mode would be, in his opinion, firſt to eſtabliſh the principle, that a clergyman could not legally ſit in parliament, and then inquire into the application of facts. He was, Feb. 16. Mar. 6.

however,

however, willing to ſave unneceſſary trouble by acknowledging that he did receive prieſt's orders; but the Speaker decided that ſuch an admiſſion was not ſufficient to ground a proceeding of the Houſe.

Mar. 10. The witneſſes being in attendance, Lord Temple ſaid a few words in vindication of his own principles, exculpating himſelf from all perſonal and profeſſional diſreſpect, and declaring the queſtion he meant to try was, whether, in theſe times of innovation and reform, the Houſe ſhould depart from that rule by which, for a century paſt, the members had thought fit to abide. He would therefore adduce the evidence, and then propoſe the appointment of a committee to ſearch for precedents, with a view of finally moving the ineligibility of the honourable and reverend gentleman to ſit in the Houſe. Mr. Fox objected to the production of witneſſes, as it was only to gratify or illuminate a ſingle member, and not founded on any reſolution expreſſing a doubt exiſting in the Houſe in general. No precedent for ſuch a proceeding had been cited, and he thought it would be the more regular courſe to refer the matter to a committee of privileges.

Mr. Horne Tooke complained of the manner in which Earl Temple had brought forward his motion, and affirmed from his own experience, having before been in the cuſtody of the Serjeant at Arms, that to have proceeded on his acknowledgment that he had been ordained a prieſt, would have been perfectly conformable with precedent. When a perſon at the bar being aſked whether he was the printer of a certain paper, anſwered in the affirmative, he was ſent where he deſerved to go. Conſidering the preſent proceeding to originate not in perſonal, but political animoſity, he beſought the Houſe to take into conſideration his private and public character, his morals, and his public principles; the actions he had done, and the whole of his life. On theſe points he meant to claim merit with the Houſe; he was the cauſe of the act ſo frequently alluded to by the name of the Grenville Act, and thoſe who were old enough in the Houſe, muſt know that to be a fact; ſhould the Noble Lord ſucceed in his endeavour, he would only gain the honour of inculpating the Houſe in the diſgrace of defeating the whole of that act, which bore the name of his anceſtor. If his lordſhip ſhould ſucceed in voting him out of the the Houſe, all the old miſchiefs and exploded practices, ſuch as very corrupt returns, (for there had been ſuch things) would be revived, and in full force. This was an argument of intereſt only, but he would ſtate the principle ſo clearly that any country gentleman, or even any lady might underſtand it. The queſtion whether he could ſit in the Houſe, or no, muſt be decided by ſome ſpecific, poſitive law, or by reference to the canon law. If there was a poſitive law, it would in courſe be produced, if not, ſeveral points would ariſe for conſideration, and the deciſion of one of them in his favour would deſtroy all the others. The queſtions would be whether the canon law could bind the proceedings of that Houſe? How far and in what manner

ner that law bound even the clergy; did it bind them out of the profeſſion, did it follow them into civil life? The third queſtion would be, did the canon law bind him who had been a prieſt? That would involve another, which referred to the caſe of a perſon who had taken clerical orders, but renounced them, and what would be the conſequences? On this queſtion the whole deciſion would turn; if it were concluded in his favour the inquiry muſt end, but if not the other two queſtions would remain to be diſcuſſed. There were two canons, both relating to the ſame point; that a man in holy orders ſhould not wear arms, nor exerciſe the office of a juſtice of the peace. Theſe were put back. The other, that no deacon or miniſter ſhould, at any time, relinquiſh the order, and uſe himſelf as a layman. It muſt then appear that a ſeat in parliament called for functions and duties totally unfit for a perſon who had received clerical orders; and it muſt be determined that a ſeat in parliament is that ſort of uſing a man as a layman, that a clergyman could not ſit in the Houſe of Commons without offending againſt the canon law, and that the canon law was binding on the Houſe. He would not then argue the queſtions, but merely ſtate them; and he ſhould be glad to hear them diſcuſſed by the learned members of the Houſe, becauſe the greater their characters were, the greater their reſponſibility for the uſe of them.

A long and rather warm debate enſued, in which Mr. Fox, Mr. Sheridan, Mr. Erſkine, and ſome other members, did not admit it to be law that prieſthood diſqualified a perſon from ſitting in the Houſe, and inſiſted that it would be the regular courſe to appoint a committee for the purpoſe of diſcovering precedents of proceeding on this point, and for this end Mr. Fox moved an adjournment. This propoſition was overruled by 150 to 76, and witneſſes having been examined, who proved Mr. Tooke to have been ordained a prieſt by the name of John Horne, and to have officiated in that quality at New Brentford, Earl Temple moved for a ſelect committee to examine the Journals for precedents reſpecting the eligibility of perſons in holy orders to ſit in the Houſe, and to report thereon. This motion was carried without oppoſition, and a committee of twenty-ſeven members appointed, among whom were many of the firſt legal ability and parliamentary experience.

April 1. The report preſented to the Houſe ſtated, that before the 8th of Henry IV. (when the practice of returning citizens and burgeſſes by indentures, annexed to the writ began) the names were generally returned without any addition whatever, except in the inſtance of knights, and the general addition to each return of "citizens and burgeſſes." During that period, however, in five inſtances, the addition *clericus* appeared to the names of members. From the 8th of Henry IV. the additions were more frequent and particular, containing often ſpecific occupations, as "Sadler, mercer," and the like; but none that of "*clericus*," except in the ſingle inſtance of John Robſon, who appeared to be the perſon whoſe return was declared void by the

the Houſe in the 18th James I. Under the uncertainty of the application of ſome of theſe deſcriptions to perſons in holy orders, the committee had thought it fit to inſert all thoſe that could poſſibly admit of ſuch a conſtruction, though fully aware that many of them were well known to be civilians only. As applicable to this part of the ſubject, they alſo obſerved, that although they had inſerted the caſe of Sir Thomas Haxey, clerk, as having given riſe to different opinions, they found on an examination directed by them into the returns, ſtill perfect and extant in the Tower, of the 20th year of Richard II. that no ſuch name occurred amongſt them; and, as to the name of Chriſtopher Parkins, returned as Dean of Carliſle, in the 39th and 43d Elizabeth, that the ſaid deanry was granted to him with an expreſs diſpenſation with his not being in any ſacred or other orders. The precedents which were expreſsly cited were few; that of Alexander Newell, in 1553, ſhewed that the Commons declared his return void, becauſe he had a voice in the Convocation Houſe, although, as it appeared, he had not cure of ſouls. Two inſtances were cited in 1620, which were ſimilarly decided, and in both which Sir Edward Coke ſtrongly ſupported the deciſion. In 1661, the return of Sir Joſeph Craddock, who was in holy orders, was declared void, and the name of Mr. Wandesford, the petitioning candidate, was inſerted in the return in his ſtead. It appearing, however, that a material caſe was omitted, the committee were allowed to preſent a ſecond report, in which was inſerted the proceedings in 1784 on the petition of John Barrington, Eſq. againſt the return of Edward Ruſhworth, clerk, for Newport, in the Iſle of Wight, and whom a ſelect committee, under the Grenville Act, declared to be duly elected, although it was proved that he had been ordained a deacon, and licenſed to ſerve, and actually had ſerved a curacy in Wiltſhire.

The conſideration of this report occaſioned a long debate. Earl Temple commenced it by doing juſtice to the great ability, diligence, and perſeverance of Mr. Bragge, who was chairman of the committee, to whom, he ſaid, the Houſe owed every thing which the report afforded, either of immediate precedent, or of illuſtration. His lordſhip then entered into a review of the hiſtory of the clergy, from times when the conſtitution was yet but an infant in its cradle, when that body formed a party the moſt powerful in the country, poſſeſſing excluſively all the ſources of learning, being inriched by the ſuperſtition, ignorance, and inſenſibility of the people, and enjoying the undiſputed right of taxing themſelves. This latter circumſtance probably occaſioned the neceſſity of ſummoning, in thoſe times, the Lords, Commons, and Clergy to parliament as three eſtates. Until the 25th Edward I. however, the privilege of being ſummoned was confined to the ſuperior clergy; in the writs iſſued by that monarch the præmunientes clauſe was firſt inſerted, in virtue of which the biſhops iſſued procuratorial letters to their clergy, directing them to appoint proctors

May 14.

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to appear on their behalf in parliament, and treat with the prelates and great men of the realm of the things to be debated in it for the good of the King and kingdom; and to consent to what should be agreed to on their behalf, and to engage themselves to abide by what their proctors should do, under the caution of all their goods. But although summoned to parliament, their privileges were not the same with those of the Commons; in ecclesiastical matters they seemed to have had the sole controul, in civil never. After the session they returned to their constituents, the clergy, giving an account of what they had done, and thus establishing beyond a doubt, that they attended as representatives of a distinct estate, and, in no case, of the commonalty of the realm. Pursuing the historical detail, his lordship shewed how the right of the clergy to sit in parliament had gradually declined until the year 1664, when they gave up the assumed privilege of self taxation, and received that of voting for knights of the shire, at first tacitly allowed, but afterward confirmed by act of parliament. The right of self taxation alone was claimed by the clergy in their convocation, or by their proctors in parliament, when their power was at its most tremendous pitch; they never claimed to sit as representatives of the Commons, although, in the reigns of Elizabeth and James I. the inferior clergy had petitioned for it as a favour, alleging, as a principal argument, that they would always be zealous in supporting the prerogative of the crown. The statute in the time of Charles I. passed to disqualify the clergy from sitting in parliament, was, as clearly appeared from the history of the times, levelled against the bishops alone, but to attain the proposed end with any appearance of candour, it was necessary to make the terms of the statute so extensive as to include the inferior clergy.

Noticing the instances mentioned in the report, Earl Temple insisted that the term *clericus* did not exclusively belong to clergymen, but was generally applied to every lawyer, and man of learning. He then noticed each of the cases cited in the report of the committee, which all strongly proved his point. Even that of Mr. Rushworth, as reported, did not form a conclusive exception. A gentleman not professing to be in holy orders, but appearing in a lay habit, and assuming lay functions, is elected for the Borough of Newport, and takes his seat unnoticed and unknown. He is petitioned against on the ground of his being in deacon's orders, and a committee is appointed to consider that petition; the report of that committee is, that the sitting member is duly elected; this decision is coupled with no statement of Mr. Rushworth's being in holy orders; no principle is laid down, no reason is assigned, no record of parliament presented to direct the judgment of the House; nothing can strictly be known, but that Mr. Rushworth was duly elected. In the Reports published by Mr. Luders, however, it appeared that the principle contended for by Mr. Rushworth's counsel was, that he, being only a deacon, was not ineligible, which he would have been

been, if a prieſt. It appeared on the report before the Houſe, that ſome perſons returned to repreſent the Univerſity of Oxford, might have been in holy orders, but on inquiry it had been aſcertained that every one of them was a layman. It would be no argument to allege that prieſts had frequently ſat in the Houſe; ſuch a fact would not alter the caſe: Peers, minors, or aliens, clearly ineligible, might at that moment be ſitting, but a caſual and unnoticed departure from a law could not be termed a repeal of it. Having then noticed the law authorities which proved the ineligibility of the clergy, ſtated the danger which would reſult to the conſtitution from the admiſſion of a fourth eſtate into Parliament, and from the vaſt acquiſition of power the miniſter of the day would gain by the lure of church patronage to eccleſiaſtical members, his Lordſhip adverted to the defence already ſet up by Mr. Horne Tooke, that he was no longer a clergyman, having diveſted himſelf of his orders. This Lord Temple contended, was both by the canon and common law, impoſſible, and alluding to expreſſions in former debates, he ſolemnly adjured Mr. Tooke to abſtain from the uſe of ludicrous or unſeemly phraſes: he had, as appeared in evidence at the bar, adminiſtered the ſacrament; he ſhould recollect that ſolemn office, and tremble when he talked of getting rid by quarantine, of the infection of duties which he aſſumed at the altar of his God. After a brief recapitulation, and a vindication of his own motives, his Lordſhip moved for a new writ for the borough of Old Sarum, in the room of the Reverend John Horne Tooke, who, being at the time of his election, in prieſt's orders, was, and is incapable of ſitting in the Houſe.

Mr. Addington followed Earl Temple, and, paying the higheſt compliments to the ſpeech he had delivered, traced, in a more compendious manner, the hiſtory of the clergy, as connected with their ſitting in Parliament; noticed the great evils which might reſult from ſuch a practice in theſe times, when one third of the livings of the clergy were diſpoſeable at the will of the crown; and deſcanted on the precedents adduced, and particularly that of Mr. Ruſhworth, in which he diſſented from the deciſion of the Committee, becauſe there was, as to the clerical character, no difference between a prieſt and a deacon, and conſequently the diſtinction on which their determination was founded, was erroneous. Still he did not concur in all parts of the motion before the Houſe, which ſeemed to call on them to infringe the proviſions of Mr. Grenville's Act, and was beſides open to much inconvenience. Suppoſe, he ſaid, the Houſe were to agree to the motion of the Noble Lord, what would be the practical effect of it? Was there any thing binding on thoſe who had elected the Hon. Gentleman not to return him again? Could they, by any vote like that propoſed by the Noble Lord, be precluded from returning him again? If he was again returned, and a petition were to be preſented againſt him, that petition muſt, under the authority of Mr. Grenville's Act, be referred to a Committee, which Committee might, without

without any contumacy, differ from the reſolution of the Houſe, ſuppoſing the Houſe to form one, according to the tenor of the motion before it. Such an event would, of itſelf, create much embarraſſment in the proceedings of Parliament. If no petition was preſented, the caſe would come again in the ſhape it now ſtood, and be perpetually, unleſs the legiſlature were to apply a remedy to remove the whole evil at once. His wiſh was, to ſave the Houſe the diſgrace into which it would be thrown by ſuch a courſe. He conſidered the inexpediency of allowing perſons in holy orders to ſit: and, to obviate it altogether, a Bill, in his opinion, ſhould be prepared for that purpoſe; and, in that caſe, he believed there was no meaſure on the general principle of which there was more agreement of opinion, although perhaps there might be ſome difficulty in the detail. He had no difficulty in ſaying, nor had he any objection to his declaration being recorded, that a perſon in holy orders was not eligible; that the clerical character was indelible; and that the canon of 1603, built on another a little while preceding, was one of ſufficient force to be binding on the opinion of that Houſe, and to be of the beſt authority. That canon had declared, that no perſon in holy orders could interfere in temporal affairs, under the penalty of excommunication. He would, indeed, remain a deacon or a prieſt as before; but it would be a great deal too much to ſay, that he could thereby ſo diveſt himſelf of the clerical character, as to be intitled to take up other privileges, from which, in that character, he would be reſtrained! If the propoſition before the Houſe was merely to declare that a perſon in holy orders was ineligible to a ſeat, he ſhould have ſupported the affirmative, but there were parts of the motion, which, if they ſtood alone, (for inſtance, that of a new writ in this caſe) he would have met with a direct negative. Such a mode of encountering the propoſition would however be liable to miſrepreſentation, becauſe voting againſt it while he approved of part, would look like total diſapprobation; and therefore, to preclude the poſſibility of any doubt on that ſubject, and to put the Houſe in the way of getting at the ulterior object, and as he conceived, the general wiſh of all parties, he moved, "That the other orders of the day be read."

Mr. Horne Tooke began by ſtating ſeveral circumſtances, principally relating to himſelf in the tranſactions of his earlier life, for the purpoſe of ſhewing that, although on ſeveral occaſions, his views and intereſts had been thwarted, he was not deſirous of engaging in perſonal controverſies; and he made many complaints of the manner in which the preſent inquiry had been conducted by Earl Temple. On the queſtion itſelf, he ſhould not trouble the Houſe with much law or divinity; he would wave every advantage which he might derive from abſtruſe reading or legal quibbles. The report proceeded on the ſuppoſition of his being in orders; whoever he was that drew up that report, he was utterly ignorant of the Saxon language, having miſtaken the character no leſs than

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eleven times in tranſcribing a manuſcript of the time of Henry VI. containing no more than twenty-one lines. The report was ſaid to contain every thing in the Journals which at all bore on the queſtion, but yet it omitted to ſtate that all the perſons named in it, who were declared ineligible, actually continued to ſit till they were diſqualified by Act of Parliament. It had often been declared, that minors and aliens were incapable to ſit in the Houſe of Commons; yet, till the reign of King William, they both occaſionally ſat. It had often been reſolved, that the eldeſt ſons of Peers, mayors of corporations, and other claſſes, were ineligible, individuals of which ſtill compoſed the Houſe. No expreſs Act of Parliament was ever made to exclude them. Though it would be unjuſt to diſable a man for actions committed before the Act, yet, if an Act were fairly brought in to declare ineligible all who had been in orders, he ſhould not oppoſe it. To diſqualify the beneficed clergy from ſitting in the Houſe, would certainly tend much to preſerve its purity; but there was ſurely a great difference between one ſtill-exerciſing clerical functions, and one who had not exerciſed them for many years, and never meant to exerciſe them more. Lord Coke and Mr. Juſtice Blackſtone had been cited, but there were other authorities, which ſhould not have been forgotten; he had read four or five of great celebrity, and among them Lord Bacon, who thought exactly as he did; and Mr. Hatſell, whoſe knowledge was unrivalled, declared the ſame opinion. The precedents ſtated in the report all took place before the convocation ceaſed to tax the clergy, and were therefore of little weight. In 1624 it was enacted, that no parſon or vicar ſhould have a voice in the election of knights of the ſhire. While this law was in force, certainly they had not the ſhadow of a claim to ſit in Parliament. To elect repreſentatives, and to repreſent electors, are privileges inſeparable; to allow the one, and withhold the other, would be contrary to the plaineſt dictates of common ſenſe and right reaſon. But, as ſince that period, the right of the clergy to vote at elections had been recognized, and by the 18th Geo. II. fully confirmed to them, they had, in conſequence, a right to repreſent their fellow-citizens. As Lord Coke had been ſo triumphantly mentioned, Mr. Tooke produced an original letter, written by him, and preſerved in the archives of the Univerſity of Cambridge, adviſing that body not at firſt to make choice of any one who was a member of the convocation, as ſome diſpute might ariſe; but rather to fix, at that election, on ſome doctor of the civil law, or other grave and learned layman. From this document he inferred that the great lawyer was of opinion they were ſeiſed of a right to elect either clergyman or layman, as they might think fit, but made a diſtinction between eligibility, and the policy of electing.

With reſpect to the indelible nature of the clerical character, and its operation as a diſqualification, Mr. Tooke put ſeveral caſes, and uſed many arguments to ſhew the inconvenience and abſurdity of thoſe propoſitions. A younger brother

brother, of a ſmall fortune, might take orders, but afterward, unexpectedly, ſucceed to a very large one; why ſhould he then be excluded from Parliament? What was proved by Mr. Tooke himſelf having taken orders, but that forty-one years ago he was a young man of fair character? Orders were not in the Church of England as in that of Rome, a ſacrament, but a mere ceremony, and ſurely a ceremony could not ſo alter a man as for ever to diſqualify him from the office of legiſlator. It was ſaid he could not be in Parliament, becauſe he might ſit in the convocation; it was forty years ſince he had been ordained, and he was never ſummoned, nor had ever heard of a convocation. "Were I," he ſaid, "a Jew, a Jeſuit, a Mahometan, "a Pagan, a Preſbyterian, a Quaker, there could not be the leaſt "objection to me. In ſpreading "the doctrines, and adminiſtering "the rites of theſe various religions and ſects, there is nothing "corrupting; but connexion with "the eſtabliſhed church, it ſeems, "leaves a foul and indelible ſtain. "In Roman Catholic countries, "there is nothing more eaſy than "for a prieſt to lay down his "orders, and the Pope diſpenſes "with his vow. In England, "every man is a pope to himſelf. "He confeſſes to himſelf, and "from himſelf he receives abſolution. He ought, of courſe, "to be able to become a layman "as ſoon as he changes his views." Even yet, he added, the door was not abſolutely barred againſt him, he might get depoſed, and ſo become undoubtedly eligible. The concluding part of Mr. Tooke's ſpeech conſiſted in obſervations on the phraſe of the canon, that a clergyman muſt not "uſe himſelf as a layman;" on the vague conſtruction of which he made ſeveral remarks, and adduced many caſes, together with inſtances of perſons who had renounced orders altogether, and embraced a different line of life; of peers, who had ſucceeded to their titles and ſeats in the Upper Houſe, although they were in orders; and of clergymen, who had, while exerciſing their clerical functions, been ſecretaries to, or otherwiſe employed by, miniſters of ſtate. Although he earneſtly wiſhed to be out of the Houſe, he held it to be his duty to ſtrive to continue in it as long as he could; and was happy to think that he was prepared to meet oppoſition in whatever way it might preſent itſelf. He wiſhed the Houſe to proceed legally; that an Act of Parliament ſhould be paſſed, founded on the broad baſis of general juſtice. Let the Houſe ſave its character as much as poſſible, and try to preſerve the confidence of the public.

In the debate which enſued, the eligibility of the clergy was maintained by Mr. Fox, Mr. Erſkine, and Mr. Grey; they argued the improbability that a convocation ſhould ever ſit again; defended the propriety of clergymen being Members of Parliament, as well as Magiſtrates, and, analyzing the precedents in the report, denied their application, and inſiſted that their paucity proved how little the point they were brought to ſupport could be conſidered as ſettled. On the other ſide were Mr. Simeon, Sir William Scott, the Attorney and Solicitor General,

and

and ſeveral other members. They contended that the canon law was concluſive againſt the eligibility of a clergyman, and abundantly ſupported by the precedents, the paucity of which aroſe from the general conviction that the point was fully eſtabliſhed. It was clearly underſtood that women could not ſit in Parliament; yet the Journals might be explored in vain for a ſingle deciſion on the ſubject. Thoſe who ſupported, and thoſe who denied the eligibility of the clergy, equally concurred, for the moſt part, in the propriety of getting rid of Lord Temple's motion, a circumſtance of which, in his reply, he loudly complained; for the order of the day, however, the previous queſtion was ſubſtituted, and on that being put, the original motion was rejected by 94 againſt 53.

May 6. In purſuance of the intention expreſſed in his ſpeech, the Chancellor of the Exchequer moved for leave to bring in a Bill to remove doubts reſpecting the eligibility of perſons in holy orders to ſit in Parliament. On this occaſion Earl Temple expreſſed his ſurprize at the conduct of Mr. Addington, in bringing forward ſuch a Bill, after having induced the Houſe to ſtultify its own proceedings, and after having given a vote directly againſt the opinion in his ſpeech; he compared thoſe who had adopted that line of conduct, to Caliban and Trinculo, in the Tempeſt, whoſe ſituations were ſo equivocal, that their heads could not be diſtinguiſhed from their legs. However, as he approved the principle, he would not imitate the Chancellor of the Exchequer, but vote according to his ſentiments. Mr. Grey perfectly agreed in the propriety of bringing in a Bill to ſet all doubts at reſt, and admitted, that perſons in holy orders ought not to ſit in the Houſe of Commons; but he was not ſure it would be right to carry the Bill to the extent propoſed upon the principle that prieſt or deacon was an indelible character. Mr. Sheridan, however, being clearly of opinion in favour of the right of clergy, and conſidering the Bill propoſed, as one of diſfranchiſement, inſiſted that it required for its ſupport, arguments very different from thoſe he had heard. Leave being given, a Bill was brought in, which declared all who had received the order of prieſt or deacon, incapable of ſitting in the Houſe of Commons, and impoſed on them heavy penalties for attempting it. The Bill was argued with conſiderable warmth in its ſeveral ſtages; many members objecting to its being profeſſedly declaratory, and at the ſame time penal, and to its tendency to disfranchiſe clergymen, and eſtabliſh the doctrine that their character was indelible. The declaratory part, it was ſaid, would exclude from the preſent Parliament, Mr. Horne Tooke, and thus be with reſpect to him, an *ex poſt facto* law. The Chancellor of the Exchequer, agreeing in this reaſoning, conſented to introduce a proviſo which ſhould obviate the objection; and after ſome further debates the Bill paſſed.

June 15. In the Houſe of Peers, the Bill was oppoſed by Lord Thurlow, who objected to the impropriety of calling that Houſe to aid in deciding a point, which, by their own privilege, the

Lower Houſe were competent to determine. He did not approve of the report of the Committee, which, he ſaid, put into the mouth of Sir Edward Coke very ſilly language; he inferred from the caſes, that the clergy were not ineligible to ſit in the Lower Houſe, and the general reaſoning would equally apply to prevent the Biſhops from ſitting in the Upper. His arguments were ſupported by the Earl of Moira, Lord Holland, Lord Grantley, and the Earl of Carliſle, and oppoſed, in a ſpeech of great length and ability, by the Lord Chancellor, and by the Biſhop of Rocheſter, the Earls of Weſtmoreland and Roſslyn, and Lord Hobart. The Bill paſſed without diviſion or proteſt.

While the clergy were thus reſtrained from aſſuming ſituations which were conſidered incompatible with their characters, they received, by another act, relief from an injury to which they had inadvertently expoſed themſelves. Notwithſtanding the ſtatute of Henry VIII. obliging the clergy to reſide on their livings, a contrary practice had become extremely frequent, and perhaps, under all circumſtances, not altogether inexcuſable. Some common informers, taking advantage of this fact, had extended their inquiries into all parts of the kingdom, and commenced no leſs than eight hundred actions againſt various clergymen, for penalties to a very large amount. Mr. Dickenſon therefore moved for leave May 11. to bring in a Bill for ſuſpending ſo much of the ſtatute 21ſt Hen. VIII. as related to non-reſidence, ſtating that his object was, not to abrogate any of the obligations impoſed on parochial clergy by that act, but to relieve them from the vexation and hardſhip to which they were expoſed from the proſecutions already commenced. The Bill, which was brought in, occaſioned ſeveral debates, in conſequence of attempts to introduce new principles, with reſpect to reſidence, and the power intended to be given to the clergy of employing themſelves in agriculture; theſe objects were, however, for the preſent, laid aſide, and the Bill operating merely to ſuſpend, for a limited time, all proceedings againſt the clergy for not having reſided on their livings, received the ſanction of the legiſlature.

CHAP.

CHAP. IX.

Meaſures for reſtraining Sedition and Rebellion. Diſcharge of State Priſoners. Iriſh Martial Law Bill; motion to bring it in oppoſed by Mr. Sheridan; Speech of Lord Caſtlereagh; Sir Lawrence Parſons; the motion ſupported by all the Iriſh Members. Debate on the ſecond reading. Amendments propoſed in the Committee. Oppoſition continued to the laſt ſtage of the Bill. Oppoſition in the Houſe of Lords; Bill paſſed; Proteſt entered and expunged from the Journals; Puniſhment of Printers for publiſhing it. Suſpenſion of the Habeas Corpus in Ireland. Papers communicated to Parliament, and referred to a Committee. Their firſt report recommending the renewal of a ſuſpenſion of the Habeas Corpus, and a revival of the Act for preventing Seditious Meetings. Debate on the motion for leave to bring in theſe Bills. The Bill for ſuſpending the Habeas Corpus paſſes the Houſe of Commons in one night. That for preventing Seditious Meetings read a firſt time. The Papers referred to a ſelect Committee of the Houſe of Lords; the Habeas Corpus Suſpenſion Bill paſſes that Houſe. The Bill for preventing Seditious Meetings paſſes the Houſe of Commons. Report from the Secret Committee of the Lords. Bill againſt Seditious Meetings paſſes through a Committee immediately. Debate on the third reading. Second report to the Houſe of Commons. Second Bill for Martial Law in Ireland, paſſed after ſlight debates in both Houſes. Motion for leave to bring in a Bill for indemnifying thoſe who had acted under the law for ſuſpending the Habeas Corpus; vehemently oppoſed; Petitions againſt it; oppoſition in the Houſe of Lords. Other acts of Indemnity. Cloſe of the Seſſion.

ANOTHER great national object which engaged the attention of parliament was the neceſſity of checking the ſpirit of conſpiracy and rebellion ſaid to prevail among certain claſſes both in Great Britain and Ireland. In order to make a clear ſtatement of the meaſures which were adopted with reſpect to Great Britain it is neceſſary to premiſe, that ſoon after the acceſſion of the new adminiſtration, the act for ſuſpending the Habeas Corpus being near its expiration, and the miniſters hoping they ſhould be enabled to govern the country without having recourſe to a meaſure ſo rigorous,

Mar. 4. diſcharged on their own recognizances all thoſe whom it had been found neceſſary during the late years to detain in cuſtody.

The firſt proceeding of government related to Ireland; it was a bill brought in by Lord Caſtlereagh, for amending and further continuing until the 24th of June, 1801, two acts of the Iriſh parliament for the ſuppreſſion of rebellion ſtill exiſting in that part of the united kingdom, and for protecting the perſons and property of his Majeſty's faithful ſubjects there; or, as it was more commonly called, the Iriſh martial law acts. Before this bill was introduced Mr. Sheridan ſtrongly deprecated it, and even intimated

Mar. 5, 6.

it would be diſreſpectful to his Majeſty's government to agitate ſuch a queſtion on any authority ſhort of a communication from the throne, a ſtep which the ſtate of the King's health at the time rendered impoſſible. The motion for leave to bring in the bill was oppoſed by the ſame member in a long and able ſpeech. Diſclaiming all party views in his objections, he inſiſted that the neceſſity for ſuch a ſtep did not appear. As the King was ſufficiently recovered to ſign a commiſſion for giving aſſent to various acts; it might be hoped that he might ſoon tranſmit a meſſage, and the Houſe might obtain information. Lord Caſtlereagh, who moved the queſtion, was a reſpectable member of parliament, but not a reſponſible member of adminiſtration. It was an undoubted prerogative of the crown to enforce martial law in caſe of rebellion or invaſion, and the noble Lord might ſay he had information that rebellion did exiſt, but ſuch information was not ſufficient to juſtify the confidence of the Houſe. After the promiſe that the union would heal all domeſtic diſcords and animoſities; after the Houſe had been congratulated by his Majeſty from the throne, that not only the rebellion, but the hoſtile ſpirit that occaſioned it, had ceaſed, parliament was called on to renew a bill for the ſuppreſſion of rebellion, and protection of his Majeſty's perſon, the preamble of which aſſerted the exiſtence of a dangerous conſpiracy for the ſubverſion of government. Suppoſe the act diſcontinued for a week or two, what would be the conſequence to government? They would not, for a few days, be able to proceed to this ſpecies of trial by martial law, but muſt ſuffer a few perſons accuſed to go to a jury. Mr. Sheridan, therefore, moved an adjournment.

Mar. 12.

Lord Caſtlereagh aſcribed the neceſſity of the propoſed meaſure to the modern principles of jacobiniſm; martial law in Ireland became indiſpenſable at a period when all law was ſuſpended, all duties violated, and the ſafety of the chief magiſtrate and the government depended on its vigorous application. The ſame neceſſity would now influence the Houſe not to forget its duty, or abandon the ſafety of the conſtitution. After the union with Scotland, it had been found neceſſary to bring forward laws of unuſual ſeverity with reſpect to that part of the kingdom; yet they were paſſed by a parliament ſtrenuous in the ſupport and maintenance of the rights of the ſubject; under a whig adminiſtration, acting upon the principles on which the revolution was eſtabliſhed. Should the Houſe now act otherwiſe, they would not only withhold from the people of Ireland their only ſecurity, but would inſtil into the government ſuch apprehenſions, as would prevent the diſcharge of their duties to the public. No communication from the crown was neceſſary; in Ireland there had been none, nor a committee of the Houſe to inquire. As the bill was propoſed only for three months, parliament might have time to enter into an inveſtigation before its next renewal; but at preſent it was ſurely right not to reverſe that ſyſtem for which the parliament of Ireland ſaw ſuch abundant reaſons. He was aware

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he might be aſked, if a rebellion really exiſted in Ireland, why the executive government wanted a law for that which was within the exerciſe of its own prerogative? In anſwering this queſtion he ſtated the following facts. The rebellion in Ireland broke out in May 1798; the executive government publiſhed a proclamation for martial law; and from May 1798 till May 1799 continued exerciſing it wherever rebellion exiſted without any expreſs ſtatute for that purpoſe. They did it on the principle that they were authoriſed by the King's prerogative, provided they did not tranſgreſs the neceſſity of the caſe; and nothing could have induced them to depart from the ſtrict conſtitutional ſyſtem, but that they felt they muſt deny, to a great part of the country, the advantages of the civil law, unleſs it were incorporated with the martial law. The two ſyſtems exiſting at the ſame time led to ſuch a conflict of juriſdiction, that it was impoſſible to give effect to either; officers could not proceed in the execution of martial law, if they were liable to be thwarted by the civil power, and ſubjected, as many had been, to proſecutions for acts done in conſequence of the lord lieutenant's order. The rebellion became ſo extenſive, that courts of juſtice could not act in any part of the kingdom, until, by the ſucceſs of his Majeſty's arms, they were enabled to reſume their ſittings in the metropolis. Applications were immediately made to the Court of King's Bench which interfered with the exerciſe of martial law, in places where the rebellion was keeneſt; the aſſizes might have been held under a military guard; but as the ſyſtem of juſtice adminiſtered at the aſſizes would have been inſufficient to check the rebellion, the government found itſelf obliged to apply to parliament; for, if martial law had not been allowed, the ſyſtem of terror would have prevailed, and government could not expect, from the loyal and well affected, that allegiance which it would be incapable of protecting. The exerciſe of the martial law had never been ſuſpended; the lord lieutenant had been under the neceſſity of trying ſixty-three perſons under it, of whom thirty-four were condemned to death. During the laſt year 207 had been tried; ſufficient proof that rebellion had unfortunately exiſted during that period. The rebels had their own courts martial againſt the well-affected; and it would be impoſſible to keep up any ſyſtem of coercion, if only the ordinary proceſs of the municipal law could be iſſued, when thoſe who were called as the jury might afterwards be tried by ſummary tribunals of the criminals for having ſat in judgment on their coadjutors. The ſyſtem of rebellion in Ireland was unparalleled in hiſtory; it was, however, a great ſatisfaction, that, from the energy of the law, the evil was very circumſcribed. Laſt year, except in the counties of Antrim, Limerick, and Wicklow, which were infeſted with a ferocious banditti, the vigorous protection afforded by the martial law had reſtored general tranquillity. The people ſhewed the utmoſt zeal in aſſiſting the meaſures of government, as ſoon as they were aſſured that government had the means of providing for their ſecurity. The

bill, he added, was fully approved by Lord Cornwallis, whoſe exertions in extending the Britiſh empire, and whoſe eminent qualities, entitled him to the reſpect and admiration of the country.

Sir Lawrence Parſons ſupported Mr. Sheridan's motion. The noble lord, he ſaid, had denied that the courts of law could diſcharge their duty, in trying rebels, but it were to be deſired that he had produced inſtances to juſtify the aſſertion. When the rebellion raged in Wexford, the original Saxon mode of trial was reſorted to, and the rebels petitioned to be tried by a court martial; they knew their guilt; and choſe rather to go before a random court, where the judges act precipitately and capriciouſly, than before a court of law, whoſe proceedings are grave and ſevere to the guilty. Without intending any diſreſpect to the army, he could not but conſider the propoſed meaſure an inſult; it was ſending the poor people of Ireland to be tried by capricious boys, inſtead of the legal judges of the land. Would the Houſe conſent to ſubſtitute the horſe-guards for Weſtminſter hall? Sir John Davies, attorney general of Ireland in the reign of James I. who arrived in that country juſt after the ſuppreſſion of a rebellion, and was one of the greateſt bleſſings it ever received from England; bore ample teſtimony in his hiſtory to the efficacy of legal trial in turbulent times, and to the pacific diſpoſition of the Iriſh. Lord Caſtlereagh had lately travelled through a remote part of Ireland even without a corporal's guard. He would adviſe the Houſe to grace its firſt act towards Ireland, by reſcuing it from military tyrants. At preſent it had not a government ſo good as had been granted to the convicts at Botany Bay.

Againſt the arguments of the honourable baronet no leſs than eleven Iriſh members delivered their ſentiments. They gave inſtances from all parts of the country in proof of the impracticability of conducting legal proceedings in the ordinary way; jurors and witneſſes had been murdered by the rebels; threatening letters had been written to keep families in alarm; in ſome places the jurors themſelves were prejudiced in favour of the rebels, or if honeſt, how could they perform their duties when their wives and children were in tears for fear of the conſequences, and the blunderbuſs under their pillows? In a ſingle diſtrict young cattle, of the value of 22,000l. had been deſtroyed in one week. Even the rebels themſelves, in general, preferred trial by a court martial, becauſe where the jurors were through protection exempt from fear, the recollection of injuries made them more ſanguinary than the nature of juſtice would warrant. Theſe members claimed to be conſidered as witneſſes who would not miſrepreſent their own country, and referred to notorious events in various parts of Ireland in proof of their aſſertions and in ſupport of their inferences.

The other members who oppoſed the propoſition of Lord Caſtlereagh were Mr. Grey, Mr. Whitbread, Dr. Laurence, and Mr. Horne Tooke; the ſupporters were Mr. Pitt, Mr. Canning, and Mr. Somers Cocks; their arguments could not in courſe be enforced by ſo much local knowledge as thoſe

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of the Iriſh members, but they treated with great ability on the general policy of the intended meaſure, the evidence by which the neceſſity for it ought to be proved, and the effect of martial law in repreſſing the ſpirit of jacobiniſm. The motion of adjournment was negatived without a diviſion, and leave given to bring in the bill.

In its ſubſequent ſtages the bill was no leſs vigorouſly oppoſed; Mar. 16. on the motion for a ſecond reading, not only the principle but ſome of the regulations were attacked. Mr. Michael Angelo Taylor objected to the power which he ſaid was given under the bill of inflicting torture, which he affirmed had been done in a great variety of caſes. Other members retraced the grounds of the preceding debate, denying that Ireland was in ſuch a ſtate of inteſtine war as to juſtify the propoſed meaſure. "The roads," Sir Lawrence Parſons obſerved, "are "open; the ordinary courſe of "buſineſs is purſued; the Civil "judges perform their circuits, "and go upon the aſſizes as re"gularly as in this country. In "the county in which I live, the "gentlemen, with their families, "reſide at their ſeats; ride about "unattended; come and go at all "times in the night or day; aſ"ſemble careleſsly at balls and "public entertainments; viſit one "another, and purſue their rural "ſports, as in the moſt peaceable "times; without guards; with"out fear or ſuſpicion; and with"out an inſtance of injury. Are "the authors of the union aware," he proceeded, "how infinitely "they diſgrace their own mea"ſure, by making the continua"tion of martial law its firſt "fruits? It was expected, that "Engliſh capital would, for pur"poſes of trade and induſtry, be "transferred to Ireland ſoon after "the union; but what Engliſh "merchant or manufacturer will "think of ſacrificing any part of "his property, or riſk any un"dertaking of induſtry, in a "country which he ſees ſtill put "beyond the pale of the Con"ſtitution? Are we aware what "encouragement our foreign ene"mies derive in their deſigns "againſt us, from the rumours "which ſome gentlemen ſo eagerly "propagate and magnify of our "internal diſſentions and domeſtic "diſorder?"

Mr. Courtenay, diſcommending the propoſed meaſure, referred to the ſtate of Ireland thirty years ago, during the adminiſtration of Lord Townſhend; there were then white-boys, heart-of-oak-boys, and heart-of-ſteel-boys; jurors and witneſſes were alſo then intimidated, but the Brownlows and Connollys, thoſe revered names, did not addreſs Lord Townſhend, then Lord Lieutenant, to proclaim martial law; on the contrary, moderation, wiſdom and lenity diſtinguiſhed the government of that illuſtrious nobleman; under him the firſt ray of liberty dawned upon Ireland, in the paſſing of the Octennial bill; and the grateful recollection of the benefits conferred on Ireland by his adminiſtration had been ever ſince annually celebrated by the nation with that fervor of honeſt conviviality for

which the Iriſh are ſo juſtly remarkable.

Longas O utinam, dux bone, ferias,
Præſtes Heſperiæ; dicimus integro
Sicci mane die—dicimus uvidi
Cum Sol Oceano ſubeſt.

Sir Francis Burdett termed the ſtatements and arguments in ſupport of the bill contradictory; if diſcontent prevailed, not in particular parts only, but almoſt in every part of Ireland, he thought himſelf juſtified in inferring that this general diſcontent muſt have a general cauſe, and that cauſe he looked upon to be oppreſſion. The meaſure under diſcuſſion was not calculated to remove the cauſe, and he recommended that parliament ſhould attend to the leſſon given by Bonaparte, that great and extraordinary man, who had pacified La Vendée by means of juſtice and mercy.

In anſwer to theſe objections, it was denied that torture could be uſed in Ireland for the purpoſe of extorting confeſſions; it was contrary to law, and expreſsly forbidden by a proclamation which was the firſt act of the Marquis Cornwallis as Lord Lieutenant. If Ireland enjoyed general tranquillity it was to be aſcribed to the operation of martial law, and not to the abſence of a rebellious, or at leaſt a diſcontented ſpirit. This bill terrified the rebellious, and encouraged the loyal. Lord De Blaquiere ſaid he could ſtate, not one, but fifty inſtances of perſons being murdered for having faithfully performed their duty as jurors or witneſſes. It ſhould be recollected, that perſons could only be tried by the courts of law twice a year, as there were only two circuits; but the ſafety of the country required that offenders, ſuch as Ireland was infeſted with, ſhould be ſpeedily brought to juſtice. With reſpect to the ſuppoſed tranquillity, he could only ſay, that in July laſt they burnt his houſe to the ground; he ſuppoſed they intended it as a compliment to him, for it was on his birth day. If gentlemen wanted inſtances of the organization of the rebellion, Lord Caſtlereagh ſaid, he would refer them to places were courts martial were ſitting, not of his Majeſty's forces, but of the rebels in their own camp, in which they proceeded to try and execute thoſe whom they called traitors, that is who did not adhere to them. As they removed from their ſtation in the night, and returned again before day light, no civil power could take theſe practices into conſideration, nor could any evidence of the fact be had except that of a criminal who had taken an oath to be a traitor, and whoſe evidence could not convict the accuſed, becauſe it was the unſupported teſtimony of an accomplice. Attempts to enforce juſtice, and procure tranquillity, would therefore only have expoſed the lives of his Majeſty's loyal ſubjects; and, under this complication of evils, it had been deemed adviſeable to paſs this bill, not to overturn, but to protect the municipal law. It had been recommended to adminiſtration, to ſhew and hold out to the people of Ireland a good government; he hoped they would have no other; but to abandon the cauſe of the loyal, and give encouragement to the rebellious, was no part of a good

good government; its leading object was ſecurity to the loyal, and that was the principle of the bill.

Mar. 18. In the Committee, Lord Caſtlereagh propoſed to extend the number competent to form a court martial from three to ſeven; two thirds of whom muſt concur in every ſentence of condemnation; but this amendment did not ſatisfy Mr. Grey, who ſaid, that at Botany Bay, and on the coaſt of Africa only, five officers were ſufficient to form a court, and in thoſe places it was juſtified by the detachment of troops to remote ſituations, and while ſeven officers were to decide on the life of his Majeſty's civil ſubjects in Ireland, no leſs than thirteen could form a tribunal to ſit on the trial of any perſon belonging to the troops of the line, the militia, or the Yeomanry Corps. He alſo wiſhed that no officers ſhould ſit on theſe courts martial, who had not attained the age of twenty-one. Was it decent or fitting that a judiciary power, above all others the moſt awful and ſerious in its exerciſe, ſhould be intruſted to a boy incapable to contract a civil debt, deſtitute of that experience which calms and ſoftens the feelings, with an underſtanding ſtill in a great meaſure uninformed as to the ſtrength of evidence and the nature of guilt? It had been, at a former period, in the progreſs of this bill, ſtrenuouſly inſiſted, that torture or puniſhment, to extort confeſſion, was in no wiſe authoriſed by the acts which it was to continue. But thoſe acts, and even this bill, certainly did grant to the commander in chief power to execute martial law, independently of the authority of courts martial. What was this but to puniſh without trial and without inquiry; to inflict puniſhment which might even have its end in extorting confeſſion? The prudence and humanity of the preſent Commander in chief had, indeed, withſtood the abuſe of this odious power, but the law that authorized it was not the leſs odious. It could be conſidered only as a law for extorting confeſſion by puniſhment. Could this be otherwiſe regarded than as the moſt odious application of torture? Mr. Grey, therefore, moved three amendments conformable to the tenor of his obſervations.

The opinions of Mr. Grey were ſtrongly ſuſtained by Dr. Laurence, who conſidered the act as veſting in the officers of the army, or thoſe commiſſioned by the Lord Lieutenant, a diſcretionary power which might be proſtituted for the moſt deſtructive purpoſes. He had ſtudied the hiſtory of this country, and was ready to produce ancient records, by which it would appear that every city, every diſtrict, every province exhibited ſcenes of rebellion fully as dreadful in their nature as any which the late rebellion in Ireland had afforded; yet in none of them had a meaſure of a complexion ſo dangerous as the preſent, been reſorted to.

On the other ſide, Mr. Yorke inſiſted that the bill would be deprived of the better part of its efficacy, and rendered unfit to ſerve the exigencies with a view to which it was framed, if a more numerous compoſition of the courts martial ſhould be required. He maintained, that ſince no evil had as yet ariſen from any raſh acts of extremely young men in thoſe courts,

courts, it could not be neceſſary to alter the proviſions in regard to the age of the officers permitted to ſit in them as judges. With reſpect to the clauſe which permitted to the Commander in Chief the exerciſe of martial law, even independently of courts martial, he obſerved, that it only confirmed an authority, which, by the prerogative of the Crown, the Commander in Chief before poſſeſſed; that this prerogative would be virtually limited, if this Bill were enacted without ſuch a clauſe; that, but for that independent exerciſe of martial law, for which he contended, the Iriſh rebellion had never been ſuppreſſed, nor would it be poſſible, at any time, to quell inſurrection and ſedition, in thoſe circumſtances in which they were the moſt dangerous. Similar arguments were enforced by Sir John Mitford, Sir Edward Law, and various other members; ſeveral of the Iriſh members alſo ſupported the meaſure on the grounds of expediency and general propriety, but Col. Martin, member for Galway, although he voted for the Bill as neceſſary, would by no means ſanction it as juſt. He thought all pains beſtowed by the Houſe in amendments would ſeem like a perpetual appropriation of that which was intended only as a temporary meaſure. No perſon, he ſaid, who had but a term of three months, would beſtow either coſt or care in repairing a houſe; it was better to let the thing die as it was, than make it appear as a meaſure of the United Parliament, to be purſued for an indefinite time.

The firſt amendment moved by Mr. Grey was negatived without a diviſion; the ſame fate attended another reſpecting the clauſe which made the certificate of the Lord Lieutenant of the judgment of a court martial, evidence in any court of juſtice; a proviſo excluding minors from ſitting on courts martial, moved by Mr. Dawſon, was alſo rejected, by 72 to 17.

Mr. Whitbread next moved as an amendment that nothing in this act ſhould be conſtrued to empower any court held under its authority, to inflict any puniſhment, provided either by the common or ſtatute law, and recognized in the ordinary procedure of courts of juſtice. In ſupport of this amendment, he obſerved that the bill decreed the puniſhment of death, *or otherwiſe*, as ſuch courts martial ſhould direct: under this power a court martial, inſtead of directing a man to be executed on the ſpot, beyond which no puniſhment ought to go, whatever be the crime, might put him to the torture; for theſe things had been done in the late rebellion, and they were not only vindicated by inſinuation, but broadly juſtified by the firſt law officer of the crown in Ireland.

Theſe obſervations produced a ſpeech of conſiderable length from Lord Caſtlereagh, in which he denied that at any time the government of Ireland had inflicted puniſhments unknown to the law, or authorized torture for the purpoſe of extorting confeſſions. He repelled the inſinuations againſt Lord Clare by ſtating at length, from the printed ſpeech of that noble Lord, the circumſtances on which the charge was founded, and which did not warrant an allegation that torture had been inflicted, or irregular puniſhments juſtified.

Mr.

Mr. John Claudius Beresford alſo ſaid the hearts of gentlemen might bleed for the people of Ireland, and lament the ſeverities which had been exerciſed on them; but they could not feel more on this ſubject than thoſe who ſaw themſelves under the neceſſity of inflicting thoſe ſeverities; did they know as well, and had they felt as much, the calamities and the ſufferings to which the gentlemen of Ireland were ſubjected in the courſe of the rebellion, as he and many others, they would ſpare ſome of their compaſſion for the people on whom it was found neceſſary to inflict theſe ſeverities, and beſtow it upon thoſe gentlemen whoſe lives had been endangered, who had been threatened with aſſaſſination, and whoſe property had been plundered and deſtroyed. That the ſeverities alleged had really been exerciſed in many caſes; that puniſhments had been inflicted for the purpoſe of extorting confeſſions from thoſe who were ſuſpected of concealing arms, it would be unmanly in him to deny. Many country gentlemen, who had reaſon to apprehend that they might be aſſaſſinated in the enſuing night, had inflicted ſuch ſeverities in order to diſcover the private depoſits of arms, and thus prevent or fruſtrate the deſigns which they knew to be harboured againſt them; this, however, was not authoriſed by the government; but in ſuch circumſtances it was perfectly juſtifiable.

The Attorney and Solicitor General both maintained that the debate on the words, by death *or otherwiſe*, was merely combating ſhadows and phantoms; the words *or otherwiſe*, could in legal conſtruction mean only a lighter puniſhment than death, but by no means juſtify torture for confeſſion, or any puniſhment unknown to the law.

Mr. Hobhouſe, Mr. Dawſon, Mr. M. A. Taylor and Mr. Grey, ſtrongly reſiſted theſe arguments, inſiſting that the admiſſions of Mr. Beresford proved that torture had been inflicted, and that he conſidered it juſtifiable. The excuſes made for the exerciſe of ſuch ſeverities from the circumſtances, were like the reaſoning by which Robeſpierre juſtified his ravages and cruelties. If the ſupporters of Government really felt that inclination which they profeſſed, to repoſe an unbounded truſt in the character of the Lord Lieutenant, why ſhould they dread the inſertion of a reſtriction, which, in the worſt light they could view it, could only be conſidered as unneceſſary?

The amendment was negatived by 84 to 8. On the bringing up of the report, Mr. Grey renewed his objections, and on the motion for a third reading, Mr. Whitbread made, as he ſaid, a laſt effort to modify the bill, ſince he deſpaired of preventing it from paſſing. This conſiſted in four amendments, to the ſame effect as thoſe already rejected by the Committee, which the Houſe negatived without a diviſion. Mar. 19, and 20.

On the motion that the Bill do paſs, an animated converſation took place, in which its principle and proviſions were ſo vehemently attacked, and ſo many perſonal alluſions made to individuals who had acted conſpicuous parts in Ireland, that ſeveral members felt obliged in honour to interfere, the cries of Order

Order were frequently renewed, and the authoritative remonſtrance of the Chair was conſidered indiſpenſable. Even on the queſtion reſpecting the title of the Bill, an attempt was made to protract this pertinacious ſtruggle, but no diviſion took place on any motion.

On the third reading of this Bill in the Houſe of Lords, for the firſt two were gone through with great ſpeed, a debate took place which did not yield in animation or intereſt to any of thoſe in the lower Houſe. It was begun by Earl Fitzwilliam, who remarked, that the Parliament of Ireland, with all the means more immediately in their power of forming a juſt judgment as to the neceſſity of the meaſure, and the period of its duration, had enacted, that it ſhould continue in force only till the 25th of March, 1801. It was now propoſed to extend it beyond that period; and ſurely ſomething more ſatisfactory than had yet been adduced would be required, before it ſhould receive the ſanction of the United Parliament. It was incumbent on government to ſhew very ſufficient grounds for a law which took from the ſubject all the ſafeguards provided by the Britiſh conſtitution. Could a ſtronger meaſure have been propoſed, had the country been in a ſtate of actual rebellion? But it was now nearly two years and a half ſince the rebellion had been ſuppreſſed. Was there any interruption to the regular adminiſtration of juſtice? Was it attempted to be proved that the aſſizes could not be held as uſual; or were there any ſtatements produced to the Houſe on the part of the Judges of Ireland, that they could not do their duty? No ſuch proofs had been brought forward. They were called upon to ſurrender the liberties of the ſiſter country into the hands of miniſters, without inquiry, and without proof that ſuch a proceeding was neceſſary for a time, in order to ſecure the ultimate tranquillity of the country. There might exiſt good reaſons for the meaſure; but none having been ſtated, he could not, conſiſtently with his duty, give it his ſupport.

Mar. 23.

To prove that the Houſe had ample grounds for proceeding, the Earl of Clare cauſed ſeveral parts of the reports of the Secret Committees appointed by the Iriſh Houſe of Commons to be read. That this Bill was received with jealouſy, and viewed with diſtruſt, he ſaid, did not occaſion in him the ſmalleſt aſtoniſhment. Moſt of the Noble Lords then preſent had lived in ſecurity and happineſs under the Britiſh Conſtitution. Conſcious of the many bleſſings that conſtitution was calculated to confer, they muſt revolt at the idea of ſuſpending it in any part of the empire. Such, however, was the unfortunate, the melancholy, the degraded ſtate of Ireland, that ſhe muſt either fly for refuge to a military government, or ſubmit to an unprincipled, ſavage, and ferocious democracy. The civil government was unable to ſupport itſelf, and, if unaided by military force, would quickly crumble into atoms. The rebellion in that country was of a nature unparalleled in the hiſtory of the world. It did not proceed from miſtaken loyalty, religious zeal, or party difference. All principle had been corrupted; every laudable

laudable feeling had been extirpated from the mind, and nothing prevailed but domeſtic treaſon, bloody murder, and cowardly aſſaſſination. Democracy had taken deep root in that country; it was greatly too powerful for the civil government; and unleſs its growth was checked, it would completely gain the aſcendant. The adminiſtration of Marquis Cornwallis had commenced under the moſt inauſpicious circumſtances; he had done all that man could effect for the benefit of the country, but Ireland was not in a ſituation to enjoy the conſtitution. He allowed, that when this was the caſe a proper method to proceed might be for the government to exerciſe martial law, and to take the reſponſibility upon itſelf. This had been done by Lord Cornwallis, but had been attended with very great inconvenience. Theobald Wolfe Tone, whoſe name made a conſpicuous figure in the Secret Committee, had been taken in arms in a French ſhip of war, and condemned by a military tribunal. The Court of King's Bench was then ſitting, although under a military guard, and a worthy limb of the law having diſcovered that it could not be open without being compelled to interfere, applied for a writ of Habeas Corpus, which of courſe was granted. The conſequence was, that Mr. Tone had an opportunity to cut his throat with a razor, and to diſappoint the juſtice of the country. Immediately afterward, the petty ſolicitors flocked to Dublin from every part of the kingdom, and procuring writs of Habeas Corpus, prevented the trials of the rebels. For martial law, thus exerciſed, to be effectual, it was neceſſary that the King's Courts ſhould be completely ſhut up. A Noble Lord had aſked, whether the Judges had not regularly gone the circuits for two years and a half? In general they had done ſo, but they had always been protected by a ſtrong eſcort; and two Learned Judges, going to hold the aſſizes in a diſtant county, had been attacked by the rebels not many miles from the capital. They were not murdered, to be ſure; but they owed their ſafety merely to the rebels having neglected their uſual precaution. Their ſervants had not been bribed, and, the poſt-boys turning quick about, they eſcaped from the ſnare. Of the laſt journey of the Attorney General, it had been ſaid truly, though ludicrouſly, that Mr. Attorney all the time looked pale; the jurors perjured themſelves; the aſſaſſins eſcaped, and the witneſſes were aſſaſſinated. To diſturb the adminiſtration of juſtice had been, and continued, the principal object of the conſpirators. The plan of giving every criminal a liſt of jurors and witneſſes before the day of trial, he conſidered as quite impracticable: nine tenths of the jurors and witneſſes would be murdered before the day appointed. With the deepeſt grief he ſaw ſuch things, and ſpoke of them. Happy would he be to ſee his country reſtored to order. Happy would he be if he could go to his bed-chamber, without going as to an armoury, and could cloſe his eyes without apprehenſions of having his throat cut before morning, or of ſeeing his wife and children butchered before him. He ſhould be inexpreſſibly happy, when he could once more walk out unarmed;

armed; for it was a curious fact, that, when he was in Ireland, his ſervant brought him his arms as regularly as he brought him his hat. To think of repreſſing this ſpirit by coaxing, conceſſions, and indulgence, was abſurd. Acts of that kind, though well meant, had already had a miſchievous tendency. The rebels had a ſyſtem of laws moſt ſevere, and moſt promptly executed; far more efficient than the civil code, and only to be met and counteracted by martial law. If this Bill were not renewed, ſcenes would be exhibited in Ireland to which there had been nothing reſembling ſince the year 1641. Nothing would be ſeen over the country but pillage, murder, and conflagration. His Lordſhip then panegyrized, and vindicated from reproach thoſe who had exerted themſelves in ſuppreſſing rebellion, affirming that, without them, Ireland would have been independent, or, at leaſt, the ſeat of civil war. It was eaſy for thoſe at a diſtance from the ſpot, to talk of humanity, and to rail againſt meaſures of vigour. Let Noble Lords who oppoſed that Bill take a journey to Ireland. He engaged to give any ſix of them a villa and a ſmall farm each, if they would conſent to reſide in it. After they had taſted for a twelvemonth the ſweets of an Iriſh life, let them come over (if they ſurvived) and declaim in favour of the rights of the Iriſh. The Noble Lord concluded, by adverting to the report, that he was an advocate for torture. The foundation of that report, he ſaid, he recollected well, and ſhould ſtate to the Houſe. A blackſmith had been apprehended, who, there was the greateſt reaſon to believe, had been engaged in framing pike-heads. After various means being tried, in vain, to force him to confeſs where he had concealed them, he was placed upon the piquet. There he had not remained half a minute, when he told where five hundred might be found, and there they were found accordingly. It ſhould be maturely conſidered, whether ſociety would ſuffer moſt from the murder of two or three hundred loyal and well diſpoſed men, which was probably thus prevented, or from a rebel blackſmith being placed half a minute on the piquet. If there were any who, regardleſs of the two or three hundred loyal and well-diſpoſed inhabitants, pitied only the rebel blackſmith, he did not envy them their feelings.

Theſe arguments were ably ſupported by Lord Mulgrave, the Earl of Limerick, Lord Carleton, the Earl of Kinnoul, Lord Grenville, the Archbiſhop of Caſhel, the Earl of Weſtmoreland, the Earl of Radnor, and the Marquis of Downſhire.

On the other ſide, the Earl of Moira, although he wiſhed to be ſilent on tranſactions, the repetition of which would only tend to an uſeleſs waſte of time and patience, and create an unprofitable diſguſt, denied that the caſe of the blackſmith was the only inſtance in which torture had been applied to extort confeſſions of guilt. In a vaſt variety of other caſes it had been reſorted to, to compel perſons to criminate their neighbours; and in theſe caſes the application of the torture was continued, not for half a minute only, but for whole hours, and that at repeated times.

times. On confeſſions ſo obtained, was it poſſible to form an accurate and wholeſome judgment? Ireland had been brought to the miſerable ſtate deſcribed by Lord Clare, by the impolicy of Government. They ſhould adopt other means than thoſe of aſperity; and attempt to conciliate by the lenient hand of mildneſs and moderation. Martial law ought not to be legalized. The Lord Lieutenant might enforce it, where it appeared neceſſary, and afterwards to call for an indemnity for this infringement on the conſtitution.

Lord Holland contended, that the arguments of Lord Clare were directly oppoſite to thoſe he had uſed in favour of the Union, and objected to the recital of tranſactions which paſſed three years ago, as proving the neceſſity of a meaſure to be adopted now; as well, he ſaid, might the events in 1745, be made a ground for introducing martial law in Scotland.

The Earl of Caernarvon oppoſed the continuance of a government which made that of Ruſſia appear mild and gentle. The act was a libel on the Britiſh Conſtitution, a fac ſimile of the jacobin revolutionary ſyſtem of France, and ſunk infinitely below compariſon of the preſent government of that country: could it ſooth the mind of diſcontent in Ireland? Was it a ſoil in which patriotic zeal could take root? This meaſure was called in flattery, martial law, when it had not the ſlighteſt reſemblance to any law, and annihilated all law, and all regular diſtribution of juſtice. By this act, the Governor of Ireland, or any perſons appointed at his pleaſure, were authoriſed to put to the torture, or to death, whomſoever he or they might think fit to ſuſpect of aiding rebellion, in any manner, without bringing them to any trial, or the leaſt examination; and the agents ſo deputed, unleſs they were military men, which was not neceſſary by the act, were totally irreſponſible, amenable to no tribunal for the fouleſt murder, and moſt barbarous tortures, exerciſed under the authority entruſted to them; they could not be called to anſwer for their conduct, even by him from whoſe deſpotiſm they had derived their authority; none of theſe bloody functionaries, if not military men, could be tried by a court martial, except for rebellion under that act; and the courts of law were prohibited from taking cognizance of the abuſe of limited power. "We know enough of this act," his Lordſhip ſaid, "to excite our jealouſy and abhorrence; we know nothing to induce us to adopt it. Proofs which would juſtify the meaſure, do not exiſt, or are withheld from us; and nothing is clear but that its promoters are impreſſed with the moſt extraordinary conviction of the facility with which parliament is ready to adopt any plan, the moſt repugnant to the conſtitution, if it is ſupported by miniſters, as if jealouſy of power was a parliamentary vice, not an eſſential quality neceſſary to its uſeful exiſtence, and without which it is a dangerous inſtrument in the hand of power, and takes from deſpotiſm reſponſibility and odium. No government can become ſo ſafely politic as that which can act behind a parliament paſſive and credulous."

On a diviſion the numbers were; for the bill 90, againſt it 7. A proteſt was entered on the Journals, but of ſuch a nature that on the motion of Lord Clare, it was expunged, the Houſe being cleared during the diſcuſſion *.

As a meaſure neceſſarily connected with the preſervation of tranquillity in Ireland, a bill was brought in by Lord Caſtlereagh, about the ſame time with the martial law bill, for continuing the ſuſpenſion of the Habeas Corpus in Ireland, which paſſed both Houſes without animadverſion.

Mar. 13.

In the debates on the martial law bill, miniſtry were frequently required to produce documents, verifying their aſſertions that a dangerous ſpirit of rebellion exiſted, and having promiſed to comply with this demand, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, by his Majeſty's command, laid before the Houſe copies and extracts of papers containing ſecret information received by government relative to the ſtate of Ireland, and proceedings of certain diſaffected perſons in both parts of the united Kingdom, moving that they ſhould be referred to a Committee. Mr. Tierney expected that a matter of ſuch magnitude would have been introduced by a direct meſſage from the King, and the communication was extraordinary after the ſpeeches of the late Chancellor of the Exchequer, breathing nothing but gratitude toward the people for the patience with which they had endured their ſufferings. Mr. Pitt anſwered, he ſhould conſider it a ſtrange inſtance of loyalty or attachment to the Sovereign, and a ſtill more extraordinary proof of gratitude to the maſs of the people, if he were to hand them over, diſarmed, to a comparatively ſmall, indeed, but certainly deſperate ſet of perſons, ſeeking their ruin on every occaſion. There was, however, in fact no oppoſition to the motion, nor to others which followed for making the Committee private, and a Committee of Secrecy, limiting its number to

April 1.

* This proteſt, with a pretended debate on it, being afterwards publiſhed in an evening paper, and complaint made to the Houſe of the breach of privilege, the printer, proprietors, and editor, were called to the Bar, and the principal offender ſentenced to pay a fine of 100l., to be impriſoned ſix months in Newgate, and further till his fine was paid; on the others, puniſhments of leſs ſeverity were impoſed, both in conſideration of their ſmaller offence, and of their diſtreſs and contrition. Before this, the printer and publiſher of another paper had been reprimanded, but diſcharged on payment of fees, for publiſhing, under a fictitious ſignature, ſome reflections on the proceedings of the Houſe in a Divorce Bill.

It may, in this place, be incidentally mentioned, that in this ſeſſion the debates on Divorce Bills were uncommonly frequent and animated. Among other applications, parliament witneſſed the unuſual, if not ſingular, circumſtance of a lady applying for a diſſolution of the matrimonial tie, on account of the miſconduct of her huſband. The peers who oppoſed theſe bills diſplayed a manly and conſtitutional ſpirit. The parties ſuſtained no wrong, nor any hardſhip but what aroſe from the neceſſity of circumſpection in a point where morality and religion might have been ſacrificed at the ſhrine of levity and caprice, and parliament rendered a mere inſtrument to annul obligations, which the law and religion of the realm conſider as permanent during the lives of the parties. The good effects of their vigilance were evident; the lady, and ſome other applicants ſucceeded, but they whoſe caſes exhibited proofs of capriciouſneſs, or colluſion, were fettered by reſtrictions, or obliged to withdraw their bills.

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twenty-one members, who were to be chosen by ballot.

April 13. The first report of this Committee was presented to the House immediately after the Easter recess. After ascribing its imperfect form to the extent and variety of the information submitted to them, the Committee briefly recited the arts and efforts of the persons who still guided the dangerous and treasonable conspiracy, which in 1798, in concert with a foreign enemy, produced the horrid and sanguinary rebellion in Ireland, and the progress and extent of which, in Great Britain, was detailed in the report of the Committee of Secrecy in 1799. These conspirators had been indefatigable in their endeavours to excite disaffection on account of the high price of provisions; and expressed hopes that on the expiration of the laws which had preserved the public tranquillity, they should be able to call numerous meetings, in different parts of the country, at the same day and hour, to an extent which, if not prevented, must materially endanger the public peace. The Committee, therefore, gave it as their strong and unanimous opinion, grounded on the information they had received, that no time ought to be lost in renewing those measures of precaution which the wisdom of the legislature had before adopted; particularly the Act for suspending the Habeas Corpus, and that to prevent seditious meetings*. The motion for taking this report into consideration occasioned a debate during which strangers were excluded, but it was carried by 128 to 31.

April 14. In moving for leave to bring in the Bills recommended, Mr. Pelham briefly noticed the situation of the country. He alluded to the reports of secret Committees to the Irish parliament in 1798, and to the British parliament in 1799, when a Committee was sitting in Hamburgh, composed of rebels from both countries, who had fled from justice, and who in concert with their accomplices in Great Britain and Ireland, were fabricating new plots of insurrection, and corresponding with the enemy for the purpose of insuring their co-operation. The measures which ministers, supported by the wisdom and firmness of parliament, then adopted, happily succeeded in defeating those machinations, and rescuing this country from the dangers of impending anarchy; but when it was apparent that the expiration of those severe, but salutary laws, had again encouraged the agents of sedition to resume their projects; and that they were again sedulously employed in the most insiduous endeavours to agitate the minds of the common people, and, taking advantage of the temporary pressure of the times, to stimulate them to outrage, insurrection and rapine; he trusted the House would not lose a moment in adopting measures for suppressing the mischief, before it proceeded to more alarming lengths, and the renewal of those acts, to the operation of which they owed the possession of their deliberative authority, and the country its security.

In the debate which ensued, many members expressed their sentiments with uncommon animation

* See the report at length, Appendix to the Chronicle, page * 161.

and decision. Mr. M. A. Taylor said, he must resist the measure, unless he had more proofs of its necessity, expediency, or justice, than the assertion of the Committee, without any opportunity of examining the proofs or the facts on which they had founded their suggestions. The very nature of the ballot by which these gentlemen were selected, and the list of their names, would shew men intimately connected with ministers, and uniform in support of all their proceedings. The present measure might be recommended by Mr. Pitt to his successor, but he, for one, would never consent to surrender to the arbitrary disposal of a minister, the liberties of his fellow subjects, upon the suggestion of such a Committee, without some more palpable and authentic proof of its necessity. Averse as he was to the Habeas Corpus Suspension Bill, he was still more so to the other; because it invested the magistrate with powers not only to prevent or disperse seditious meetings, but, of his own mere will and opinion, to prevent those which were legal and constitutional, for the discussion of rights. Much had been said of discontents and seditious disturbances excited among the lower orders; but nothing could persuade him that all things went right in a country, where common sustenance was beyond the reach of industry, and none but very rich parishes were able to support their own poor.

Mr. Curwen, considering this measure as strongly tinctured with the spirit of the late administration, called on ministers to point out the dangers of the country, and state the grounds on which they wished the House to concur in the motion.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer rose on this challenge, and vindicated his mode of proceeding, as most parliamentary and constitutional. He was aware, when he laid the papers on the table, of the existing danger, but did not think it fit to urge a measure of great moment founded on them, till his judgment was sanctioned by the report of the secret Committee; the election of which by ballot, he shewed to be preferable to every other mode, and consistent with the parliamentary practice of all parties. He brought the subject before parliament with regret, having indulged a hope that the remnant of disaffection was so small, that the measures adopted by former parliaments, would not have been necessary at this period: but he now felt the necessity; not because the disaffection had increased, but that the subject on which disaffection operated had increased. The spirit of malignity which seeks the ruin of all society, derived strength from public calamity; and certain disloyal persons had been busily endeavouring to turn the distresses of the people, arising from the high price of provisions, into a discontent toward the state, by which they were protected. He did not distrust the loyalty of the people of England; but it was requisite to protect them, and preserve the constitution against a small body of men who were watching every opportunity to subvert it. After arguing that the measures proposed were, on the supposition that the great body of the people was well affected, equally bene-

beneficial to rich and poor, he obſerved for himſelf, and his colleagues, that they would not propoſe meaſures merely on account of their having been recommended by another, or any other ſet of men, but thoſe now brought forward were adopted becauſe he conſidered it owing to the wiſdom and vigour of his Majeſty's late miniſters, ſupported by the wiſdom, vigour, energy, and patriotiſm of parliament, carried into effect by the good ſenſe and virtue of the people of England, that they were now enabled to diſcuſs any ſubject in that Houſe. They all together fought the battle of the Revolution, and had obtained, united, a glorious victory. He had, however, always felt, and always ſhould feel, that every meaſure of reſtraint on any part of the public, could be juſtified only by neceſſity, and that was to be proved by ſhewing, that, without ſuch meaſures, the country would be in danger. When that neceſſity ſhould ceaſe to exiſt, he hoped and truſted parliament would be ready to remove ſuch reſtraints with much more alacrity than they had impoſed them; "for," ſaid he, "it is the characteriſtic of the "Conſtitution under which we "have the happineſs to live, to "adapt itſelf to all the circum-"ſtances which ſurround it, and "that it can enlarge or contract "its ſphere of action as the ne-"ceſſity of any caſe may require; "an advantage peculiar to this "empire."

Sir Francis Burdett ſaid, nothing but the ſenſe he entertained of his duty to the people of England and Ireland ſhould have induced him to take part (not in the deliberations, that was an abſurd term, but) in the deciſions of the Houſe. Day after day he had watched the meaſures of miniſters ſince their acceſſion to power; and, from every obſervation he had made of their conduct, he could not conſent to draw any diſtinction between them and their predeceſſors. He had followed their meaſures only to witneſs the enregiſtering of edicts, all tending to the deſtruction of property, liberty, and the remnant of that which formerly went by the name of the Britiſh Conſtitution. He was at a loſs to give a name to the play to be performed this evening in St. Stephen's theatre. He knew not what to make of a drama which opened with a farce, and ended with a tragedy. What was it? A ſecret Committee to inquire into the ſtate of Ireland, or rather, to juſtify the Houſe for having paſſed a bill to authorize martial law in that country; a meaſure to operate as a vote of credit on the blood of the people of Ireland. The report of the Secret Committee he conſidered as a juſtification of that vote of credit, and a recommendation of a bill which was to deprive every man in this country of the protection of the law. But the plea of neceſſity was reſorted to. Once admit the plea of neceſſity, and there was an end of all political and moral juſtice, and national character. What was that plea? Seldom meaning any thing, often nothing. It was the plea of the aſſaſſin, the thief, the murderer, the calumniator; that which every villain had recourſe to. He wiſhed the Houſe to conſider the effect produced by the conduct of adminiſtration on the people of Ireland,

and contraſt it with the reſult of an oppoſite ſyſtem during the American war. At that period 60,000 volunteers, ſelf-cloathed, paid and diſciplined, roſe to puſh off the invader. Ireland placed herſelf in the impoſing attitude of keeping off with one hand the foes of the country, and with the other preſenting the ſchedule of her rights. In the preſent war how different the conduct of that country! it had not only armed volunteers to oppoſe this country—it had not only been ready to receive foreign invaders—but it had gone further; the people of Ireland had delegated Embaſſadors to the French republic, to invite the invaſion of the country. What had produced this change of ſentiment? He ſhould be told, no doubt, that it was the ſpirit of jacobiniſm which pervaded the minds of the people. He denied the aſſertion; it was the dreadful, horrible acts of the Iriſh Parliament; acts which, it was impoſſible for any man to deny, were inſtigated by the wicked policy of the miniſters of England. He wiſhed thoſe who aſſerted the alteration of the ſentiments of the people to be the effect of jacobiniſm, to tell him what was the meaning of that term. Let it be defined what it was that was appealed to on all occaſions, ſerved every turn, anſwered all argument, deluded the weak, and had been ſo long the war-whoop of miniſters, and their ſanguinary ſyſtem. Did jacobiniſm conſiſt in interfering in the concerns of a foreign independent nation, and ſquandering our own blood and treaſure in order to force it to change its government? Did it conſiſt in irritating a nation to murder its Sovereign, and in denouncing a whole people as traitors? Or was it to be found in the erection of baſtiles, in the abolition of the trial by jury, or in the ſubjection of the people to inquiſitorial tortures for political opinions? If this was jacobiniſm, it was the practice of regular governments; it was the ſyſtem of the ex-jacobin heaven-born miniſter. Was it jacobiniſm to aſſert and maintain the liberties of the people; to do the duties of a Member of this Houſe; to keep a jealous and conſtitutional eye upon the encroachments of the crown? Was it jacobiniſm to denounce ſuch encroachments, or to ſubſcribe to the ſentiment, that the influence of the crown had increaſed, was increaſing, and ought to be diminiſhed? If it was ſo, it was the old jacobiniſm of the conſtitution, which miniſters could not, nor would not, ſuffer, becauſe they well knew there was no choice for them between the ſlavery of the country, and the puniſhment of themſelves. But he wiſhed others would pauſe before they entered into that track which led to blood and deſtruction. He hoped they would remember that the ſituation of this country was not the ſame with that of Ireland. It would not be ſo eaſy to get the ſoldiers of this country to torture their fellow ſubjects as thoſe of Ireland had done. Gentlemen would do well to remember the hiſtory of this country, and to call to mind that the ſame acts as thoſe now propoſed, had led to the death of one of the Stuarts, and to the expulſion of another.

To this intemperate ſpeech, the Solicitor General made a long reply, which he began by obſerving he

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was not ſurpriſed that the arguments contained in the report of the Committee had not produced any effect on the minds of the Gentlemen on the other ſide of the Houſe, and particularly the Hon. Baronet. Unfortunately thoſe on that ſide contemplated every thing through ſo thick a miſt of prejudice, and objects appeared in ſo different a point of view to what they really were, that it was hardly poſſible that Gentlemen on his ſide ſhould coincide in their opinion. He, and thoſe who acted on the ſame principles, had always thought that jacobiniſm was an evil of the greateſt magnitude; one which threatened more fundamental miſchief to the world than ever before impended over it. Gentlemen on the other ſide were, on the contrary, amuſing themſelves with inquiries as to what jacobiniſm was, and with aſſertions that it was only to be found in endeavours to preſerve the Conſtitution from the attacks of thoſe who had for years been attempting to overturn it. They aſcribed all the meaſures of government to a deſign to overthrow the conſtitution, but the wiſdom and juſtice of the people would lead them to attach a much greater degree of odium to thoſe who rendered ſtrong meaſures neceſſary. On the ſubject of war, they entertained the Houſe with verboſe arguments and long ſpeeches, to prove what every one knew, that wars were attended with calamity and diſtreſs. The odium of war was, according to the faſhion of modern patriotiſm, not to be attributed to the enemy with whom we were engaged, but to the government of the country. So it was with regard to Ireland; the horrid enormities practiſed during the rebellion, were to be conſidered as nothing more than the fair exertions of an oppreſſed people; and the nobility, gentry, and yeomanry, who ſo laudably exerted themſelves to ſuppreſs the rebellion, as ſo many perſons leagued in blood againſt them; and all the various efforts they had diſplayed for the ſalvation were either paſſed by entirely, or only noticed to be detracted, defamed, and miſrepreſented as ſo many acts of violence. When the queſtion regarded meaſures of a ſimilar nature in this country, the Houſe was to be told that all the odium fell upon the heads of thoſe who had deviſed them. Whether it was that there was ſomething obnoxious in the preſent or former government, or in government altogether, that made Gentlemen oppoſe it; or whether from an enthuſiaſtic love of liberty, they diſliked every thing that operated as a reſtraint; ſo it was, that whenever the government was attacked by a foreign enemy, the government was wrong; or, if aſſailed by a domeſtic foe, ſuch foe was right. He did not mean to inſinuate, that Gentlemen in the Houſe had been actuated by the ſame views as thoſe out of it; but certainly the opinions given in the Houſe had been productive of conſiderable miſchief. When the wild theories, founded on the rights of men, were firſt adopted out of doors, the theme became a favourite one in Parliament; and when Parliamentary reform was reſorted to as the cloak for revolution, the idea of Parliamentary Reform was taken up in the Houſe, and thought to have been

adopted in the ſame ſenſe as it was out of doors. By theſe means encouragement was given to the principles of the diſaffected, and conſequently the meaſures of government were in part attributable to them. The Learned Member noticed the artifice of repreſenting a meaſure deſigned only for the protection of the great majority of the nation, who were loyal and well affected, as an oppreſſion of the whole nation. Had honeſt men ever felt themſelves inſulted by a law againſt houſe-breakers? The houſe-breaker himſelf might not like it; but thoſe whoſe property was protected, ſo far from feeling themſelves inſulted by the law, conſidered it as their ſafeguard and friend; and in the ſame manner, the loyal part of the country would conſider themſelves protected by the law now propoſed, and obliged to its adviſers. He then vindicated the proceeding of the Committee, and their claim to the confidence of the Houſe; explained the neceſſity of the act as applying to perſons ſuſpected of high treaſon, and who, but for its proviſions, might, on application to a magiſtrate, be admitted to bail; and he appealed to the opponents of the meaſure, whether, if any of their friends were, by a report which they believed to be true, marked out for ſpeedy aſſaſſination, they would think it neceſſary that evidence ſhould be brought of a ſpecific attempt before they detained the ſuſpected? The Houſe would feel a conſolation in the idea, that it was only reſorting to a meaſure that had been tried for ſome years, and had been exerciſed with the greateſt moderation, temper, and juſtice.

Mr. Grey, declaring he hardly knew in what way to preſent himſelf, whether, as a Member of Parliament, to give a free opinion on the ſubject ſubmitted to its deliberation, or as a culprit, who was bound to vindicate himſelf from a charge of having abetted perſons guilty of treaſonable practices; defended the conduct of himſelf and his friends during the progreſs of the war. On the ſubject before the Houſe, he ſaid, he conſidered the means propoſed for the protection of the conſtitution, the groſſeſt violation of it. He did not attempt to deny that it might, in certain caſes, be expedient to veſt in the executive government, a greater degree of power than by law it was intitled to. The only queſtion was, whether the country was at preſent in that ſtate, and the aſſertions of the Committee well founded? The Committee ſaid, there exiſted a dangerous conſpiracy among the people of this country; but to prove it, the Houſe was referred to former conſpiracies, out of which the preſent was ſtated to have originated. If ſo, he muſt go back two years. When he referred to the report of the Committee, in 1799, he found it deſcribed the conſpiracy then ſuppoſed to exiſt as a dangerous one. What was the hiſtory of that conſpiracy? Was there a ſingle perſon brought to trial? Had there been an attempt, by legal proof, to bring any one perſon to condemnation and puniſhment for having been concerned in that conſpiracy? Not above twenty or thirty perſons had been detained. What was the deſcription of thoſe who were detained? Were they of any weight, character, or lead in

the country? on the contrary, with the exception of two perſons, they were taken from the very loweſt ſituations in life. What then muſt the Houſe conclude of that conſpiracy? It was ſtated to have been of an alarming extent, and yet his Majeſty's miniſters had only been able to find twenty perſons, without influence; theſe they had kept confined for about three years, and at laſt had let looſe upon their own recognizances. As a proof that the ſuſpenſion of the Habeas Corpus was not now neceſſary, Mr. Grey obſerved, that although the act had expired ſeveral weeks, no evil had been found to reſult; revolutions were produced in a country, leſs by the exertions of thoſe who expoſed government, than by government itſelf. If any one axiom was more fully proved than another, it was this, that the fault muſt be on the ſide of government, and that it was owing to ill-government that the ſpirit of complaint and oppoſition was produced. The diſtreſſes of the times had ſwelled the number of offenders at every aſſize throughout the country; probably ſome few among them might be guilty of political crimes, but that would not warrant the preſent meaſure. For the crime of treaſon, the law was ſufficient; and for the leſſer offence of giving cauſe for ſuſpicion, ſuch a meaſure as this was unneceſſary.

Mr. Martin, of Galway, having made a ſhort ſpeech in favour of the Bill, which he terminated with a ludicrous anecdote, Mr. Sheridan, in terms ſtill more humourous, deſcanted on the ſpeech and anecdote, and then ſtrongly objected to the formation of a committee by ballot. He recollected having once in that Houſe read over, before the glaſſes were opened, a liſt of one-and-twenty members, who were to be choſen to form a committee, and as he read them ſo they came out. The Chancellor of the Exchequer gave the members of oppoſition credit for their attachment to the conſtitution; yet, he excluded them from that committee which was to examine into plots tending to overturn it. Surely the country would not be diſpleaſed at having their teſtimony of the exiſtence of plots which made it neceſſary to deprive the people of the very conſtitution itſelf; for ſuch he conſidered the ſuſpenſion of the Habeas Corpus Act. When the Right Hon. Gentleman's predeceſſors were hard preſſed, they hatched plots, and found their beſt ally in a "plot bag." It was a ſtrengthening-plaiſter to a weak-backed adminiſtration. When three fourths of the induſtry of the country ſubſiſted upon charity, it was natural to ſuppoſe diſcontent muſt follow the grinding oppreſſion they laboured under; yet their manner of bearing their famine and miſery did not deſerve the meaſure before the Houſe; their conduct, under the preſent circumſtances, was exemplary. Had the poor hungry populace ſtruck a blow; what outrage had they committed to warrant the ſuſpenſion of the Habeas Corpus Act? It was the conduct of the diſmiſſed miniſters that had brought the country to ruin; and now they acted towards the preſent miniſters on the principle of reciprocity, "Claw me, and I'll claw you." The propoſed bill gave miniſters a power to look round Great Bri-

tain, and lodge any man they thought proper in Cold Bath-fields priſon. He could but conſider the meaſure as a pretext to make the ſuſpenſion permanent, becauſe nothing in theſe times demanded it. When meaſures which went to deprive the people of England of their conſtitution, were deſired by the late miniſters, they had only to hatch up a plot, and ſend it to that Houſe ready cut and dried in the green bag: and the ſame ſyſtem appeared to be followed by their ſucceſſors. In the ſtate trials not one perſon was brought forward as a witneſs, except the ſpies of miniſters; and what proof had the Houſe that the ſpeeches of thoſe ſpies did not cauſe the inflammatory ſpeeches with which the perſons to be tried were charged? The privileges of Engliſhmen were gone, if unfortunate men, juſt releaſed from ſtone cells, were to be again falſely accuſed and impriſoned. Notwithſtanding the rigour that Lord Cloncurry and Mr. Bonham experienced in the Tower, where they were not permitted to ſee any perſon but in the preſence of their guards, leſt any plot might be hatching, nor to walk out of their rooms without being attended by a ſoldier, with a loaded muſket; enough could not be brought againſt them for trial. Was this mercy? How merciful it was then in miniſters not to confine four or five hundred inſtead of only twenty or thirty!

The Attorney General ſolemnly declared the conſtitution of the country would not be ſafe, if the Bill were not paſſed. He felt himſelf founded in making this aſſertion, in conſequence of the materials and evidence which had been laid before the Committee, which was compoſed of men of high honour and character, who had, with one voice, agreed on the neceſſity of adopting this meaſure. Gentlemen had affected to treat the ſubject ludicrouſly, when it was repreſented as a proceeding of lenity; but he would maintain that it was moſt lenient, and particularly as to thoſe perſons againſt whom it was ſuppoſed to be intended. Was it not lenity to them to prevent treaſon which was intended, from being carried into effect? and that undoubtedly was the object of the Bill. But there appeared to be a conſiderable degree of inconſiſtency in the manner in which Gentlemen oppoſed the Bill; for at one moment it was repreſented as a meaſure of extraordinary ſeverity, and the next it was termed uſeleſs, for that miniſters had hardly taken up any perſons in conſequence of the power which was veſted in their hands. One ground of argument on which Gentlemen had relied was, that many perſons had been taken up, but had not been brought to trial; upon this point he wiſhed to aſk, whether it was not important to conceal from the public view the communications made to government, and which enabled it to provide for the ſafety of the ſtate? It therefore became a queſtion of political computation, whether it was better to puniſh one man, or to keep entire their means of information? It had been ſaid, there were no witneſſes examined againſt the perſons accuſed of high treaſon, but the ſpies of government; but in return he wiſhed the Honourable Gentleman would point out any inſtance in which the teſtimony of theſe witneſſes

witneſſes had been falſified. Thoſe witneſſes had not only not been contradicted, but their evidence had been moſt materially confirmed by ſubſequent events. If it had not been for ſubſequent events, the Sainted O'Connor, who had been praiſed till he was ſick of hearing of it, would have gone to his grave (whenever he went there) loaded with all the encomiums which his compurgators at Maidſtone had beſtowed ſo liberally upon him. When conſpiracies of the moſt dangerous ſort were aiming at the deſtruction of every thing that was dear and valuable to the country, and when the moſt licentious ſyſtems of French politics were in action, miniſters would have been guilty of accelerating the ruin of the nation, if they had not propoſed this meaſure.

The debate concluded with a ſpeech from Mr. Horne Tooke, which was principally a complaint of the treatment he had been ſubjected to in 1794, and an appeal to the Chancellor of the Exchequer, whom he loved and admired, and of whom he knew a little at the time when he felt that peace and tranquillity of mind which he never would feel again. He knew his principles and his heart; and he knew it was his misfortune to have fallen a victim to one of the nobleſt and beſt paſſions that ever animated the human breaſt; to gratitude. That was the cauſe of his being placed in the ſituation he now held; but, as a father and a huſband, he ought to feel for thoſe who were fathers and huſbands alſo; and when power was placed in his hands, he ought to take care that it ſhould not be abuſed in the manner it had been by former miniſters.

The Bill for ſuſpending the Habeas Corpus was then read a firſt time without diviſion; on the motion for a ſecond reading, the numbers were, ayes 189, noes 42; and on the motion for the third reading, the diviſion was ſtill more unfavourable to oppoſition. Thus the Bill for ſuſpending the Habeas Corpus went through all its ſtages in one night; that for prevention of ſeditious meetings was read a firſt time.

The report of the Houſe of Commons, together with the documents on which it was founded, were referred to a Secret Committee of eleven Peers, and the Bill for ſuſpending the Habeas Corpus, was read a firſt time. On the motion for a ſecond reading, the Earl of Moira and Lord Holland oppoſed it on ſimilar grounds, but not in ſuch ſtrenuous language as diſtinguiſhed ſome ſpeakers in the debate in the Lower Houſe. Lord Borringdon, Lord Hobart, the Earl of Weſtmoreland, and Lord Grenville, anſwered their allegations and arguments, and the Bill paſſed without a diviſion. April 15, 16, 17.

Meanwhile the Bill for preventing ſeditious meetings was proceeding through the Houſe of Commons; petitions, complaining of hardſhips ſuſtained by individuals in conſequence of the ſuſpenſion of the Habeas Corpus, were preſented by Sir F. Burdett, and a motion was made for delaying the ſecond reading of the Bill before the Houſe. In the debate which introduced and followed this motion, little argument of ſtrength or novelty was uſed. The Chancellor of the Exchequer April 15.

chequer obſerved the bill was not new; five years experience had enabled the Houſe to pronounce on its effect; but, during all that time, there was not one petition againſt it: a pretty good proof that the country approved of it. Perhaps gentlemen on the other ſide meant to contend that the bill itſelf operated to prevent petitions; unqueſtionably that could not be ſo; for, during that period, parliament had received petitions for peace, and on various topics of great public concern and national importance. In one word, the right of petitioning had not been in the ſlighteſt degree retarded by this bill; but as free, and as frequent too, during the time it was in force, as at any period of the ſame duration in the whole of our hiſtory. Mr. Sheridan conſidered theſe obſervations unparliamentary; they preſumed that the people would not exerciſe their right, and petition againſt the bill. Private opinion, and private inclination, ought not to be preſumed to be thoſe of the public. They ought at all events to be allowed an opportunity to declare their ſentiments. The report ſaid, that dangerous meetings were apprehended. Was it not ſomething ſtrange that not one of theſe meetings had taken place, although the act had expired ſix months? The Right Hon. Gentleman under the gallery (Mr. Pitt) ſeemed to ſay, "while I was in "office there was no occaſion for "this bill; my vigilance, foreſight "and energy were quite ſufficient "to maintain tranquillity; but "now you have got a weak, "flimſy, rickety adminiſtration, "treaſon and ſedition bills are "indiſpenſably neceſſary."

On the third reading another diſcuſſion aroſe on the doubt whether the operation of the act tended to prevent petitioning; and on the motion that the bill ſhould paſs, the Houſe divided, the numbers being for the bill 152 againſt it 35. The term of its duration was fixed to ſix weeks after the commencement of the next ſeſſion of parliament. April 20.

Before the Houſe of Lords went into a Committee on the Sedition Bill, the Earl of Roſslyn preſented a report from the Secret Committee, explaining more at length than had been done in that to the Houſe of Commons, the projects, arts, and views of the diſaffected. It deſcribed them as led by ſome of the moſt active members of the London Correſponding Society, who when the act for preventing ſeditious meetings expired, drew together in ſmall numbers, changing frequently their place of meeting, and omitting the accuſtomed forms, being ſtill alarmed by the ſuſpenſion of the Habeas Corpus. They formed various plans for their future meetings, and one was adopted for concealing their real denomination under the ſemblance of a Benefit Society. This Society was merely to deceive the magiſtracy, as there was to be no fund, nor were any to be admitted but men of known democratic principles. Many members of the Correſponding Society were thus engaged, while others were concerting a deeper plan of a Secret Society, which was announced to the Benefit Society by two perſons in the character of delegates from a Society of Emancipation, and the connexion was gladly embraced. At a meeting held April 27.

held for the purpoſe, inſtructions in writing were produced, requiring that members to be admitted ſhould be ſworn to a teſt on the Bible, when it could be procured; but ſince Paine's Age of Reaſon, it was looked upon as a mark of inciviſm to keep a Bible. The different duties of conductors, ſuperintendents, meſſengers, and the executive were explained, private ſigns were agreed on, and they were to form an Indiviſible Society, under the name of United Britons. In matters of Religion, the leaders were cautious of explaining themſelves, for fear of diſguſting thoſe who had any, but the general executive recommended it in the ſtrongeſt manner to their followers to cultivate perſons of every perſuaſion hoſtile to the eſtabliſhment, and ſeem to concur with them, for the ſake of making them proſelytes; but in confidential meetings they diſcloſed their animoſity to all religion, and their deſire to overthrow the State with the Church, obſerving that if there were no prieſts, there would be no kings. Plans of inſurrection were formed, and projects detailed for murdering certain Members of Parliament in their own houſes. After the expiration of the Act for ſuſpending the Habeas Corpus, theſe ſocieties had become more daring; there was certain intelligence that there ſtill exiſted in the dominions of the King's enemies, at leaſt two eſtabliſhed Committees of traitors to the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, actively employed in carrying on correſpondence, by their agents, with the leaders of the ſocieties, abetting them in the moſt atrocious circumſtances of the crimes they were meditating, and encouraging them, by holding out hopes of invaſion; and there was good reaſon to believe that theſe ſocieties were ſtimulated and influenced by united Iriſhmen, who, either by the lenity of the government of that country, or by their own apprehenſion of its juſt ſeverity, had taken refuge here *.

When the Earl of Roſslyn laid this report on the table, and before the Houſe had time to conſider its contents, he moved to go into a Committee on the Bill. The Duke of Bedford made ſome oppoſition, but Lord Roſslyn ſtrongly deprecated delay. Even while they were deliberating he ſaid, at that very moment, proceedings of a very ſerious and alarming nature might be in agitation, and on the eve of breaking out into action. Even ſince he came down to the Houſe that evening, he had received intelligence, that in a certain part of the country, a numerous meeting was projected on a common, upon which bills were ſtuck on poſts, of a very inflammatory and violent tendency. Were the Bill in force, he had every reaſon to hope that the meeting he alluded to might be ſuppreſſed without dangerous conſequences. It accordingly went through a Committee.

On the motion for the third reading, the Duke of Bedford oppoſed the Bill, as a violation of the Conſtitution, and containing powers, which, unleſs April 28.

* See an abſtract of this report, Appendix to the Chronicle, p. * 162, where it is by miſtake called the ſecond report, but is, in fact, the only one preſented to the lords.

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he knew the credibility of the witneſſes, on whoſe teſtimony the report was founded, he could never conſent to revive, in the hands of his Majeſty's preſent miniſters, who ſeemed ſo obviouſly bent on following the ſteps of their predeceſſors. Poſſibly he might be induced, on the ground of the report, and the aſſertions ſo ſolemnly pledged yeſterday by Lord Roſslyn, to have given his aſſent to ſuch a bill as that for ſuſpending the Habeas Corpus, but never to one of this kind, which was to place in the diſcretionary diſpoſal of a magiſtrate, the ancient privileges of the people of England to meet for the diſcuſſion of ſubjects involving the ſafety of the Conſtitution. It was his firm perſuaſion, that this bill was one, and a principal one, of thoſe very meaſures adopted by the late, and now by the preſent miniſters, which, ſo far from attenuating or preventing the evils againſt which they were profeſſedly directed, would rather go to promote and confirm thoſe miſchiefs; for, in his mind, the authors and promoters of ſuch bills, were, in effect, much more dangerous conſpirators againſt the tranquillity of the country, and ſafety of the ſtate, than the moſt violent or ſeditious ſpeakers at any popular aſſembly.

The Earl of Weſtmoreland denied that the bill militated againſt thoſe juſt and moderate principles of the Conſtitution eſtabliſhed at the Revolution, which, though they confirmed to Engliſhmen the right of aſſembling to petition his Majeſty for the reform of any grievance in church or ſtate, yet by no means ſhould be underſtood to place popular aſſemblies beyond all controul. Surely the liberty of the Britiſh ſubject ſuffered no unreaſonable diminution, if, in times like the preſent, when political diſcuſſions, in popular aſſemblies, were ſo apt to enkindle, and were ſo frequently introduced for the purpoſe of exciting, the flames of ſedition, it was required that the perſons who deſired ſuch diſcuſſion ſhould record their names, and that the police of the vicinage ſhould have notice of ſuch aſſembly, in order to be prepared for the maintenance of the peace, and the ſuppreſſion of ſedition. Well had it been for this country had ſuch a bill been in operation at the time of the riots in 1780; we ſhould not, in that caſe, have ſeen the citizens panic-ſtruck by Lord George Gordon's aſſembly, after their diſcuſſions, in Saint George's Fields: we ſhould not have ſeen their property plundered, their houſes pull'd down, the metropolis every where in flames, the ſafety of government menaced, innocent lives ſacrificed in the tumult, and unfortunate victims to the ſword and the ſcaffold. Had ſuch a bill preceded the political diſcuſſions in Ireland, the rebellion would have been cruſhed in embryo, and all thoſe horrors prevented which had ſince diſgraced that country.

The Bill paſſed without further oppoſition.

Some time after the act had received the royal aſſent, Mr. Pelham delivered to the Houſe of Commons a very long report from the Secret Committee, which was founded as well on oral as on written teſtimony, and diſcloſed meaſures of great importance with reſpect to Great Britain, as well as Ireland. It May 15.

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was divided into three general heads referring to the British capital, the country, and Ireland. Like that delivered in the House of Lords, it ascribed the general proceedings to the residue of the Corresponding Society, who began to re-assemble in May, 1799, became encouraged by the ill success which attended the allies of Great Britain in the autumn of that year; and on the 9th of November at their meeting to celebrate Hardy's acquittal, ventured on a more open avowal of their opinions, and indulged in the most treasonable and seditious toasts and songs. Till late in the last year, however, they did not expect any favourable opportunity for carrying their designs into execution, but the success of the enemy, the disappointments of our allies, or still more of any enterprize in which this country was more particularly concerned, or any danger which threatened the life or health of the Sovereign, were, as they occurred, a constant source of satisfaction, and renewal of hope and expectation. The health of the chief Consul of France; the success of his arms, when opposed to those of this country; the progress of the rupture with the northern powers, as the means of impoverishing our merchants and creating distress and discontent among the manufacturers, were among the first wishes that marked the complexion of their convivial meetings, or expressed the malignity of their private reflections. The dearth of provisions was to them a great source of hope and exultation, though they affected openly to pity the sufferings of the people, and disapproved of the riots on account of scarcity, as leading to partial and premature insurrection, not sufficiently connected with their own more large and revolutionary views. They had, however, in November last, projected dangerous meetings on Kennington Common and other places, and prepared seditious and treasonable hand bills, and proclamations. The connexion of these persons with the united Irishmen in London, and the formation of a society under pretence of being a benefit society, with an executive of ten persons, and other circumstances, were detailed to the same effect as in the report to the House of Lords. Their designs with respect to religion, and assassination, were also similarly described, as was their project for the complete extermination of royalty, nobility, and property, for the purpose of an equal parochial division of the profits of lands, as the basis of a "beautiful and powerful new republic," to be effected by a general insurrection of the people, for which the revolutionary outrages in France, and the mutiny in our own fleet, were held out as laudable examples. On the liberation of the persons confined under the suspension of the Habeas Corpus, a supper was given in honour of the occasion, when their toasts and songs were all of the most treasonable and seditious nature; and one of their toasts was, "The health of the Chief Consul of France." The discourse held was suited to these incentives; plans of insurrection were openly avowed, and professed to be directed, in the first instance, against the lives of the chief officers of government, and to the destruction of the House

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of Correction in Cold Bath Fields. From this time they gained an increaſed opinion of their own ſtrength, but the executives were peculiarly recommended to uſe caution; other meetings of a convivial nature were eſtabliſhed in various parts of the town, and among their toaſts, was one which they called "the tremendous "toaſt." "May the laſt of "Kings be ſtrangled in the "bowels of the laſt of prieſts;" they had ſeveral others, as, "Bo-"naparte, and ſucceſs to the army "of Egypt!" and "The Guil-"lotine, a cure for the King's "evil!"

In ſeveral parts of the country, a ſimilar ſyſtem was adopted, particularly at Nottingham, and in different parts of Lancaſhire. The perſuaſion of a general revolution ſhortly to take place, and conſequently the inefficacy of all reſiſtance, was ſtudiouſly diffuſed throughout the country, with a view both to excite the diſaffected, and to diſhearten and diſunite the loyal. On the ſame account, the numbers of thoſe engaged in the confederacy were exaggerated, and ſtated, ſometimes as amounting to 60,000 trained to military exerciſe, at others, including Ireland, to no leſs than 1,500,000. The mode of ſecuring thoſe who had any religious faith by means of oaths, the employment of emiſſaries, and their eager adoption of the principles of any ſect, particularly if new, were deſcribed as of extenſive application in the country. Theſe facts had been proved before a Jury on a trial in Lancaſter, although the individual who was indicted had been acquitted through an informality. Other proceedings and projects of theſe men were traced, and it was obſerved that their enterprizes and connexions were not confined to foment the diſcontents, or encourage the hopes of the diſaffected in our own country: they certainly were diſpoſed, if occaſion offered, to avail themſelves of any aſſiſtance that could be derived from the invaſion of a foreign enemy, whoſe aid was ſolicited by ſome of their emiſſaries, both for this country and Ireland, and to whom they held out the hopes of a formidable co-operation from internal inſurrection. Toward the end of laſt year, when the hopes of the ſeditious in England began to revive, repreſentations were tranſmitted abroad of the progreſs of ſimilar diſcontents in Scotland, by the agents concerned in fomenting them, and they were deſcribed as connected with expected ſupport in the north of England, and particularly with inſurrections in London, the plan of which was deſcribed, "as perfectly organized." On the other hand, hopes were held forth of a projected invaſion from Holland on the coaſts of England or Scotland, to co-operate with a general inſurrection or "explo-ſion," as it was called, to take place at the ſame moment both in England and Ireland. Early in the preſent year, when the plan in queſtion was ſuppoſed to have arrived at maturity in London, an agent had avowed the object of it, without reſerve, on the continent; boaſted of the progreſs it had made amongſt the ſuburbs of the metropolis; explained the ſupport to be expected from foreign invaſion, the deſign of the inſurrection breaking out at the ſame time in the prin-

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cipal towns of the country, and the intention of directing the firſt attack againſt the government and magiſtrates of the country; and had communicated theſe deſigns, and the means of availing themſelves of them, to the government of the foreign enemy.

With reſpect to Ireland, it appeared, that although the efforts of the diſcontented in that country had long ceaſed to aſſume the aſpect of rebellion, arrayed in the field againſt the arms of their ſovereign, and although the organization eſtabliſhed by the United Iriſhmen had not been kept up with any regularity, and many parts of the kingdom preſented the uſual appearance of peaceful induſtry and loyal ſubordination; yet, at no time had there been wanting in others, demonſtrations of the ſame ſyſtematic plan of inſurrection, and marked with the ſame characters of unexampled atrocity. The principal traitors in Dublin continually ſent their emiſſaries through the country, to keep up the ſpirits of the diſaffected, by the hopes of ſupport from foreign invaſion. A new executive directory was to be formed in Dublin, with a head Committee to appoint confidential perſons to raiſe regiments, and give commiſſions to officers. The communications were to be verbal, and the buſineſs conducted without elections, debates, or Committees, but this plot was detected and ſtopped by government. The ſyſtem of organizing the rebellion was detailed, and its avowed object to ſeparate the two countries by the co-operation of a foreign enemy. In the capital of that enemy a body of traitors to their country, formed a central Committee of rebellion; they had emiſſaries continually paſſing into Ireland; and their views, and the means by which they were not aſhamed to endeavour to accompliſh them, would be ſufficiently obvious from the addreſs to the Iriſh ſailors in our fleets which had been printed in their name, and prepared on the Continent for extenſive circulation. Emiſſaries, on the other hand, had not been wanting from Ireland, to intereſt the French government in ſupport of their cauſe; one particularly had lately paſſed over to the continent, and opened a direct communication with the enemy, accrediting himſelf with them as being deputed by a great body of the landed intereſt of his country, whom he repreſented as being, like himſelf, ſo diſſatisfied with the union, that they would engage in any concert with France to procure the means of eſtabliſhing, under the guarantee of that power, ſome new form of repreſentative government. It appeared from the minutes of courts martial held at Rathdrum, Limerick, Clonmell, Wexford, and Leixlip, that during the year 1800, the counties of Wicklow and Wexford were infeſted by bodies of rebellious banditti, acting under the orders of regular leaders, and perpetrating, from time to time, with every circumſtance of aggravation, the crimes of robbery, burglary, and murder; that in the counties of Tipperary and Limerick, the practice of breaking into houſes, and cruelly beating or flogging the owners with rods made of thorns, in order to fix an arbitrary and inadequate price on the neceſſaries of life, frequently ending in, or accompa-

companied with premeditated acts of murder, was very prevalent, and had ſpread terror over the whole country; and of theſe facts ſome inſtances were given, and an account of a project to maſſacre a detachment of troops, to demonſtrate the readineſs of the people to join in rebellion. The mode by which private aſſaſſination was planned and directed, was clearly developed. The perſons concerned, to the number of fourteen or fifteen, who from their acts muſt be conſidered as principal conductors of theſe enormities, were found meeting in mid-day, as if by accident, at ſome public-houſe, where they occupied a room up ſtairs, and, without ſuſpicion, entered on their conſultations of proſcription. One of them preſided as chairman; and each was called upon for informations againſt any loyal ſubjects, for acts which might have incurred their diſpleaſure. The chairman then put the queſtion, which was determined by holding up of hands, and ſentence of death was regularly paſſed, if the verdict of guilty was pronounced. The mode of execution was then diſcuſſed, whether by a large number to be collected from the neighbourhood, or by a ſelect body of twenty-one, to be collected in parties of ſeven, each from diſtant and remote parts of the country. The reſolution diſplayed in theſe deteſtable enterprizes excited ſo much terror that the ſufferers would not only refuſe to give evidence againſt thoſe who had mal-treated them, but uſed influence, and even force, to deter their relations and friends. The inſurgents alſo killed cattle and ſtole horſes; proſcribed new tenants, and fixed by anonymous proclamations the rents of farms; flogged farmers to compel a reduction in the price of grain: a diſpoſition to tumult and diſorder was generally prevalent among the lower claſs, and the aſſociation, formerly called defenders, had reappeared under the name of finiſhalls. Of theſe various acts, inſtances were given; as, of a whole barony kept tributary for a year to fifty armed banditti, of a gang of 170 men, regularly exerciſed with poles reſembling pikes, of regular armed bodies in the mountains of Wicklow, of the robbery of the Kildare mail by a gang of eighteen or nineteen armed men, and of the murder of Mr. Price at noon-day, after a formal notice, for having taken a farm againſt the wiſhes of thoſe who regulated the price of lands.

On theſe facts the Committee founded a recommendation that the martial law act, which would expire in June, ſhould be renewed; and, for the ſake of keeping concealed the individuals from whom information had been obtained, a bill ſhould be framed for indemnifying thoſe who had acted under the ſtatute for ſuſpending the Habeas Corpus *.

The motion for leave to bring in a ſecond bill for continuing martial law in Ireland was made by Mr. Abbot, and not directly oppoſed, although ſeveral members in their ſpeeches made objections to the ſtatements and inferences in the report. According to that document they obſerved the flame of rebellion ſtill raged; May 27.

* See this report at length, Appendix to the Chronicle, p. * 166.

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and matters were now worſe in Ireland than when the bill was firſt paſſed, although during the whole period, martial law had been enforced. The report, it was ſaid, alſo threw out a moſt foul and unfounded imputation againſt the landed intereſt of Ireland. It repreſented them as having an emiſſary at Paris, conſulting with the enemy about the beſt means of giving effect to an invaſion. How ſuch a miſrepreſentation could have crept into a report of a Committee of that Houſe, it was not eaſy to conjecture. There did not exiſt a more loyal deſcription of men, or more firmly attached to the Britiſh conſtitution, and to Britiſh connexion, than the landed gentry of Ireland; and for both they had ſeverely ſuffered in perſon and in purſe. Neither ſhould the charge of diſaffection be imputed to the majority of the inhabitants. There were only three counties now repreſented to be in a ſtate of rebellion. To twenty-nine counties no ſuch charge was objected. Of late but fourteen courts martial were held; laſt year there were no leſs than ſeventy-four. Theſe conſiderations ought ſomewhat to check the flippancy of thoſe who continually repreſented Ireland as a country which nothing but martial law can keep under controul. There might be ſome Iriſh emiſſaries in France; but they were very different from thoſe employed previous to the rebellion. The latter were ſent over by the Committee of united Iriſhmen, and fully accredited. The former wholly unaccredited, and perſons of no conſideration or influence, whom the laws now exiſting in Ireland precluded from the poſſibility of returning home. If the bill was to paſs, it ſhould be for as ſhort a period as poſſible, and, above all, ſhould be exerciſed with moderation and humanity. If the report had entered into a full and ſatisfactory detail of all the circumſtances of the country, Ireland would be found to be in a ſtate, not of rebellious reſiſtance, but of deep deſpondency. Such a ſtate required the application of a gentle remedy, not the exertion of oppreſſive force.

Many members who favoured the meaſure deprecated any reflection on the landed gentry of Ireland; they contended, however, that the report did not repreſent the ſtate of Ireland as worſe than when martial law was firſt enacted, but inſiſted, as on the former occaſion, that its continuance was neceſſary for the protection of the loyal, and reſtraint of the turbulent. Martial law was not eſtabliſhed as being better than a trial by jury, but as being more efficacious, becauſe it was more prompt. It was denied that the people of Ireland were at preſent in the ſtate of deſpondency, which had been repreſented. This deſpondency (if it did exiſt) was confined to traitors, whoſe ſchemes had been fruſtrated by the gallant efforts of the loyal parts of the community; and vague aſſertions about the neceſſity of meliorating the ſtate of the people of Ireland, were cenſured as tending to give currency to an unfounded ſuppoſition that the Houſe was negligent of their intereſts. Some members related facts, within their own knowledge, in confirmation of the ſtatements in the report, of atrocities committed for the purpoſe of

influencing the letting of farms; adverted to the apprehenſion of a committee of the diſaffected in Dublin, over whoſe preſident's chair was placed a portrait of the Firſt Conſul of France; the exiſtence of emiſſaries in this country, who laboured to debauch the principles of the people; and of a Directory at Paris holding a correſpondence with another at Hamburgh; and that in its turn conveying information to the Directory in Dublin, by the members of which intelligence was circulated over all the ſubordinate committees in the various diſtricts of the country.

June 10. In the committee it was moved, that the bill ſhould remain in force during the continuance of the war, and for one month after the ſigning of a Definitive Treaty of Peace. This propoſition being vehemently objected to, the Chancellor of the Exchequer propoſed to fill up the blank with a day certain, namely, the 25th of March next. But even if the motion ſhould continue worded in its preſent form, he added, he had every reaſonable hope, (he did not wiſh to excite ſanguine or premature expectations,) that the period of continuance propoſed by the motion would by no means extend to the period included in this amendment. After a long debate, not diſtinguiſhed by much force or novelty of argument, but by uncommon aſperity of language, Mr. Addington's motion paſſed without a diviſion. In ſeveral other points amendments and new clauſes were propoſed, ſimilar to thoſe moved on the former occaſion, but without effect.

June 17. In its progreſs through the Houſe of Lords, this bill occaſioned one debate. The ſecond reading being moved by Lord Hobart, ſeveral peers ſpoke againſt its principle and enactments, particularly Earl Fitzwilliam, the Earl of Suffolk, Lord Holland, and the Earl of Caernarvon. They contended that, even on the grounds ſtated by the committee, the bill ought to be reſiſted, ſince they ſhewed that it was not efficacious in ſuppreſſing rebellion, and it was ſaid that the prolongation might as well be demanded for thirty years as for the time limited, ſince the ſame ſyſtem of conjecture would equally apply to either. It was affirmed, on the authority of Sir Ralph Abercromby, that the country was ſufficiently tranquil to allow him and a ſingle ſervant to travel in an open chaiſe without moleſtation; and the reports proved every pretence for the meaſure to be idle and frivolous, and it was in itſelf the moſt execrable that ever diſgraced the records of parliament. Thoſe who adverted to the ſituation of the lower orders of the people of Ireland, as compared with thoſe of England, muſt conſider inſurrections in that country and outrages on property as by no means ſurpriſing. In the courſe of the late unfortunate diſturbances, the houſes of thoſe wretched people were burnt, they were driven from their homes, and left without a roof to ſhelter their heads. Their wages had ſcarcely been raiſed for twenty years, notwithſtanding the advance of rent and proviſions. Their ſcanty crops of potatoes had failed in the laſt year. They had no reſource for relief

like

like the poor laws of England, which gave the poor a rightful claim upon their parifhes for fupport when they were unable to procure it by labour. What then was to be expected from a wretched, miferable, and ignorant race of men, thus bereft of all protection, all means of exiftence, and exafperated by famine and defpair, but that they fhould help themfelves by depredation? The report did not contain a fingle fyllable of a treafonable nature in the account of the alleged ferments. Market riots, as atrocious as can be imagined to arife from favage hunger; the robbery of a mail coach, or the barbarous murder committed, as the report ftated, by an individual, for outbidding the affaffin in a farm, were not furely enormities too powerful for the common courfe of law, or fufficient to juftify fuch an act as that propofed for their fuppreffion. Were their lordfhips really aware, it was afked, that the governor of Ireland had it in his power, by this bill, to put any perfon to torture, or to death, without accufation, without trial of any fort, without the flighteft proof, or the appearance of inveftigation, folely on fufpicion or its pretence. It was no excufe that this part of the bill had not been put in execution; it ought not to have been enacted, if it was not urgently wanted: the revival of this execrable part of the bill was therefore in the higheft degree wanton.

Several peers from Ireland bore teftimony to circumftances fimilar to thofe detailed in the report, and on the foundation of their own local knowledge afferted the abfolute neceffity of the bill. Should the Houfe refufe to pafs it, every man poffeffing a fpark of loyalty in Ireland would have reafon to curfe the union for depriving him of the vigilant and fuperintending protection of the local parliament. The idea of attributing the rebellion to the exifting fcarcity of provifions, could not apply, when it was confidered that the plots and confpiracies had exifted, and broken out into action long before. Such was made a pretext by the difaffected of late, and with fome degree of fuccefs, to ftir up the ignorant or thoughtlefs. It was true the head of rebellion was at prefent kept down in Ireland; but the principle ftill exifted in all its original vigour: martial law kept it under, but it was by no means extinguifhed: it was a known fact, that the difaffected anxioufly looked for another invafion from France; and the moment the enemy landed in Ireland many would avow their difloyalty, and join them, it being the fixed determination of the United Iriſhmen to do all in their power to fubvert the government, and tear afunder the bonds of connexion that held Ireland and Great Britain together. If municipal law had, as was afferted, been adminiftered in its regular courfe in Ireland, that could not have been the cafe but for the exiftence of martial law. The fact ftated, as from Sir Ralph Abercromby, was inapplicable, as it took place before the rebellion broke out. However that very commander foon after entertained a different fenfe of the dangerous fituation of Ireland, as appeared by the orders he iffued himfelf while in the garrifon of Dublin;

The teſtimony afforded by theſe noble lords was objected to as contradicting the arguments uſed in ſupport of the union, and without intending any diſreſpect to them, it was ſuggeſted that they ſhould not have offered it in their places in the Houſe, but before the committee. One of them, the Archbiſhop of Caſhell, having affirmed that there was not a ſingle peer who had reſided in Ireland who would not ſay the bill was abſolutely neceſſary; the Duke of Leinſter declared if he ſtood alone, and unſupported in the aſſertion, he would deny that the bill was neceſſary, or that there was any rebellion then exiſting in Ireland. No perſons but thoſe who lived in the country where martial law was exerciſed, could have a juſt idea of its horrors. He had known a military officer, come with his party, to ſearch a peaſant's haggart for fire-arms; and when he was remonſtrated with for ordering his ſoldiers to pull the man's hay and corn, and ſcatter it about, he ſaid, you are living under martial law, and I and my men have a right to do as we pleaſe.

Many peers, beſides thoſe from Ireland, delivered ſentiments in favour of the bill, but none of them went further than to recommend it as an expedient of neceſſity, all declaring their abhorrence of it as a meaſure to be ſuppoſed compatible with eſtabliſhed government. On a diviſion the motion for a ſecond reading was carried by 46 to 13, and the bill paſſed without further obſtruction.

May 27. On the ſame day that leave was required to renew the martial law in Ireland, the Attorney General, in conſequence of the unanimous and urgent recommendation of the Committee of Secrecy, moved for leave to bring in a bill for indemnifying all perſons concerned in ſecuring, impriſoning, and detaining individuals under the ſuſpenſion of the Habeas Corpus Act, ſince the 1ſt of February, 1793. It was his intention that it ſhould be equally ample, and extenſive, with the execution of the act which ſuggeſted the propriety of indemnity. Its operation was to apply to all who, in conſequence of their conduct in the execution of that act, are liable to be impleaded; that if impleaded, they might be enabled to ſtay proceedings; and if judgment had been obtained againſt them, they might apply to ſtay execution.

This motion was not carried without a conſiderable debate. Mr. Grey, although he was willing in the proſpect of a future opportunity of inveſtigating the principle of the bill, to decline ſuch a diſcuſſion for the preſent, could not conſent to its introduction on the explanation now given to the Houſe. In former periods of our hiſtory it had been neceſſary, by an act of the legiſlature, to ſuſpend the Habeas Corpus Act, and the perſons exerciſing the powers granted under ſuch a ſuſpenſion poſſeſſed all the reſponſibility, and the ſame claims to immediate juſtice, as the preſent miniſters. But it did not occur to his recollection, that in ſuch a caſe a legiſlative proviſion was adopted. If, after all the unconſtitutional acts that had diſtinguiſhed the laſt ſix years, he could be permitted to make uſe of ſuch expreſſions reſpecting the bill, he ſhould

ſhould ſay it was more in the ſpirit of hoſtility to the principles of the conſtitution; that it trenched more on the ſpirit of Engliſh juriſprudence than any other meaſure of the late adminiſtration.

On the point of precedent the Attorney General cited inſtances in 1746 and 1780, and Mr. Archdall quoted the opinion of Lord Somers in favour of a ſimilar bill.

Sir Francis Burdett expreſſed his diſapprobation in a ſingle ſentence. Their rights had been taken from the people of England without a conviction, and now their perſecutors were to be acquitted without a defence.

Mr. Tierney conſidered that the committee in recommending the preſent meaſure had exceeded the ends for which they were conſtituted. The proceeding was diſhonourable as tending by an expoſt facto law to ſcreen miniſters; when the late Attorney General, now Lord Chancellor, had repeatedly aſſerted their conduct to be perfectly legal, and not in want of an indemnity. A rumour was abroad that the change of adminiſtration was a mere juggle; wicked men might take occaſion from the manner in which the bill was introduced, to ſay, the late miniſters had gone out to get a committee appointed who might recommend a bill to ſcreen them from puniſhment; he recommended therefore another committee, on whoſe report, if neceſſary, the bill might be grounded.

Dr. Laurence too ſaid, he had hitherto, from principle, ſupported the ſuſpenſion of the Habeas Corpus; and, while the preſent ſtate of affairs continued, he would ſupport it; he would conſent to give an indemnity only to thoſe who, upon evidence, appeared entitled to it; he could not give indemnity for cruelty or harſhneſs in the exerciſe of this power: he by no means meant to ſay, that any cruelty had been exerciſed: he had not the ſlighteſt reaſon to ſuppoſe ſo, but he would not exceed the line eſtabliſhed by precedent. When the regular ſecurity which the law eſtabliſhed was taken away, it was the more neceſſary that thoſe who were intruſted with extraordinary power ſhould not act without reſponſibility.

Mr. Pitt ſaid, as to the inſinuations of wicked men, he ſhould not notice them until they were adopted and ſtated by ſome member of the Houſe. With reſpect to the ſuppoſed opinion of the late Attorney General, he believed the Hon. Gentleman was not correct in his recollection; his opinion was indeed aſked on the ſubject, but he did not think it his duty, as Attorney General, to ſtate, upon ſuppoſed caſes, how he ſhould adviſe miniſters to exerciſe a power which had been entruſted to them for the purpoſe of preventing meditated treaſon. The Hon. Gentleman had fallen into another miſtake: this Bill was not propoſed to ſcreen perſons from puniſhment, who had broken the law, but it was to protect perſons from puniſhment who had acted according to the law, and who, if they ſhould be accuſed, could not defend themſelves, without diſcloſing ſecrets which they could not diſcloſe without the greateſt danger to the lives of individuals, and to the ſtate. That in the exerciſe of ſo great a power, ſome irregularities

might have occurred, he could very readily ſuppoſe, though he was not aware any ſuch had happened. If the object of this Bill was to ſecure perſons who, if accuſed, could not make their defence without great public inconvenience, and without ſtopping up thoſe channels of intelligence, by means of which the dangers that threatened the ſtate had been averted, then it became neceſſary to aſk, upon whom would the Houſe depend for information? As to himſelf, as one of the members of the late adminiſtration, he certainly was reſponſible to the ſtate for all the meaſures he had adviſed; but certainly not in this caſe perſonally reſponſible, becauſe the Secretary of State iſſued the warrants. It could not, he was ſure, be ſuppoſed for a moment, that, in making this obſervation, he meant to get rid of any reſponſibility which really belonged to him; but as he conſidered the reſponſibility to which he was liable quite ſufficient, he was by no means ambitious of any more. With regard to the information of this Committee, there were only himſelf and another perſon in it who were members of his Majeſty's late government; and the queſtion was, Whether, from that circumſtance, the judgment of the other gentlemen of the committee could be ſuppoſed to be ſo vitiated, that it was neceſſary to ſend the ſubject to the conſideration of another committee? The whole queſtion reſolved itſelf ſhortly into this point, whether perſons who had done their duty ſhould be puniſhed becauſe they were precluded from ſtating the facts neceſſary to their defence, and whether the evidence laid before the Houſe was ſuch as to juſtify them in paſſing this Bill?

Mr. Bragge vindicated the proceeding of the committee as perfectly regular, and conſiſtent with the uſage of Parliament; and

The Chancellor of the Exchequer alſo defended the formation and proceeding of the committee. It muſt be obvious, he obſerved, that many perſons were liable to be attacked, who could not, conſiſtently with public nor private duty, lay before a court the facts neceſſary to conſtitute their defence. But this was not the only ground upon which the committee recommended the Bill of Indemnity; they recommended it, becauſe they were of opinion, that the efficacy of the ſuſpenſion of the Habeas Corpus, depended on the protection given to perſons in this ſituation, who certainly ought not to be expoſed to danger, and left open to attack, without having the means of making their defence. As to the unworthy inſinuation of a juggle between his Majeſty's late and preſent miniſters, it ſhould not deter him from doing his duty, and giving a conſcientious vote for their protection when they evidently deſerved it. There were points on which he differed from his Right Hon. Friend, (Mr. Pitt) for he gloried in calling him by that name, and was ſure he always ſhould; but he was convinced it was owing to the meaſures adopted by that adminiſtration that the country was reſcued from the imminent danger with which it was threatened; it was to them that the country was indebted for the ſecurity it now enjoyed. He knew that in ſaying thus much, he was expoſing himſelf

ſelf to another imputation, that he ſhould hereafter want that protection himſelf which he now wiſhed to extend to others. He certainly did not diſclaim it; but why? Not from conſiderations that might preſent themſelves to the minds of ſome perſons who heard him, but becauſe he thought that perſons who ſerved the country had a right to its protection. He felt no heſitation in ſaying, he expected that protection, and ſhould claim it if he deſerved it; and he hoped and truſted, if a committee, conſtituted as this had been, ſhould make ſuch a report of their conduct, that from the juſtice of the Houſe and the country they would experience ſimilar treatment.

In its various ſtages the Bill was oppoſed with warmth and perſeverance. A great number of petitions againſt it was brought in, ſome of which were couched in terms ſo ſtrong as to occaſion animadverſion. The principal debate occurred on the motion for going into a committee; the oppoſition being ſuſtained by Mr. Jekyll, Sir Francis Burdett, Mr. Grey, Mr. Horne Tooke, Mr. Tierney, Mr. William Smith, and Sir Wm. Pulteney; and the defence of the Bill reſting on Mr. Hawkins Browne, Sir William Elford, Mr. Windham, and the Attorney and Solicitor General. Their arguments were chiefly applied to the topics mentioned on the motion to introduce the Bill; namely, the formation of the committee, the force of precedent, and the effect of the meaſure; but although each of theſe points was treated at great length, and with diſtinguiſhed ability, an abſtract of the ſpeeches would not afford any great portion of inſtruction or amuſement. On a diviſion, the numbers were, for the committee 172, againſt it 38. June 5.

On the third reading, after a conſiderable debate, it was propoſed as an amendment, that actions ſhould not be diſcharged and made void, but ſtayed and ſuſpended until the termination of the preſent war; but the amendment was rejected by 92 to 17. The Houſe again divided on the motion that the Bill ſhould paſs, when the numbers were, ayes 85, noes 15.

On the firſt reading in the Houſe of Lords, the Duke of Bedford declared, that never ſince he had taken his ſeat in the Houſe had there been brought forward a bill which ſo ſtrongly called upon their lordſhips to inquire into the grounds for its introduction, and the neceſſity there was for paſſing ſuch a law; for if it ſhould appear that any individual had ſuffered injury, he indulged the ſanguine hope that their lordſhips would not deprive him of that redreſs, which, under the laws of his country, he could otherwiſe obtain. For the purpoſe of obtaining all the information he could for the Houſe, he moved, that a liſt of all the perſons who had been taken into cuſtody on the charge of ſedition or treaſon, together with the length of time, and the names of the places in which they had been confined, ſhould be laid upon the table. This motion was agreed to without a ſingle remark. June 12.

Several petitions againſt the bill were alſo preſented to this Houſe, where the June 19.

principal debate was maintained on the ſecond reading. Lord Hobart ſtated the origin of the Bill, and the neceſſity of preventing actions which could not be defended without diſcloſing information which it was of the utmoſt importance to keep ſecret. The known humanity, integrity, and honour of the Duke of Portland, placed him far beyond the ſuſpicion of wanton cruelty or malignity, and every principle of juſtice and policy required that an indemnity ſhould be afforded to thoſe who had the firmneſs to perform the moſt painful act of public duty, beneficial to all the moſt eſſential intereſts of the empire.

The Earl of Suffolk thought the late miniſters had greatly abuſed their powers, and that many had been detained in priſon for years, under circumſtances of peculiar hardſhip and oppreſſion, who had repeatedly deſired to be brought to their trial, but againſt whom no charge had been regularly made ſo as to put them on their defence before a jury of the country. This ſort of conduct, the iſſuing of *lettres de cachet*, had been the primary cauſe of the ſubverſion of a neighbouring kingdom. Of the forbearance and lenity of miniſters let their Lordſhips judge from two inſtances which he would ſelect out of many that offered themſelves to his mind. The one, that of a Noble Lord, tried for a few improper words, inadvertently uttered in a court of juſtice, for which he had been ſentenced to a twelve-month's impriſonment in the Tower, where he continued during the whole period. The other inſtance, was that of a noble relation of his, who, at a public convivial meeting had indiſcreetly let drop a few imprudent words, but which, when he became more cool, he was extremely ſorry to have uttered. For this mighty offence his Majeſty's miniſters immediately removed him from the Lord Lieutenancy of a county, a matter which he eaſily ſubmitted to; but miniſters further hurt his feelings, by depriving him of the command of a regiment of militia, which, by his uncommon attention, he had made the beſt in the kingdom, and by whom he was conſidered as a father. Even when he went to Portſmouth to take leave of his regiment, as the mutiny raged in the fleet, reports were circulated injurious to his honour, but his object was to conciliate the minds of the officers; to reconcile them to the loſs of their colonel, and to perſuade them not to reſign their commiſſions. In this he ſucceeded, for there was no reſignation but one lieutenant colonelcy; the other officers continued in the regiment, though they had all of them reſigned ſince.

The Earl of Caernarvon alſo diſapproved of the meaſure, as protecting miniſters from official reſponſibility, and undermining the ſecurity of the throne. If the maxim that the King can do no wrong, were extended to his miniſters, the odium of miſconduct, and injuries, muſt be imputable to the Sovereign alone.

The Lord Chancellor defended the meaſure, on the ground of neceſſity. In all periods of our hiſtory, the benefits of the Habeas Corpus Act were occaſionally relinquiſhed, to preſerve the invaluable bleſſings of the Britiſh conſtitution. However, the general

term

term of ſuſpenſion of the Habeas Corpus Act was improper, on occaſion of the proceeding deſignated by that term, ninety-nine parts out of a hundred were not ſuſpended, but merely one, though certainly an important clauſe. His Lordſhip then denied ever having given the opinion imputed to him in the Houſe of Commons, that no indemnity would ever be neceſſary, and obſerved that the benefits of the Bill could not apply to him, ſince he was not, while Attorney General, called on for political, but legal advice. He gave inſtances, in which a miniſter would be bound to act in ſuch a manner as afterward to require an indemnity, or would deſerve to loſe his head on a ſcaffold; noticed the unworthy and improper manner in which witneſſes giving evidence for the crown in courts of juſtice had been treated by means of the popular prejudice againſt ſpies and informers, and ſtated the different ſituation in which thoſe perſons ſtood who vouched for the character of O'Connor, and yet, from his ſubſequent confeſſion, what was he? What theſe defenders, at the time he alluded to, would have rejected the moſt diſtant imputation of. He aſſured the Houſe, from the knowledge he had acquired in the ſituations he formerly filled, as well as from other ſources of information, and his own perſonal connexion, that traitorous conſpiracies exiſted in the country. In order to counteract theſe, he was equally convinced that it was neceſſary to confide large powers to the executive government; to protect the legiſlature, the Sovereign, and the loyal people of the country; and to enable government to act efficaciouſly, they muſt be ſo placed, as to act with ſafety. His Lordſhip juſtified the proſecution adverted to by Lord Suffolk, and adjured their Lordſhips, if they had not a mind to hurl their Sovereign from his throne, or to turn themſelves out of thoſe doors; if they wiſhed to preſerve that conſtitution which was ſecured to them by the blood and virtue of their anceſtors, to paſs the Bill; and not to be deterred, by fear, from doing thoſe acts which their anceſtors did, as well for poſterity as for themſelves.

The Earl of Moira complained, that the friends of the Bill had not given a detailed explanation of its object. The report of the Houſe of Commons, he contended, proved the pernicious effects that had reſulted from the ſyſtem of martial law in Ireland, from the ſuſpenſion of the Habeas Corpus Act, and from all the other meaſures of coercion purſued in that country; but by no means proved the neceſſity of the Bill in queſtion. The Lord Chancellor had expatiated on conſpiracies, but conſpiracy and rebellion, ſedition and diſaffection had exiſted at previous periods, and always been ſuppreſſed by conſtitutional means. On the aſſertion that a portion of the conſtitution muſt be ſurrendered to preſerve the reſidue, his Lordſhip obſerved that, by every ſuch proceeding, the conſtitution was changed; and affirmed, that the conſtitution now was deplorably corrupted, and altogether diſſimilar to the conſtitution in its pureſt age; and he argued with great warmth againſt the ſyſtem of employing ſpies and informers. To prove

prove that miniſters had not exerciſed the powers committed to them with mildneſs, his Lordſhip cited two caſes, and entered into a particular detail of that of Lord Cloncurry. If this Bill were paſſed into a law, he maintained, that every notion of juſtice would be unſettled, and that which more than any other circumſtance had enabled the great bulk of the people to reſiſt dangerous principles, namely, their confidence in the laws of the country, would be deſtroyed.

The Earl of Weſtmoreland, having firſt vindicated the meaſure, by citing precedents from different periods of Engliſh hiſtory, defended it as conſonant with ſound policy. It would not hold out an indemnity for acts of cruelty or oppreſſion, but ſimply a ſecurity againſt vexatious ſuits. Had thoſe Noble Lords, who thought there was no neceſſity for this act, forgotten the events of the laſt ten years, or did they continue ſtill incredulous after the affair of O'Connor? There had been a torrent of invective againſt informers and ſpies: but, had it not been for theſe, O'Coigley and O'Connor would have preſerved their high reputation; Jackſon would not have expired by poiſon in the dock at Dublin; Sheares would not have been brought to a ſcaffold; and many whom he now ſaw round him, would have paid the forfeit of their lives to ſucceſsful conſpirators. He had heard great lamentations of the oppreſſions exerciſed upon thoſe who had been impriſoned, and they doubtleſs did honour to the humane feelings of thoſe who uttered them; but he could not avoid remarking, that he had heard from that quarter no lamentations for thoſe whoſe lives had been ſacrificed for their loyalty; for Lords O'Neal and Mountjoy, Dr. Hamilton, or Mr. Uniacke; for the Proteſtants who had been murdered at the Bridge of Wexford, or for various other perſons who had been murdered or cruelly treated; and he muſt ſay, that he could not but feel more for theſe ſuffering loyaliſts, than for thoſe rebels and traitors whoſe conduct had entailed puniſhment upon them. He called their Lordſhips to recollect their feelings, when the country was in danger from hordes of aſſaſſins who came over to this capital, at the commencement of the war, from France, and afterwards from Ireland, when the country was threatened with invaſion and rebellion, when there was a mutiny in the fleet, and apprehenſions were entertained for the army. It was a debt of juſtice then to theſe miniſters, whoſe conduct had warded off ſuch dangers, to paſs this Bill, and he believed the country alſo felt that it owed them a debt of gratitude.

The Duke of Bedford, oppoſing the Bill, admitted, for himſelf and the Noble Lords with whom he had the honour of acting, that at a certain period ſince the French Revolution, there had been conſiderable cauſe for alarm. The queſtion was, whether it was conſiſtent with the principles of the conſtitution, to grant an indemnity to miniſters for their uſe of the ſpecial powers entruſted to them during eight years? He conſidered the meaſure not as a ſuſpenſion of the conſtitution for a few years, but as an invention to deprive Engliſhmen of a great conſtitutional

tional priviledge for ever; to affix a perpetual ſtigma on the character of individuals who had never been brought to a fair trial of their guilt or innocence, and thus to ruin their credit in every ſubſequent part of life.

Lord Thurlow alſo inſiſted that every fair object of government would be attained by a temporary Bill, holding out a hope to the perſons oppreſſed, that at ſome future period, when what it was now neceſſary to conceal might be diſcloſed, they would have an opportunity of proving their innocence. He alſo animadverted on the clauſes of the Bill with great ſeverity, affirming that they were conſpicuous for the groſſeſt abſurdity and inaccuracy.

The Earl of Roſslyn defended both the principle and the framing of the Bill on the ground of precedent, and juſtified the conduct of government in thoſe tranſactions by which it was now rendered neceſſary. With reſpect to Lord Cloncurry, whoſe caſe had been mentioned as one of great hardſhip, Lord Roſslyn ſaid, he had received a letter from the late Lord Cloncurry, the father, thanking the adminiſtration for the ſteps they had taken reſpecting his ſon. If among thoſe who had been impriſoned, there was any one who could ſatisfactorily ſhew that he had been arreſted on unjuſt ſuſpicion, and could convince government that they had miſtaken, he had no doubt but ſuch perſon would receive ſatisfaction; but this was very different from laying open a ſource of action for damages in every caſe, which could anſwer no good purpoſe, and would, on the contrary, be vexatious, impolitic, and unjuſt.

The Houſe divided on the queſtion for a ſecond reading, and the numbers were, contents 54, non-contents 17.

Beſides this, two other Bills of Indemnity were paſſed, but neither occaſioned any memorable debate. The firſt was for rendering valid all acts done in execution of orders of council with reſpect to the embargo on Ruſſian, Swediſh, and Daniſh veſſels, and bills of exchange; the other for indemnifying perſons, who, ſince the 27th of March, 1799, had acted in preſerving the public peace, and ſuppreſſing rebellion in Ireland.

On the 2d of July the Seſſion was terminated by commiſſion.

CHAP.

CHAP. X.

Proceedings of France on the Continent of Europe for the purpose of injuring Great Britain. Incursion of the Neapolitan troops into the territories of the Church; their retreat; harsh terms of peace imposed on them; Neapolitan traitors pardoned, protected, and rewarded; French garrisons received in Naples; and at Rome; the English excluded from Naples; the French take possession of the Isle of Elba, but fail in all their endeavours to expel the English from Porto Ferrajo. France excites Spain against Portugal; Lucien Bonaparte sent to Spain as Embassador; treaty of Madrid; formation of an army at Bordeaux; an army levied in Spain; complaints of France against Portugal; an embassador sent from Spain to Portugal; inability of Great Britain to give effectual assistance; embarrassment of the Portuguese government; Spain declares war against Portugal; who declares war in return; a French army enters Spain; the Spaniards invade Portugal; proclamation of the Portuguese government; extensive preparations of France excite the jealousy of Spain; hasty invasion of Portugal by the Spanish army alone; its unresisted progress; peace concluded at Badajos; dissatisfaction of the French; many British subjects remove from Portugal; which the French invade, but without much effect; the English take possession of Madeira; and threaten the Brazils; general failure of the efforts to injure Great Britain on the Continent.

THE general plan of hostility projected by France against England, was not confined to the northern confederacy, but pressed in every direction with all the zeal of determined hatred, and all the force resulting from accumulated and extensive power and influence.

The armistice of Treviso seemed to decide the fate of Naples. Some troops of that country were passing through the papal territory, for the purpose of co-operating with the people of Tuscany in an effort to throw off the galling yoke of France; but when this power was no longer opposed by Austria, the exertions of inferior states became so evidently hopeless, that fear succeeded to confidence, and all attempts at resistance were abandoned as desperate. The force of this army, according to the account transmitted by the French General Brune, was 16,000, of whom 8,000 were Neapolitans, and, according to the same account, although they were attacked by only 3,000 French, the manœuvres employed against them were so judicious, and their terror so excessive, that almost without striking a blow, they took to flight in every direction; evacuating Arezzo and Cortona, and suffering the enemy to gain unresisted possession of Sienna. An army under General Murat, immediately advanced towards the ecclesiastical states, for the double purpose, as the General expressed it, of occupying Ancona, ceded to the French by the armistice of Treviso, and of securing to his Holiness the free enjoyment of his states, by forcing the Neapolitans to evacuate the Castle of Saint Angelo, and the whole Roman territory. The insurrection in Tuscany was suppressed

Jan. 14.

Jan. 24.

preſſed without any conſiderable exertion, and the march of the French troops was directed as follows. A corps under General Paulet to take poſſeſſion of the city and forts of Ancona, and two diviſions of Murat's main army, under Mathieu and Thurreau, to march toward Perrugia and Foligno, while another body ſhould occupy the roads to Radicaforni, Perrugia, and that along the ſea coaſts; the city and forts of Leghorn, thoſe of Florence, and the city of Lucca. When theſe preparations were made, it was known to the French, that the Neapolitans intended to retreat to their own frontier, but it was conſiſtent with the genius, views, and manners of the French, to enforce the proceeding by imperious acts of compulſion, and dictate peace without an appearance of mildneſs or humanity.

M. de Damas, who conducted the Neapolitan army, had already written, from his head quarters at Viterbo to Murat, explaining, that from the beginning of the campaign, his hoſtile movements had been intirely regulated by thoſe of M. de Bellegarde, that his retreat from Sienna was in conformity with that of the Auſtrian General towards the Brenta, and that after the armiſtice between France and Auſtria, he conſidered himſelf included in its ſtipulations. To this letter Murat returned a haughty and imperious anſwer, obſerving, that after the willingneſs which the Firſt Conſul had expreſſed to forget the numberleſs injuries of every kind, of which the Neapolitan government had been guilty towards the French nation, it might have been expected that Naples would have remained a peaceable ſpectator of a conteſt in which ſhe could be of no importance. Forgetting, however, for the tenth time, what was required from him by true policy, and the generous conduct of the French government; the King of Naples had puſhed his troops into Tuſcany, where they had been beaten. "But war" Murat continued, "is attended "with ſo many diſaſters, that the "French government ſeeks by all "means to avoid it; 1ſt, Evacuate all the ſtates of the church "and the Caſtle of St. Angelo. "2dly, Ceaſe to claim the benefits of the armiſtice of Treviſo, "where you are out of the queſtion, and the influence of a "power which no longer ought "to ſuccour you. The only "prince who at this day is enabled, through the perſonal and "particular conſideration which "the Firſt Conſul feels for him, "to protect your King, is the "Emperor of Ruſſia. Let your "government then, Sir, merit a "continuance of the goodneſs of "this Prince, which can only be "done by ſhutting the ports of "Sicily and Naples againſt the "Engliſh ſhips, and by laying an "embargo on all veſſels of that "nation, which it is at length "time to expel from all points "of the continent. Let it be "certified to me, by the Ruſſian "Embaſſador at your court, that "theſe preliminaries are fulfilled, and I will immediately "ſtop my march, and conclude an "armiſtice, the forerunner of a "juſt and equitable peace."

Jan. 22.

Jan. 25.

This imperative epiſtle, written in

in the genuine ſtyle of barbarian triumph, was addreſſed to a foe too feeble to reſiſt. The King, with his family, and General Acton, his principal miniſter, having fled to Sicily, the Marquis de Gallo was diſpatched from Vienna to Paris, to ſolicit, rather than negotiate for, peace, but he was referred to Foligno, whither Alquier had been diſpatched as French plenipotentiary. There
Feb. 18. an armiſtice was ſpeedily concluded between General Micheroux for the King of the Two Sicilies, and Generals Murat and Berthier on the part of the French. It obliged the Neapolitans to evacuate the ſtates of the church, to expel from their harbours the Engliſh and Turks, and admit the French and their allies to the privileges of the moſt favoured nations, and to aboliſh what the treaty termed tribunals of rigour within their dominions. It con-
Mar. 28. tained the outline of a definitive treaty of peace, equally oppreſſive to the diſtreſſed monarch, and diſadvantageous to his late allies, particularly England. By the ſecond article of this compact, the King was obliged to renounce and declare null and void all previous engagements into which he had entered, repugnant to its ſtipulations. The ports of Naples and Sicily were to be ſhut againſt all ſhips of war and merchantmen, whether Turkiſh or Engliſh, until the concluſion of a definitive peace between the French republic and thoſe two powers, and the termination of all differences between England and the northern powers, particularly Ruſſia. Thoſe ports, on the contrary, were to be open to France and her allies, and to the ſtates comprized in the maritime neutrality of the north; and ſhould this arrangement expoſe Naples to attacks either from Great Britain or Turkey, troops for the protection of the country were to be ſent from France in equal numbers with thoſe ſupplied by Ruſſia. The King of Naples renounced to the French government Porto Longone, in the Iſle of Elba, with all its appurtenances, the ſtates of Preſidii, in Tuſcany, and the principality of Piombino. Sequeſtrations of property were removed on both ſides, and the degraded Sovereign covenanted to pay a ſum of 500,000 livres, to be diſtributed among the agents and French citizens, who had been particularly the victims of the diſorders which had been produced at Naples, Viterbo, and in other points of the ſouth of Italy by the conduct of Neapolitans. Not content with making the King of the Two Sicilies by this public act, reward thoſe who had been traitors to his crown and government, and ſtigmatize his more loyal ſubjects as the fomenters of diſorder, the dictators of this treaty, further compelled him to permit all thoſe of his ſubjects who had been proſecuted, baniſhed, or who had expatriated themſelves voluntarily, for acts relating to the reſidence of the French in the kingdom of Naples, to return without moleſtation to their country, and be reinſtated in their properties, and to promiſe that all perſons in cuſtody on account of political opinions which they had declared, ſhould be immediately ſet at liberty. The protection which this treaty enabled a foreign power

power to afford to the traitorous ſubjects of the Neapolitan ſtates was rendered additionally inſulting by a proclamation which General Murat addreſſed to them and the refugees from Rome, directing their return to their native countries, where they need not fear unjuſt perſecutions, ſince the French government, which had enjoyed their confidence, had in its treaties watched over their intereſts with ſolicitude. "The protection of "the great nation," he added, "is not a vain ſecurity; live "then in tranquillity under ſuch a "ſhelter; be not any longer under "the ſmalleſt apprehenſion, but, "in the name of your own in-"tereſts, forego all reſentments."

April 18.

The condition of a monarch, whoſe diſaffected ſubjects returned to his dominions triumphant in ſuch an aſſurance of foreign and irreſiſtible protection requires no comment, but the King was further obliged to receive into his dominions a large army of his late enemy to garriſon Naples, Meſſina, Palermo, Otranto, Tarentum, and Brunduſium; to inſult his faithful adherents, and tyrannize over his people. To his army, when about to enter the Neapolitan ſtates, Murat addreſſed a proclamation in his uſual ſtyle; he told them of their triumph in being received as friends, where they expected to appear as invaders, and as Naples was by them to be ſheltered from the influence and the efforts of the Cabinet of St. James's, they muſt ſhew in their conduct, a moderation, nobleneſs, and generoſity conformable with the national character. He charged them to honour the government, as friendly to France; to reſpect the religion, manners, and even, if neceſſary, the prejudices of the people, and to recollect that, although it was worthy of them to be the examples, they were not called on to be the reformers of the world; and concluded in theſe terms. "You ought, in return, "to find among the Neapolitans "all the ſentiments and good of-"fices of friendſhip. Let us wipe "away all recollections of the "paſt;—but woe to the whole "nation, if, through perfidy, a "ſingle drop of French blood is "ſhed." The ſufferings which would be impoſed on the people, under pretence of requiring from them the good offices of friendſhip, and the humiliating paſſiveneſs with which they would be obliged to endure every ſpecies of injury and inſult, for fear of the vengeance comprized in the concluding threat, may be eſtimated, by conſidering the conduct of the French on every ſimilar occaſion.

April 16.

When the Neapolitan troops had evacuated the territory of the church, that government, being without military defence, ſome commotions, preconcerted moſt probably, were begun by the anarchical faction, and the Pope having required the aid of the French, General Murat repaired with an army to his capital, where he was received with the utmoſt reſpect, and his troops remained after his departure, to preſerve that order which the government itſelf could not enforce.

A ſmall Engliſh garriſon which was at Meſſina, was allowed to depart for Malta; and all Neapolitan troops ſerving in that iſland,

or

or under Sir Ralph Abercromby in Egypt, were to return home. The embargo laid on Britiſh property in purſuance of Murat's dictates, was productive of little effect, for between the writing of his letter, and the concluſion of the armiſtice, ſufficient time had been allowed for removal.

In purſuance of the treaty, the French alſo took poſſeſſion of the Preſidii with Orbitello, as part of Tuſcany, and ſo much of the iſland of Elba as belonged to Naples, but Porto Ferrajo, being in the hands of the Engliſh, was not ſubdued by all the force the French could employ.

Aug. 1. A regular ſiege was formed by 2000 men under General Wattrin, a camp eſtabliſhed, batteries raiſed for bombarding the place, and great exertions made for ſecuring a ſupply of proviſions from Longone. For effecting this purpoſe the French relied on two frigates which they had in the port of Leghorn, and for the purpoſe of watching them, ſome Britiſh armed veſſels cruized in the channel of Piombino. The French boaſted, during the ſummer, of glorious exploits performed by their troops in preventing the landing of reinforcements, for which there does not appear to be the ſlighteſt foundation; but, on the other hand, the Engliſh drove on ſhore their two frigates Le Succés and La Bravoure, taking one, and deſtroying the other. Another ſquadron of frigates being ſubſequently fitted out, the Engliſh attacked them too, with an inferior force, taking two of 40 guns, and deſtroying another. Finally, after long perſeverance, and many ineffectual attempts, the French were obliged to raiſe the ſiege from mere deſpair of ſucceſs.

Sept. 1.

As a country intimately connected with Great Britain, and productive of many commercial advantages, Portugal engaged the hoſtile attention of France, and it was generally believed that the miſſion of Lucien Bonaparte, brother of the Firſt Conſul to Madrid, as embaſſador from the French Republic, was with a view to excite that too ſervile nation to hoſtility againſt its feeble and unoffending neighbour. This effect was in fact ſpeedily produced, for about the ſame time with the peace of Luneville, a treaty was executed at Madrid, by which France and Spain agreed to form a confederated army for the purpoſe of invading Portugal, and obliging her to renounce her alliance with England, and as a guaranty of her obedience, to place a fourth part of her dominions, as well European as colonial, in the poſſeſſion of French and Spaniſh troops, till the concluſion of a general peace. Even before the ſignature of this compact, it was publicly announced in France that a new army, with artillery and cavalry, was formed at Bordeaux, intitled the Corps of Obſervation of the Gironde, to be commanded by a lieutenant general, who was to correſpond directly with the war miniſter at Paris, and the embaſſador of the republic at Madrid. Spain, exhauſted as ſhe was, was obliged, at the ſame time, to levy 50,000 men, although, in effecting it, ſhe was driven to the laſt reſources of revolutionary compulſion, making a forced inrolment, even of young eccleſiaſtics who had not

Jan. 16.

not ſerved more than ſix months of their noviciate.

Beſide general views of ambition, and projects of revenge againſt England, France had ſome reaſonable complaints to allege againſt Portugal. A peace between the two countries had been arranged ſoon after the treaty of Campo Formio, which the Court of Liſbon had refuſed to ratify, and the ſuccour afforded to the Britiſh forces before Malta and in Egypt had drawn down the invectives and menaces of the French generals, and government. Spain had, on the contrary, no ſerious grievance to complain of, but was evidently compelled, in oppoſition to inclination and intereſt, to yield to the views and dictates of France. While, therefore, Lucien Bonaparte was entertained with flattering diſtinctions at Madrid, the Marquis de Caſtel Franco, major in the body guards of his moſt Catholic Majeſty, was diſpatched to Liſbon for the purpoſe of offering to Portugal the alternative of adhering to the alliance with England, or accepting that of Spain and France.

In the peculiar circumſtances in which Great Britain was placed at that period, Portugal could not expect to derive from her any military aſſiſtance. It is ſaid, that, in October or November preceding, the Britiſh cabinet had given aſſurances of ample ſuccour, but in the mean time the clouds of adverſity had thickened around the political hemiſphere; the ſubjugation of Auſtria, which would leave to France a much greater diſpoſeable force than England and Portugal united could hope to contend againſt; the northern confederacy ſo menacing to England, and the reſult of which was not then foreſeen; and the ſchemes reſpecting India, which were ſaid to be arranged between Ruſſia and France, all concurred to inforce on the Britiſh cabinet the neceſſity of carrying all the troops which could be ſo employed to that ſituation in which they could moſt effectually reſiſt and annoy the enemy.

Yet, although the government of Portugal might conſider itſelf ill-ſupported by Great Britain, it was not eaſy to accede to the propoſition of uniting with France and Spain, and declaring war againſt its ancient ally. Inclination did not lead to ſuch an election, and the Portugueze miniſtry repreſented the ruinous effects of ſuch a meaſure, and intreated, at leaſt, a ſhort delay. Portugal had in England a large fleet of merchant ſhips, for the cargoes of which payment had already been made by the acceptance of bills of exchange, and on theſe veſſels it was to be expected that an embargo would be laid. From the Braſils large and valuable convoys were expected, which neither Portugal nor her allies, ſhould ſhe accede to their offers, could protect againſt the ſuperior force of the Britiſh navy: on every ſide, therefore, the danger was menacing, and no abſolute ſafety could be expected from either alliance.

The ſafety of Portugal was however an object of ſmall conſideration with Bonaparte, in compariſon with the execution of his grand project, the attack of Great Britain on every ſide, and the utter expulſion of her commerce from all parts of Europe. Under the commands of the French em-

baſſador, therefore, the King of Spain, after receiving a miniſter, deputed by his ſon in law, the prince regent of Portugal, iſſued a declaration of war againſt that country. In this ſtate paper, the King of Spain recapitulated his own endeavours to effect a pacification between his ally the republic of France, and the kingdom of Portugal, which had been nearly concluded in 1797, but fruſtrated through the influence of England, who feared that the potent intervention of Spain would ſnatch from it one of the moſt uſeful inſtruments of its ambitious views. Since that time the Portugueze government had aſſumed a character more audacious, and not contented with affording to England, the enemy of Spain, all the means in its power of annoying that country, and its ally the French republic, it had proceeded to the extravagant length of doing injury to Spaniſh ſubjects, and failing in the reſpect due to the King by its obſtinate reſiſtance to his advice. Europe, he ſaid, beheld with ſcandal, a ſecure aſylum afforded in the ports of Portugal to the veſſels of England, whence they were enabled to purſue with advantage his ſhips, and thoſe of his ally the French republic. Portugueze, mixed with Engliſh ſhips, and forming part of their fleets, had facilitated their proviſioning and tranſports, partaken in their acts of hoſtility, and committed ſingular exceſſes. The ports of Portugal were the public market of French and Spaniſh prizes made by the Engliſh; in the river Guadiana, the peaceable ſubjects of Spain had been attacked and fired on by Portugueze ſoldiers, and the government not only refuſed ſatisfaction, but, under the appearance of friendſhip, had conſtantly acted againſt the Spaniſh dominions both in Europe and the Indies. What conduct was to be obſerved in the midſt of ſo many outrages? The French republic, juſtly irritated againſt Portugal, was deſirous of inflicting a juſt vengeance upon it, and its victorious arms would long ſince have ſpread deſolation through its provinces, if the fraternal affection of the King of Spain for the moſt faithful Queen, and her auguſt children, had not ſuſpended the blow. His mediation had always prevented the progreſs of the French. His paternal care for theſe provinces, making him forget all preceding grievances, and all the freſh ones which he had to complain of, induced him to endeavour to divert the ſucceſſes of the French armies, and to obtain an advantageous peace. He had ſtrongly repreſented to the court of Portugal the dangers to which it expoſed itſelf; and, in the openneſs of his heart, he employed the moſt engaging language of paternal tenderneſs and friendſhip, to induce its determination. Compelled by the obſtinacy of Portugal to uſe harſher language, he had tried by advice, by menaces of anger, and by rational expoſtulation, to recal it to its duties. The Court of Liſbon, however, deaf to all he could ſay, only ſought to gain time by vain promiſes, ſeveral times ſending plenipotentiaries without powers, and uſing all thoſe methods of delay, and all thoſe ſubterfuges, dictated by a fallacious and verſatile policy. The blindneſs of the prince regent

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régent had gone ſo far as to name his ally, the King of Great Britain, in a letter which he addreſſed to the King of Spain, forgetful of what was due to conſanguinity, and to reſpect; and giving the name of alliance to what was no more than the abuſe of that aſcendency which England had arrogated over his country. Having thus exhauſted the means of conciliation, the King conſidered that a longer toleration would be injurious to his people, and a want of fidelity towards his ally; yet wiſhing to renew, for the laſt time, his propoſitions to her moſt faithful Majeſty, he had ordered his embaſſador, the Duke de Fryas, to explain the inconvenience and injuſtice of her conduct, the abyſs in which ſhe was involving herſelf, and the only means of eſcaping, by accepting the treaty, which, on account of the mediation of Spain, France was ſtill willing to accept. The Court of Portugal had, in the uſual manner, ſent a negotiator with inſufficient powers, and at the ſame time rejected the propoſitions. On theſe grounds the King declared war againſt Portugal.

The whole tenor of this paper ſhewed that Spain felt, in fact, no anger againſt Portugal; but that the war was undertaken merely to gratify the views of a too powerful and dangerous ally. The terms propoſed on the part of France, and which Portugal thought it neceſſary to reject, were, a total ſeparation from England, a payment in money equal to a million ſterling, the introduction of French garriſons into Liſbon and Oporto, and the poſſeſſion of two ports in the Braſils, as a ſecurity for the freedom of commerce in that part of the world. Although it was evidently hopeleſs for Portugal to reſiſt with her ſingle force, or even with the troops which Great Britain was able to ſpare for her aſſiſtance, the united efforts of France and Spain, ſtill it was conſidered better to protract the political exiſtence of the country by appearing to ſtruggle, than to ſink voluntarily into a ſtate of ſubjection. The language of Spain indeed, and probably ſome private underſtanding with the government of that country, ſtill allowed ſome hopes to the Portugueze, which a French invaſion would have extinguiſhed for ever.

In anſwer to the Spaniſh declaration of war, Mar. 5. the Court of Liſbon iſſued a counter declaration. The French April 16. continued to make preparations in aid of their ally, the King of Spain, and perhaps more to his terror than conſolation, marched part of the army of reſerve of the Gironde into his dominions. Their commander in chief, General Le Clere, before their departure from Bayonne reviewed the whole army, amounting to 10,000 men, with thirty pieces of cannon, and in a ſpeech, recommended to the officers as well as ſoldiers, to behave with all ſuitable conſideration, in accommodating themſelves to the cuſtoms and habits of a friendly nation, in conjunction with whom they were advancing to combat the only allies which remained to England on the Continent. Bravery and good conduct in preſence of the enemy, he told them, comprized but half the duties of the ſoldier; the ſucceſs of the campaign would be equally

promoted by the pains they ſhould take in conciliating the eſteem and friendſhip of the people among whom they would ſoon find themſelves. The firſt diviſion ſoon afterward arrived at Burgos, where, according to the account of General Monnet, who led them, they were received with every mark of diſtinction, and were well ſupplied with proviſions of the beſt quality. They gained, the general ſaid, the affections of the people, and diſſipated all their prejudices by attending maſs on Sundays, with the regimental military muſic. The Spaniſh army did not wait for the arrival of its allies, but taking advantage of its proximity to the intended ſcene of action, made haſte to invade the territory of Portugal.

April 26. Thus aſſailed, the government of that country iſſued a proclamation to the clergy, nobility, and people, well calculated (if words could effect ſuch an end on a degenerate and enervated race) to have animated them with zeal for their native land, and rouzed them to vigorous exertions in their own defence. It recapitulated the conſtant endeavours of the prince regent to obtain for his ſubjects the repoſe and tranquility neceſſary to happineſs. Vigilance and juſtice had ſecured to the Portugueze the calm they enjoyed ſince 1790, and that ſtate in poſſeſſion of its independence, while ſo many countries had been ſubjugated, held out to Europe an example of ſcrupulous fidelity in executing its engagements. To Spain it had given a recent inſtance of good faith by marching an army to her aſſiſtance in 1793, granting ſupport rather in proportion to the wants of that country than any other circumſtances. Spain however, which ſhould be the firſt power to evince its gratitude for this generous conduct, had, on the contrary, by terminating hoſtilities with France, not only endangered the nation which aſſiſted it, but declared war againſt it for having remained faithful to treaties. It ſet up a pretext, that thoſe treaties, contracted in the preſence of God and man, ſhould be ſuddenly broken, and the prince and the people ſhould be guilty of perjury. It was intended to degrade and debaſe the nation by reducing them to the condition of brokers and factors of their own commerce. "Spain requires," the proclamation proceeded, "that "our ports ſhould be garriſoned "by her troops, in order to have "a guaranty of our fidelity. A "nation which could reſiſt the "Romans, conquer Aſia, make "great diſcoveries by ſea, ſhake "off while ſhe was ſtill in a weak "ſtate the yoke of a foreign "ſceptre, and recover and main-"tain her independence; ſhould "not that nation, at preſent, re-"call to mind the honourable an-"nals of her hiſtory? People of "Portugal! We ſtill preſerve the "courage and the ſentiments of "honour tranſmitted to us by our "anceſtors! Juſtice is on our "ſide; and the true God, favour-"able to our cauſe, will puniſh by "our arms the injuſtice of our ene-"mies. He will cover with glory "our generous and legitimate ſo-"vereign. Our patriotiſm, the "equity of our cauſe, the remem-"brance of our exploits, will en-"ſure victory to our ſtandard. "Can we then doubt the loyalty,

"the

" the eagerneſs of the troops, the " militia, the free corps, &c. to " aſſemble under their command- " ers? Can there exiſt a doubt " but that their attachment to the " prince who governs us, as well " as the animation which they " muſt feel in the cauſe of national " honour, and their zeal and " ardour inſpired by a juſt de- " fence, will oppoſe to our ene- " mies an invincible barrier?"

From the period when the French entered Spain, it was obſerved that they continued their preparations with a formidable alacrity, increaſing their army, and exerting to the utmoſt the means which their command over the Spaniſh navy gave them in equipping an expedition in the ports of that country, but manning the ſhips as much as poſſible with ſeamen of their own. The Court of Madrid could not be inſenſible of the danger with which it was threatened by this inſidious amity, and therefore ſeems to have taken the beſt courſe for avoiding its own immediate ruin, and preventing the conqueſt of a country which would ere long have led to the ſubjugation of Spain. An army, inſufficient in numbers, haſtily collected, deficient in proviſions, equipages, and all manner of neceſſaries, was led by the Prince of Peace, aſſiſted, or rather ſuperviſed, by the French general St. Cyr, to the attack of the Portugueze frontier. The Spaniſh commander ſeemed no leſs anxious than the nation to whom he was oppoſed to avoid the preſence of his dangerous allies. He entered the province of Alentejo, the moſt fertile in Portugal, and with little difficulty made himſelf maſter of all its ſtrong places. The oppoſing army hardly ſhewed the appearance of reſiſtance. Slight ſkirmiſhes at Arronches and Flor de Roſa, which even the exaggeration of a ſucceſsful Spaniard could not magnify into objects intereſting to curioſity, with a ſhort blockade of Helvas, and bombardment of Campo Major, were all that preceded the retreat of the Portugueze to the oppoſite ſhore of the Tagus. They encamped at Abrantes, in Eſtremadura, diſtant only fourteen leagues from Liſbon; and the French reinforcements were daily expected, when the Marquis De Pinto, as miniſter from the Court of Liſbon, came to Badajos for the purpoſe of propoſing terms of peace. He was received, as the Spaniſh general expreſſed it in his diſpatch, as the agent, not of enemies, but of too long deluded friends. The terms were inſtantly arranged, and although not formally communicated at the time, were avowed in the Gazette publiſhed at Madrid, to ſtipulate for the excluſion of Britiſh commerce from the harbours of Portugal, which was ſaid to be the great, and indeed ſole cauſe which had induced the King of Spain, with ſo much regret, to ſuſpend the relations of peace with the neighbouring country. As further advantages derived from this compact, it was ſtated, that the vaſt ſtores of contraband goods, which being depoſited all along the frontiers of Portugal, had exhauſted the Spaniſh revenue, and by ſtimulating the avidity of a great number of unfortunate wretches, led to their ruin, were now removed to the interior; and the fertile

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province of Olivenza, with its ſtrong capital, which were ceded to the invaders, would form, it was ſaid, an effectual ſecurity to the Caſtilian Eſtremadura, and take for ever from Portugal the power of injuring the frontiers of Spain.

Every part of this tranſaction was viewed with general aſtoniſhment. The declaration of war by Spain in terms which could hardly be conſidered hoſtile; the haſty collection of an army and its progreſs, while deſtitute of all neceſſaries, without waiting for the cooperation which France was known to be preparing; the ſlight, or rather no reſiſtance offered by Portugal, and the concluſion of a treaty of peace in ſeventeen days after the commencement of operations, in which treaty, ſentiments of tenderneſs and regard were avowed toward the conquered party, and the evident eagerneſs to conclude it before the dangerous and rapacious ally of Spain could advance claims which muſt have been fatal to the ſubjugated power: all theſe were ſubjects of rational wonder. It was not, indeed, ſurpriſing, that Spain ſhould wiſh to preſerve from extinction a royal houſe ſo nearly connected with its own; but what reſentment the powerful ally of Spain might feel on the occaſion, and what perils might enſue from exciting it, were among the ſubjects of general ſpeculation.

The French government profeſſed, that in obtaining the Portuguze territories and colonies, nothing further was intended than to compel Great Britain to repurchaſe them at the concluſion of peace, by reſtoring thoſe ſhe had captured from Spain. This pretext, however, met with little credit, and it was generally ſurmiſed that the views of France on Spain and on Portugal extended to a complete revolution in both; it was even affirmed that meaſures projected for the purpoſe were fruſtrated only by the injudicious and intemperate conduct of Lucien Bonaparte. Admitting the French to have aſſured Spain that her benefit was alone to be conſulted in the operations againſt Portugal, it becomes evident that the Court of Madrid muſt have been actuated by no ordinary alarm, when it dared ſo openly to illude the power from the reſentment of which it had ſo much to dread. Even before the ratification of the treaty of Badajos, the French government repreſented to that of Spain that it was repugnant to general policy, to the intereſt of the allies, and to the terms of the convention of Madrid, and that an immediate conſequence would be, that his Catholic Majeſty muſt renounce all hopes of recovering the Iſland of Trinidad. Notwithſtanding even this remonſtrance the treaty was ratified.

When peace was firſt coucluded, the terms were kept ſecret, and the Britiſh embaſſador at Liſbon complained in ſtrenuous language of the injury to which his country would be expoſed by ſuch a proceeding, and he adviſed the Engliſh Conſul to direct that the Britiſh merchants ſhould hold themſelves in readineſs to depart at a moment's notice. Although the Prince Regent endeavoured by the ſtrongeſt aſſurances to tranquilize this alarm, prudential caution drove many Britiſh inhabitants from the territories of Portugal, which, as

France

France was not a party to the treaty, were ſtill conſidered open to invaſion. In fact, a body of 30,000 French troops, under Le Clerc, entered the Province of Beira, and beſieged Almeida, while the army of Portugal, aſſiſted by a few Britiſh, and ſome regiments of French emigrants, but ſtill inferior, in every reſpect, to the force of the invaders, continued at Abrantes. Although it was evidently in the power of the French to inflict much evil on Portugal, the ſummer paſſed without any deciſive attempt; the great opportunity was loſt, and every effort againſt that enfeebled country would have tended rather to the aggrandizement than to the injury of England.

Immediately on the declaration of hoſtilities, the Britiſh miniſtry, with great prudence, diſpatched a force to take poſſeſſion of the Iſland of Madeira, the command of which was entruſted to Lieutenant Colonel Clinton, ſon of General Sir Henry Clinton, who bore ſo diſtinguiſhed a part in the American war. Theſe forces were received, not as invaders, but as friends and allies, the ſtrong places of the iſland were cheerfully intruſted to their care, and their behaviour during their ſtay juſtified the favourable opinion of the Portugueſe government. This proceeding was underſtood to be only preparatory to a ſimilar occupation of the Braſils, ſhould the progreſs of the French in the European dominions of Portugal render it neceſſary, and as Great Britain was not likely to be impeded in ſuch an attempt, France had every reaſon to abſtain from active hoſtility, and no inducement to perſevere.

The attack on Portugal was the laſt portion of a vaſt political combination, which, as the French Government deſcribed it, ſpread its twines from the Baltic to Hanover, from Hanover to the confines of Otranto, and the common knot of which was, a general peace. In the Baltic, the valour of Nelſon, and the death of Paul broke the thread woven by gallic policy; in Hanover it was laxly held by the intervention of Pruſſia; Naples, by compulſion, maintained it in ſome degree of ſtrictneſs, and Portugal, though unable effectually to reſiſt the aggreſſion of Spain and France, had yet continued to prevent the eſtabliſhment of the French combination to the general injury of her ancient and beneficial ally,

CHAP. XI.

View of the internal Situation of France. Abrogation of all pretences to Liberty and Equality. Trial of Perſons who had conſpired to aſſaſſinate Bonaparte, Evidence againſt them, their Defence, and Sentence. Report made by Fouché reſpecting the Infernale; Law for tranſporting One Hundred and Thirty-three Perſons without a Trial. Law propoſed for eſtabliſhing Special Criminal Tribunals; Outline of their Formation; it is oppoſed in the Tribunate, but paſſed. Meaſures for Protection of Travellers againſt Robbers. Numerous Arreſts in the Departments; new Report of Fouché reſpecting the Infernale; other Trials in conſequence. Harſh Treatment of Emigrants. Progreſs of a civil Code. Compact between Bonaparte and the Pope for re-eſtabliſhing the Catholic Religion in France. Tranſactions which led to this Event; the Pope patronized by Bonaparte; Publications in France in favour of an Eſtabliſhment. Brief of Pius VII. to the French Biſhops; a Conſiſtory held at Rome; a Council held at Paris; Letter of Fouché againſt the refractory Prieſts; the Concordat ſettled and referred to a College of Cardinals; the Council in Paris terminates its Sittings; Precautions to prevent the Contents of the Concordat from being known; it is at length ratified and publiſhed; its Subſtance; the conſtitutional Biſhops conſent to reſign their Sees; the Pope's Brief to the emigrant Biſhops; Conduct of thoſe in England; their Meetings; diſapproved by the Pope's Nuncio; four Biſhops reſign; fourteen refuſe; ſix in Germany alſo refuſe; Memorial of the non-complying Biſhops in vindication of their Conduct; View of the Motives of Bonaparte; Sentiments of various Claſſes of People on the Concordat; a new Counſellor of State created to preſide over religious Matters; the Office conferred on Portalis; Obſervations. The Commerce of France neglected; the Finance in Diſtreſs; Projects of internal Improvement; Diſtreſs of the People; Uneaſineſs of Government; Reſtraints on the Preſs; the Army of Germany diſcontented; the Conſular Guard increaſed.

FRANCE having thus utterly or partially failed in all the projects formed to injure Great Britain by indirect attacks, it will remain to ſhew the events which attended the progreſs of direct hoſtility, and firſt to review the internal circumſtances of the two nations.

The republic, eminent in military fame, ſtrong in dominion, and formidable in oppreſſive alliances, yet exhibited in its interior the weakneſs produced by a protracted ſtruggle, carried on by means unknown in the hiſtory of civilized man, and attended with the ſubverſion of every law, human and divine, which had been uſed to curb licentious paſſion, and ſupply an internal monitor to regulate the conduct of man under circumſtances which human laws cannot reach. As the government grew ſtronger, and leſs dependent on popular opinion, every appearance of that liberty and equality which had been ſo fatally abuſed, became ſuppreſſed, and every appeal to thoſe principles, diſregard-

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ed or punished. France so lately the theatre, on which, for the sake of freedom, so many violent declamations had been pronounced, and so many sanguinary tragedies exhibited, now saw all those lofty pretences trampled under foot; regulations in law, religion, and civil polity just beginning, as if no divine or human regulation had been hitherto known, with the additional mortification that all which was considered arbitrary, tyrannical, and absurd in the old system was imitated, restored or exceeded, and every thing in it which had been grand, benevolent, and dignified, was absolutely suppressed.

Measures of severe regulation, calculated to revive under another form, the system of terror which disfigured France in the days of Robespierre, were resorted to in consequence of the attempt to destroy the First Consul by means of the machine termed *infernale*, and of another plot said to have been formed in the preceding month of October for his assassination with a poniard. The persons accused of this last offence were Dominic Demerville, Joseph Ceracchi, Joseph Arena, a Corsican, late member of the Council of Five Hundred, John Francis Baptist Topino Lebrun, historical painter, Joseph Diana, Magdalen Charlotte Claudine Fumey, Arman Deiteg, and Dennis Lavigne. Their

Jan. 7. trial took place before the ordinary court, called the criminal tribunal for the department of the Seine, and proceeded with all due formalities. The principal witnesses for the prosecution were one Harel, a captain, and the celebrated Barrere. Harel deposed that Demerville, one of the culprits, had disclosed to him projects for subverting the government, and assassinating the First Consul at one of the public places in Paris, named to him divers individuals, as directors of the plot, and requested him to purchase arms, and procure the assistance of four resolute fellows. Alarmed at this communication, Harel said he had reported it to Lefebvre, commissary at war, who had given notice to the minister of the police. Harel continued to receive money from the conspirators, with which he purchased pistols, daggers, and other arms, part of which he gave to them, and the other part to Lefebvre. The 10th of October being fixed for the execution of the plot, the conspirators went to the Opera, as did the witness with four men well armed. Diana was taken up, because he was seated in a box opposite to Bonaparte, and Ceracchi walking in the avenues, was arrested before he had time to go for his arms. The officers of police immediately proceeded to the house of Demerville, where several individuals were secured, and he himself, not being then at home, surrendered the next day but one. On examination before the minister of police, Ceracchi and Demerville confessed their guilt, and impeached Arena, who they declared had furnished them with money. Barrere supported the proof against Demerville by stating, that on the 10th of October, he had dissuaded the witness from going to the Opera, lest, as he said, there should be a tumult, which would interrupt the performance.

The accused defended themselves with equal spirit and ability, exposing

posing many absurdities in the charge; their confession, they insisted, had been extorted by violence, and under threats of being immediately shot, and had been formally and publicly retracted the moment they had an opportunity of recording their declaration in safety. Harel, they said, was himself frequently in the habit of venting those threats and imprecations against the First Consul, which he had falsely and basely charged on them. They produced also many witnesses to their character, among whom was David, the painter. Their counsel, named Dommanget and Guichard, acted with becoming boldness, claiming from the court the observance of the rules of law, the violation of which would place it on a level with the revolutionary tribunal; but this language was strongly reprehended, and the advocates threatened with punishment unless they changed their style; the court would not suffer any reflections either on the magistrates at the head of the police, or any of their subaltern agents. The jury found Demerville, Ceracchi, Arena, and Topino Le Brun, guilty; Diana, Fumey, Daiteg, and Lavigne, were declared not guilty, and discharged. Those who were convicted appealed to the proper court, but the judgment against them was confirmed, and they were shot on the Place de la Grêve. Jan. 20.

Before this process began, the attempt to destroy Bonaparte by the *infernale* had been made, and the occasion was considered favourable for expelling from France a great number of persons, whose stubborn hostility to every species of rule rendered them dangerous to every power, and for giving to government as much additional strength as despotism itself could require. The trial above described could not be prevented from taking place, but it was determined that should be the last opportunity afforded to prisoners of making their defence interesting to the people, or dangerous to the projects of government. Jan. 1. Eight days after the explosion of the machine intended to kill the First Consul, Fouché, the minister of general police, so dreadfully celebrated in the annals of the Revolution, presented to the Consuls a report on the subject, affirming in the first place, that those who made the attempt could be considered only as enemies of the human race. These were not the sort of criminals against whom law and its forms were instituted; they did not confine themselves to menace a few persons, and some portions of property; they were enemies of all France, threatening every moment to deliver up every Frenchman to the furies of anarchy. These men, it was said, were few in number, but their offences were innumerable. They had been equally ready to attack the national convention, and every other government, but finding themselves equally objects of contempt and aversion under the present system, which was fenced round by public confidence, and strengthened by popular affection, they had changed their tactics, and relied on assassination, hoping to avail themselves of the stupor and confusion which would be produced by the death of the First Consul. The men whom the police

fice had detected were not all taken with poniards in their hand, but they were all univerſally known to be capable of whetting and of uſing them. It was not now required to puniſh the paſt, but to ſecure ſocial order.

On theſe looſe allegations, ſupported only by the declamatory periods of Fouché, the government was required to vote that 133 perſons ſhould be placed under a watchful inſpection in places out of the European territory of the republic. This tremendous law, which convicted and puniſhed ſo many individuals without a charge, and without a hearing, paſſed the council of ſtate without difficulty; it was, with equal facility, adopted by the conſervative ſenate, ſanctioned by the conſuls, and carried into immediate effect. In looking over the liſt of victims we ſee only the names of regicides, ſeptemberizers, and others of the moſt atrocious deſcription; but liberty is never more endangered than when government begins to practiſe tyranny on notorious criminals. In their favour no voice is raiſed, and the public, rejoicing too inconſiderately in an event which ſeems propitious to the general cauſe of juſtice, ſanctions a precedent, by which virtue and patriotiſm may be ſacrificed at pleaſure, and deſpotiſm eſtabliſhed on an immoveable baſis.

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The tyranny which this law tended to eſtabliſh was not ſlowly diſcloſed by the lapſe of time; as ſpeedily as poſſible after the triumph of Fouché over every principle of juſtice, Portalis, a counſellor of ſtate, preſented himſelf before the legiſlative body, with a report drawn up by order of government, on the propriety of eſtabliſhing ſpecial criminal tribunals. The arguments contained in this report are a melancholy ſpecimen of the audacity with which deſpotiſm is enabled to ſhew its moſt deformed features in a country which had for thirteen years endured all the horrors of a popular revolution, in the deluſive hope of obtaining permanent liberty, founded on conſtitutional law and general equality. M. Portalis having cited the 92d article of the conſtitution to prove the lawfulneſs of ſuſpending that code if neceſſary, made theſe obſervations. "The maintenance "of public order would ſometimes "be endangered by the conſti- "tution itſelf, if that conſtitution "were too inflexible. Society "does not exiſt for the ſake of "civil and political inſtitutions, "but they are formed for the "good of ſociety; it is neceſ- "ſary, therefore, that there ſhould "be a power to ſuſpend the effect "of thoſe inſtitutions, when it "ceaſes to be a benefit, and be- "comes a danger. The outline "of the propoſed law entruſts to "government the power of eſta- "bliſhing ſpecial criminal tribu- "nals in ſuch departments as they "ſhall think proper; the wander- "ing hordes of robbers ought not "to receive warning before hand "to change the theatre of their "crimes in order to multiply their "chances of impunity. It would "be uſeleſs in confiding this "power, to limit its duration by "too ſhort a term, and therefore "it is not to expire till two years "after a peace."

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Portalis then detailed the out-

line

line of the law; the tribunal was to be compoſed of eight perſons; the preſident, and two judges of the criminal tribunal; three military officers of the rank of captain at leaſt; and two citizens qualified to be judges; not leſs than ſix to act, and the court to be both military and civil. Its cognizance was to extend to all crimes committed by vagabonds, and men unattached to any claſs in ſociety, and criminals who had eſcaped from priſon; for theſe, it was ſaid, had no country, they placed themſelves out of the protection of the conſtitution, their very exiſtence was a danger, and it was not ſo much neceſſary to conſider how they might be governed, as how they might be thruſt out of ſociety, or placed under reſtraints. Other crimes which more openly violated the ſocial compact were alſo to be cognizable by this tribunal; theſe were all thoſe committed on highways, in the country, and in places where individual faith ought to have the force of public faith; alſo all crimes which related to the violent paſſions which ten years of revolution had inflamed; all thoſe in which the ſpirit of faction and hatred of the republic was joined with the ſpirit of plunder; in ſhort, all thoſe which ſuppoſed the criminal to be in a ſtate of open war with ſociety. The authors of theſe crimes, whoever they might be, were to be proſecuted, leſs as wicked men, than as enemies. Inſurrections and ſeditious mobs were alſo to be within the juriſdiction of theſe tribunals, but they were only to proceed againſt perſons taken in the very fact, and in the midſt of the mobs; great examples muſt be made on theſe great occaſions, but the multitude, almoſt always led aſtray by factious individuals, had claims to mercy. This law alſo regulated the proceedings of the court, which were to be ſpeedy, but not precipitate, the culprits to defend themſelves, and the proceedings to be public. Finally, government was authorized to remove from any town or city any perſon whoſe preſence might become injurious. From the ſituation of the country, it was ſaid, ſome time muſt elapſe before certain men could habituate themſelves to repoſe and proſperity, and reſign themſelves to bear with docility the yoke of public happineſs.

This moſt odious and oppreſſive law, which annihilated every appearance of liberty, did not paſs both branches of the legiſlature with ſo much facility as that required by Fouché. In the tribunate, the report of the committee, to whom it was referred, was brought up by Duveyrier, and was calculated to gloſs over the deformities of the propoſed ſtatute, but it was diſcuſſed during ten days with uncommon animation. Iſnard, a ſtrenuous adherent of Briſſot; Daunou, the author of the exiſting conſtitution; and ſeveral others, were heard in oppoſition to the law in general, and to many of its expreſs proviſions; on the other ſide were Jean de Brie, Perrault, and many more, who claimed confidence in government, and inſiſted that the ſtate of the republic rendered the law indiſpenſable. No leſs than nineteen orators on each ſide entered their names as intending to ſpeak, but many of them could

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could not obtain a hearing. The opponents of the meaſure were aſſailed with abuſe, and intimidated by threats; ſeveral amendments were made during the diſcuſſion, and at laſt the numbers in favour of the project were only 49 to 41.

Perhaps the people of France were in ſome degree reconciled to the rigour of this law by the evident and deplorable neceſſity which they ſaw and felt of reſtraining by ſome vigorous meaſure the depredations which were daily committed by bands of robbers who infeſted the country in ſuch numbers as to render even a ſhort journey extremely perilous. On this ſubject a conſular decree had already iſſued, declaring that no ſtage coach, ſetting out from Paris at a day and hour fixed, ſhould be allowed to travel unleſs it carried on the roof four ſoldiers, commanded by a corporal or ſerjeant, armed with muſkets, and furniſhed with twenty rounds of ball, and at night an additional guard of at leaſt two gens d'armes on horſeback, and ſimilarly accoutred. The coachmen and poſtillions were alſo to be armed with a cutlaſs and piſtols. The ſoldiers were to be paid a livre per day each; if a carriage was robbed, they were to be tried by a military commiſſion to aſcertain whether they had done their duty, and their defence could not be admitted, whatever might have been the number of aſſailants, unleſs they had fired all their twenty rounds of ball. This alarming ſtate of the country was ſtrenuouſly inſiſted on by thoſe who ſpoke in favour of the ſpecial tribunals, as demonſtrating the neceſſity of a meaſure at once vigorous and ſpeedy, to deſtroy the hope of impunity.

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The operation of the law was not however directed againſt robbers, but chiefly againſt thoſe who were dreaded or diſliked by government on account of political conduct or opinions. Although ſeveral perſons had been ſhot on the plain of Grenelle, by ſentence of a military commiſſion, and the number already mentioned ſentenced to tranſportation, a very numerous liſt of pretended conſpirators to aſſaſſinate Bonaparte by means of the *infernale* was made out, and ſent to the departments with inſtructions, and promiſes of reward for apprehending the perſons deſcribed. Theſe perſons were not like thoſe whom Fouché firſt indicted; Jacobins, whoſe over-heated minds diſdained every ſpecies of rule, but royaliſts, and diſcontented adherents of the ancient government and faith, and in this general claſs many individuals were included, whom perſonal animoſity, or the deſire of vengeance, unſated by all the blood ſhed in the courſe of the revolution, pointed out to Fouché as deſirable victims. His mandates of arreſt were diſperſed in every direction, and ſpecial tribunals were eſtabliſhed in many departments.

As a preparatory juſtification of the proceeding of government, the miniſter of police publiſhed a report, containing a long narrative of the origin of the attempt on Bonaparte, which was now aſcribed to the Chouan Georges, who had returned from England with freſh projects of aſſaſſination, and with guineas to embolden and pay his accom-

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accomplices. Of the whole progreſs of the affair a circumſtantial detail was given, but with this inſuperable obſtacle to its credibility, that Fouché, who now pretended to have been correctly apprized of the arrival of every conſpirator in Paris, and of all their meetings, debates, and reſolutions, had yet permitted another claſs of men to ſuffer the odium and puniſhment of the tranſaction. It was therefore, and not without apparent reaſon, conſidered that the report ſo pompouſly publiſhed was a mere pretext to warrant the deſtruction of thoſe royaliſt chiefs, with whom, in order to ſuppreſs their efforts in La Vendée, Bonaparte had ſolemnly executed a treaty of Peace, in which their ſafety was a leading ſtipulation.

In conſequence, however, of Fouché's report, ſixteen perſons, of whom ten were women, were put on their trial in Paris, of whom two men, named Carbon and St. Regent, were condemned and executed. One of the female priſoners, whoſe caſe excited general commiſeration, was Adelaide de Cicé, ſiſter of the Archbiſhop of Bourdeaux, and the Biſhop of Auxerre, who had both emigrated. Againſt her much of the malice of the judges was directed, but no proof being brought to affect her, and numerous witneſſes appearing to her character, ſhe was found not guilty.

The emigrants, who had been allured by ſpecious proclamations and deluſive promiſes to reviſit their native land, were treated with great harſhneſs and injuſtice. Under pretence of informality in their papers, or that they did not fall within the claſſes pointed out by government, many were arreſted, impriſoned, or carried beyond the frontiers. In Paris alone upward of forty were ſeized in one month, and confined in the temple. Nor was this perſecution confined to France, for in the dominions of Pruſſia, under pretence that they were carrying on plots inimical to the conſular government, great numbers were apprehended at Bareuth, Anſpach, and Erlangen.

In the courſe of this year too, the French Senate was employed on a ſubject which had engaged every legiſlative body ſince the beginning of the revolution, the formation of a civil code. On this important point reports were preſented, and a plan drawn up and diſcuſſed; but as the whole arrangement was not terminated within the year, the narrative and examination are for the preſent poſtponed.

Meaſures were alſo taken for the re-eſtabliſhment of a national religion, a project in itſelf wiſe and honourable, but in its execution diſgraced by many circumſtances of fraud and duplicity. The end was to be attained by a compact or *concordatum* between the Pope and the French republic, but one of the contracting parties was too much at the mercy of the other to allow a ſuppoſition that he had any voice in the formation of the articles. The known principles of the ruler of the republic, as demonſtrated by his actions, did not allow a ſuppoſition that a love for the Catholic religion, or even a belief in Chriſtianity, influenced his conduct, and, therefore, it was not ſurpriſing that in the definitive arrangement, religion was conſidered as merely a political engine,

nothing of dignity, honour, or ſecurity was conferred on it for its own ſake, and the Pope was led or compelled to degrade thoſe whom zeal for the faith they had ſworn to maintain had driven into exile, by confounding them in the ſame regulation with thoſe whoſe pliant principles and accommodating conſciences had enabled them to gain perſonal advantages in all the viciſſitudes attending the French revolution. Yet ſome perſons conſidered the general intereſts of religion advanced by this eſtabliſhment, while others ſaw in it only the formation of a corrupt and unprincipled body, capable of doing much miſchief by the proſtitution of the ſacred character of prieſthood, while, even if they ſhould incline to favour the cauſe of faith and virtue, their efforts would be unavailing, ſubjected as they were to all the caprices of government, and excluded from popular eſteem by the manner in which their introduction to their benefices was conferred and received. The truth or error of theſe opinions can only be decided by time, the events which led to and followed the concordat remain to be related.

After the horrible circumſtances which attended the depoſition, captivity, and death of Pius VI. all which Bonaparte had taken as acts of glory to himſelf, and the French nation, in order to cajole the Turks into an opinion of his devotion to their intereſts, and his faith in their religion, the elevation of Cardinal Chiaramonti to the papacy by the title of Pius VII. which, by the ſanction and even direction of the Firſt Conſul took place in March 1800, could be conſidered only as an act of political management to ſecure the attachment of ſome who adhered to the ancient form of eccleſiaſtical eſtabliſhment, and to gain for France the reputation of a deſire to reſtore to ſome ſovereign powers at leaſt a portion of their rights. The battle of Marengo had not then been fought, and if the Auſtrians had retained their ſuperiority in Italy, a Pope elevated to the chair by the influence of France, might have been an adherent of ſome importance. When the ſucceſs of the gallic arms had rendered their aſcendancy in that country ſecure, the condition of the Pope was conſidered as very precarious: the admiſſion of a French army into the ſtates of the church to quell inſurrection was deemed an ominous ſpecies of protection, but in the courſe of the year a diſpoſition was ſhewn to favour the exiſtence of the papal power, and by its aid to re-eſtabliſh a national religion in France. As an effect of this diſpoſition, the Pope found his temporal intereſts rather patronized than oppreſſed by Bonaparte; for ſome diſputes having ariſen reſpecting the boundary of the Ciſalpine republic on the ſide of Romagna, they were decided by reference to the treaty of Tolentino, the reſervations in which were, in the matter in queſtion, highly beneficial to his holineſs.

Immediately after the treaty of Luneville had been diſcloſed, the French government, in their accuſtomed manner, began to prepare the people for the change which was to be effected, by publiſhing in a newſpaper, that the Pope would be re- Feb. 24.

cognized

nized as biſhop of Rome, and centre of the Catholic religion, with a moderate revenue, and that France would allow his authority, and defray the charges of public worſhip, on condition that he ſhould ſanction the ſale of eccleſiaſtical property, the marriage of prieſts, and the law reſpecting divorces. In pamphlets too, the preſs began to advocate the cauſe of religious eſtabliſhment; one tract attributed to Bergaſſe, who had been originally a lawyer at Lyons, and afterwards a member of the Conſtituent Aſſembly, produced a great ſenſation. This author, always celebrated for his moderation and good ſenſe, diſplayed in forcible language, the horror and infamy which attended France, while it could be conſidered only as a nation of Atheiſts. "She pro-"tects, it is true," he ſaid, "all "religions, but ſhe adopts none; "all modes of worſhip are tole-"rated by her laws, but to her "laws they are all foreign, and "her diſdain and indifference are "extended to all. She pretends "to tranſact all her affairs with-"out the interference of the "Almighty." The laws, inſtitutions, and ſocial compact of France, it was obſerved, excluded every idea of a divinity, their magiſtracy, their legiſlative bodies, their tribunals, their adminiſtrations, their ſchools, their armies, all theſe elements which eſſentially conſtitute a ſtate, were equally exempt from a religious creed, and exhibited no connexion with any religious dogma, no; not even that of a deity, and his providence. As ſeparate individuals, many Frenchmen undoubtedly had a religion which was dear to them, and to which they paid homage, but as a body politic, they formed only a ſtate or republic of Atheiſts. From theſe premiſes the writer drew inferences, both moral and political, in favour of an eſtabliſhment, which would appear to an Engliſh reader trite and ſuperfluous, but which were rendered neceſſary and intereſting in France, where a rapid and deſperate ſeries of experiments, during the laſt twelve years, had perhaps done leſs real injury to religion, than the artful ſpeculations and deluſive theories, which, during the thirty preceding years, had been reſorted to for the purpoſe of overthrowing all belief, and which had ſo effectually corrupted the public mind, that no appeal could be made with a chance of ſucceſs, except to pride, intereſt, or political conſideration.

Long before this publication it was known that ſome negotiation had been begun between Bonaparte and the Pope, tending to the revival of a public worſhip in France. On the 13th of September, 1800, Pius VII. had addreſſed a brief to the Biſhops of the Gallican church, informing them of the circumſtance, and requiring them to unite their prayers to his, to obtain the bleſſing of God on his endeavours for the accompliſhment of ſo great a work as the reſtoration of the Catholic religion in that great empire. No further communication was however made on the ſubject. In the ſpring of the preſent year a May 27. conſiſtory was held at Rome, the diſcuſſions and reſolutions of which, were, in courſe, ſecret, but curioſity and ſuſpicion affixed many conjectures on the circumſtance, which

which the French government contradicted in such a manner as most effectually to answer its own views. The friends of the system established since the accession of Bonaparte, were tranquilized by assurances, that, whatever might be reported, the Court of Rome had not expressed disapprobation of the oath of fidelity taken by the constitutional clergy; those who feared some arrangement injurious or degrading to the head of the church, were first alarmed by a rumour that the Pope had been persuaded to resign the chair, and quieted again by positive assertions that no such proposition had been made, nor was any such measure intended.

June 29. At length, when matters were considered sufficiently ripe, a council, composed of about forty constitutional or intruding bishops, and as many priests of the same description, was held at the church of Nôtre Dame, the body of which was filled with an immense crowd of spectators. The Bishop of Rennes presided, and after Mass had been performed, Gregoire delivered a long discourse, describing the events which had most affected the cause of religion during late years, extolling the christian system, which he said was intended for the purpose of instructing, but not of governing; exposing the miseries which had resulted from a persecuting and domineering spirit, and recommending a general union of all hearts in the cause of religion. The Council then adjourned to deliberate in separate divisions at Saint Sulpice, but their decrees were promulgated at Nôtre Dame. Their acts were all highly acceptable to government, but as their characters, and particularly the circumstance of their taking the oaths, and submitting to acts which were considered repugnant to the interests of religion made them odious to the priests, whom they termed refractory, and as many of these had remained in or returned to France, and were supposed to retain considerable influence over the people, Fouché addressed a letter on the subject to the prefects of the departments, in which he rather gratified his own disposition to persecute men of that class, than shewed a serious or well-regulated zeal for the interests of the country. Ever since the revolution of the 18th Brumaire, he said, government had been endeavouring to secure the liberty of public worship, by allowing many priests to return to France on the single condition of not disturbing public order. This indulgence did not apply to those who had always refused the oath of fidelity to the constitution; for they, in declining to acknowledge the law, renounced their country; but there were others, whose conduct was one continued perjury, ever since the moment when they promised submission to the laws; and the cause was, that a republican government did not appear favourable to their ambition. With them discord had entered into the communes; they had sown divisions among citizens, and hatred in families; revived party disputes; alarmed the conscientious; fanaticized the ardent; taken advantage of the weak; and in fine, renewed in the enlightened age of freedom, all the scandalous events of the era of ignorance and superstition,

tion. The Minister of Police therefore charged the prefects; 1st, To seek out the priests who had refused to promise fidelity to the constitution, and send them out of the territory of the republic with the utmost speed; 2d, as a measure of police, previously to order every priest who had returned into a commune, where he exercised the functions of bishop, rector, or curate, if his presence should be found injurious to the public tranquility, immediately to retire to such a distance, that his influence could no longer be productive of trouble; 3d, to enjoin all mayors of communes, where there was only one edifice consecrated to public worship, not to suffer it to be used by any priest who had not been in it before the 9th of November, 1799, and in case the church was then vacant, to support exclusively the priest first called to it by the vote of the majority of inhabitants.

Thus while the council of constitutional clergy were arranging every thing to satisfy the views of Bonaparte, and exulting in his delusive shew of moderation, Fouché, by his order, proved to the clergy in the departments, how easy it was to revive the severest proceedings of the days of terror, by fabricating accusations, false, or devoid of proof; by drawing distinctions between the clergy who were friendly, and those who were adverse to the revolution, and rendering the latter, at once objects of suspicion, and incapable of being employed. The threat of expulsion from the territory of the republic, or, as it was more generally called deportation, was associated with too many images of cruelty and horror to be disregarded, or to make a slight or feeble impression, and its latent meaning could not be misconstrued, when the word was pronounced by Fouché.

It was not therefore a surprise, but rather a relief to the refractory clergy in France, when they learned that a treaty of accommodation was signed between his Holiness and the French republic; and although the articles were yet secret, and under the investigation of a college of four cardinals, yet it was not conceived that any definitive arrangement could be more pregnant with danger, than the state of uncertainty which prevailed for the present. One immediate benefit derived from it was the suspension of the measures directed by Fouché, and from the last decrees of the national council, and the termination of their sittings it was gathered, that the government was satisfied with having in this, as in all their compacts hitherto formed, dictated the terms to the other contracting party. The principal acts of this council were two letters to the Pope and their separated brethren, as they termed the emigrant bishops and priests, exhorting them to adopt such measures as the Council thought would tend to the pacification of the gallican church.

July 25.

Aug. 16.

The publication of the Concordat was expected with great impatience, but till its ratification, every precaution was taken to prevent its stipulations from being known. When it was finally arranged, an extraordinary congregation of the holy college was held at Rome, to

Aug. 11.

to learn its contents, and while it was being printed for the purpoſe of general diſtribution, the printing-office of the Vatican was kept locked four days, and carefully guarded by centinels.

At length, the ratifications having been formally exSept. 18. changed, the public curioſity was gratified by the publication of this important compact. The Plenipotentiaries on the part of France for arranging it, were Joſeph Bonaparte, brother of the Firſt Conſul, and Counſellor of State; Cretet, alſo a Counſellor of State, and Bernier, a Doctor in Divinity and Rector of St. Laud, at Angers. On behalf of the Pope, were Cardinal Hercules Gonſalvi, Secretary of State to his Holineſs, who was ſome time before deputed to Paris; Joſeph Spina, Archbiſhop of Corinth, and domeſtic Prelate to the Pope, and Charles Caſelli, Counſellor in Theology to his Holineſs. The concordat was compriſed in ſeventeen articles, which, after a ſtatement that the Catholic, Apoſtolic, Roman Religion, was the faith of the great majority of the French people, and an acknowledgement from his Holineſs that that religion had derived, and ſtill might expect the greateſt advantages and the higheſt ſplendour from the eſtabliſhment of the Catholic worſhip in France, and from its being particularly profeſſed by the three Conſuls; it was agreed, that the Catholic, Apoſtolic, and Roman religion ſhould be freely exerciſed in France, its ſervice to be public, but conformable to ſuch regulations of police as the government might find neceſſary. The Pope, in concert with the government, was to make a new diviſion of dioceſes, and to declare to the perſons intitled to the French biſhopricks, that he expected from them, with a firm confidence, for the promotion of peace and union, every ſort of ſacrifice, even that of their ſees. But if, after this exhortation, they were to refuſe the ſacrifice, proviſion ſhould be made for filling the ſees in the new diviſion, by nominations made by the Firſt Conſul, and the inſtitution of ſuch biſhops was to be conferred by his holineſs. Vacancies too were to be ſupplied in the ſame manner; but it was afterward declared, that if any ſucceſſor of the Firſt Conſul ſhould not be a Catholic, his powers in that reſpect ſhould be regulated by a new law. The biſhops, before they entered on their functions, were to take, before the Firſt Conſul, an oath of fidelity to the republic, the ſubordinate clergy were to take the ſame oath before civil authorities appointed by government, and a form of prayer was preſcribed for the republic and the Conſuls. Pariſhes were to undergo a new diviſion, and biſhops might nominate to livings, but ſuch perſons only as were allowed by the civil power. Some other articles regulated the internal church government, after which his Holineſs declared that neither he nor his ſucceſſors would, in any manner, diſquiet the purchaſers of eccleſiaſtical property, but that it ſhould remain undiſturbed in their poſſeſſion and that of their aſſigns for ever. The government was to provide a maintenance for the biſhops and rectors compriſed in the new diviſion, and French Catholics were to be authoriſed to make donations or bequeſts in fa-

vour of the church. The Pope alſo recognized in the Firſt Conſul the ſame rights and prerogatives with reſpect to him, that had been enjoyed by the ancient government.

The firſt public tranſaction ariſing out of this compact between Bonaparte and the Pope, or as it is uſually called, the concordat, originated in the article whereby his Holineſs ſtipulated to uſe all his influence with the French biſhops to make them reſign their ſees. The conſtitutional biſhops, who had been at Paris during the negotiation of the concordat, and conſulted during its progreſs, complied, without heſitation, but it was foreſeen that the prelates who had emigrated for conſcience-ſake, would be leſs tractable. To Aug. 15. diſpoſe them to make the required ſacrifice, the Pope addreſſed to them a brief, extolling the ſignal ſervices they had performed during the life of his predeceſſor, and in his own days, both by their exertions while in France, and their influence and example while in exile, but reminding them that he was forced, by the ſtate of the times, to notify, that they had not yet fulfilled the meritorious career of glory reſerved for them by divine providence. Their eccleſiaſtical ſees were to be voluntarily reſigned, and freely given up into the hands of the Pope; the more bitter the ſacrifice, it was ſaid, the more agreeable it would be to God; and his Holineſs, with the whole energy of his ſoul, invoked their virtues, and called on them, in the bleſſed name of Jeſus, to complete this ſacrifice for the preſervation of unity. For the purpoſe of perſuading them, the Pope cited the illuſtrious example of St. Gregory of Nazianzen, when he reſigned the biſhoprick of Conſtantinople; and the obſervation of St. Auguſtine, that men were not biſhops for their own ſake, but for the ſake of thoſe to whom they adminiſtered the ſacrament, and for whom, as neceſſity might require, they were either to be or not to be. Biſhops, it was obſerved, had frequently abdicated; almoſt three hundred catholic prelates having, before the celebrated collation of Carthage, profeſſed themſelves ready, and conſidered themſelves bound to do ſo, if it would remove the ſchiſm of the Donatiſts. Even the biſhops to whom the brief was addreſſed had, many of them, in a letter to the late Pope Pius VI. dated the 3d of May, 1791, profeſſed themſelves willing to reſign their ſtations, if the good of the church ſhould require it. Now, ſince the occaſion was arrived, their obedience could not be doubted. To convince them how great would be the glory to ariſe from compliance, St. Auguſtine and St. Gregory were again quoted; but in a ſubſequent paragraph the Pope diſcloſed his real ſituation, ſhewing, beyond poſſibility of miſapprehenſion, the conſtraint under which he laboured. "We are compelled," he ſaid, "by the exigency of the times, "which even exerciſes its vio-"lence on us, to ſignify that it is "abſolutely neceſſary for you to "give a written anſwer within "ten days, and that your anſwer "be tranſmitted to the perſon by "whom the preſent letter will "be delivered to you, which you "ought to teſtify by an authentic

"docu-

" document that you have re-
" ceived. We muſt alſo ſignify
" to you, for the ſame urgent
" cauſes, that the anſwer given
" muſt be definitive, not dilatory;
" ſo that unleſs a definitive an-
" ſwer be given within ten days
" (and that you will do ſo we
" intreat you again and again), or
" if a dilatory anſwer is returned,
" we ſhall be obliged to conſider
" you as having refuſed to comply
" with our requeſt."

This brief was ſent ſeparately to each expatriated Prelate; thoſe in England received it, accompanied with a letter from Monſignor Charles Erſkine, the Pope's Nuncio, repeating aſſurances of regret, and of the deſire which the Pope felt, that his recommendation of the individuals to Bonaparte might either direct his view toward them in the nomination to ſees of a new conſcription, which was about to be formed in France, or, at leaſt, induce him to provide for their ſubſiſtence. Moſt of the prelates who received this letter, and the brief which accompanied it, were equally ſurpriſed and indignant at a propoſition, which, by offering as a bribe, a recommendation which ſhould gain them a ſubſiſtence, was to induce them to renounce their ſees without condition, and without being informed of any cauſe, except a will to which the Pope acknowledged that he ſubmitted with regret. They were no leſs diſpleaſed with the peremptory manner in which their deciſion was required within ten days, as it was evidently deſigned to prevent all intercourſe between eccleſiaſtics in different countries, all demand of explanation from the Pope, and all appeal, except to ſelf-intereſt and ſelf-confidence. He who feared was not allowed time to recover from his alarm; he who doubted was refuſed leiſure for inveſtigation; the favourite figure of the French republicans, the circle of Popilius, was reſorted to in this, as in their other negotiations, and the terms dictated, admitted neither of explanation nor qualification.

The prelates who were in London, held four meetings at the houſe of the Archbiſhop of Narbonne, the eldeſt of their body. Sept. 17, 19, 22, 24.

Even this moderate attempt to gain the benefits of conference and diſcuſſion was not viewed without diſapprobation, ſince Monſignor Erſkine thought it neceſſary, on hearing that it was in agitation to ſend a collective anſwer, to write to the Biſhops, informing them, that the preciſe commands he had received from his Holineſs were, to tranſmit his brief to each, in order that they might ſeparately, after having invoked by their prayers, the gift of underſtanding, make ſuch anſwer as each ſhould, in his conſcience, conceive himſelf to be inſpired with by the Father of Mercies. The biſhops, however, continued their meetings, and the reſult was, that out of eighteen, only four conſented to the renunciation required by the Pope, the other fourteen did not abſolutely refuſe compliance, but only refuſed blindly to acquieſce in an arrangement made, or to be made by the Pope and Bonaparte, in matters deeply intereſting to them as biſhops, without any communication of the nature of ſuch arrangement. Six biſhops in Germany followed the

Sept. 22.

example of the fourteen in England, and it is ſuppoſed that a few in Spain, but not many had retired there, did the like. The four biſhops in England, who complied with the Pope's, or rather Bonaparte's demand *, accepted of biſhopricks under a new arrangement in France, but ſeveral on the continent, who deemed it their duty to obey the head of the church, would not accept the ſees which might have fallen into their poſſeſſion; among theſe was M. le Clerc de Juigné, Archbiſhop of Paris at the time of the revolution. If ever conſcience, uninfluenced either by contumacy, ſelfiſhneſs, or hope, could be rationally aſſigned as a motive of action, this proceeding of the non-complying prelates deſerved to be aſcribed to that cauſe. Long experience had taught them the inefficacy of reſiſtance to the decrees of government alone, and they muſt eaſily have anticipated, that when thoſe decrees were reinforced by the ſanction of the Pope, with whatever apparent reluctance it might be conceded, their oppoſition would, if poſſible, be attended with ſtill leſs effect, and their waning lives muſt be extinguiſhed without any other benefit to the world than that which reſults from a conſpicuous and memorable example, or any conſolation to themſelves, ſave that higheſt and greateſt which accompanies an approving conſcience. The expectation that the conſtitutional biſhops would poſſeſs a ſufficient portion of magnanimity to refuſe, like them, an illegal beheſt, was too vain to be entertained by rational men, nor could they diſguiſe from themſelves, that ſuch a refuſal, had it been univerſal in France, would have produced no beneficial effect. The concordat and the Pope's brief both plainly informed them, that although their reſignations were warmly deſired, yet the meaſures of government would equally be carried into effect without them, and as there were two Italian biſhops at Paris while the arrangement was going on, it was conjectured, and with great appearance of reaſon, that it had been previouſly determined between the Pope and Bonaparte, if all the French biſhops, emigrants, non-emigrants, and conſtitutional, had refuſed to comply, that the Pope would have declared all had forfeited their rights; Bonaparte would have preſented a new liſt, which Pius VII. would have accepted, and the two Italian biſhops at Paris would, by his orders, have conſecrated the individuals named.

The non-complying biſhops were not ſo negligent of their fame as to omit making public, through the preſs, the grounds of their conduct. In juſtice to them and to

* Theſe four were de Boiſgelin and de Cicé, Archbiſhops of Aix and Bordeaux, and d'Oſmond and de Noë, biſhops of Comignes and Leſcars. The fourteen who refuſed were, Dillon, archbiſhop of Narbonne, and the following biſhops—d'Abignac of Augoulême, de Gonzié of Arras, de Belbœuf of Avranches, de Chauvigny of Lombez, de Malide of Montpelier, de la Laurencie of Nantes, de Grimaldi of Noyon, de Flamarens of Perigueux, Seignelay-Colbert of Rodez, Lamarche of St. Pol de Leon, de Champorcin of Vannes, de Béthizy of Uſez, and de la Tour, who, in 1791, had been nominated, but not conſecrated biſhop of Moulins. The biſhops in Germany, who concurred with thoſe in London, were thoſe of Mentz, Reims, Limoges, Sécz, Digne, and Boulogne.

their

their ſentiments a ſlight outline of their memorial publiſhed in London is here offered. They deduced, in the firſt place, according to their underſtanding, and the authorities on which the members of their communion had ever relied, the title of Pope to the ſoveignty of the church, from the period when the Chriſtian doctrine was firſt promulgated, and recapitulated the oath of obedience to the ſucceſſor of St. Peter which they had ſeverally taken at the moment of conſecration. Not only proclaiming, but glorying in this principle of obedience, they proceeded to examine the nature, the rights, and the duties of epiſcopacy, and affirmed that every member of their body received from our Saviour himſelf, a divine inſtitution, and ſacred character; that their miſſion and their powers, although ſubordinate in the order of hierarchial government to thoſe of the Pope, emanated from the ſame ſource, and were equally derived from the Divine Founder of the Church. Every biſhop, they maintained, was in his dioceſe an ordinary paſtor, charged indeed, to a certain degree, with the care of all the churches, but more eſpecially attached to his own particular church, by the title of his conſecration, and by his miſſion, which formed an alliance, not to be broken, except by death, by a legal judgment conformable to the diſcipline of the church, or by a reſignation, free, proceeding from aſſigned motives, and canonical. Theſe poſitions, they illuſtrated and proved by a vaſt ſeries of examples and citations of our Saviour himſelf, and of ſaints, popes, eminent men, great writers, and the Chriſtian councils in all ages. Having treated theſe topics with great learning, and ſhewn at great length, that, as the effects of reſignation would weigh not only on the ſovereign pontiff, but on the biſhops who ſhould accede to it, it could not be decreed, concluded, or definitively decided, without their participation, the memorialiſts proceeded more particularly to the matter in queſtion, and from the brief of Pius VII. himſelf, addreſſed to them in September, 1800, ſhewed that he, at that very recent period, conſidered their participation in every act relative to the gallican church neceſſary, ſince he expreſſed his great anxiety to communicate the firſt overtures for an arrangement to them, and requeſt the union of their prayers with his, for the bleſſing of God on his efforts for the re-eſtabliſhment of religion. His next communication contained the ſurpriſing demand of a general and ſimultaneous reſignation, the motives of which remained in his own boſom, and which he declared he could do without. The inconſiſtency of ſuch a demand with every rule of eccleſiaſtical government was eaſily proved; thoſe rules had provided with great rigour againſt the improper reſignation of a ſingle biſhop, but how much more alarming was the reſignation of the whole epiſcopal body!

On the inſtances adduced by the Pope of St. Gregory of Nazianzen and the biſhops of Africa, the recuſants quoted the words of St. Gregory himſelf: "If to appeaſe the tempeſt, and diſpel the "ſtorm, my abdication is neceſ-"ſary, treat me like Jonas, caſt "me into the ſea;" but they

obſerved that, in this caſe, the legality of his elevation was the very point in diſpute; the biſhops of Egypt and Macedonia proteſted againſt it; he had hardly taken poſſeſſion of his ſee; he was a ſubject of diſcord, even among the fathers of the council; he knew all the motives which ought to influence his reſignation; he knew that the fathers of the council would appoint his ſucceſſor; and, in fine, he only vacated one ſingle ſee, without ſanctioning any deciſion relative to a change of juriſdiction, or of territory. In every one of theſe points his caſe was directly oppoſite to that of the biſhops of France. Nor did the circumſtances of St. Auguſtine and the biſhops of Africa bear a cloſer affinity. Thoſe biſhops had previouſly concerted their proceeding among themſelves, and were aware of the cauſes and conſequences of their determination; knew the ſucceſſors who were to be appointed, or rather whom they aſſociated with themſelves; the queſtion did not relate to a few intruders, followed by a ſmall number of ſectaries, but to the reſtoration of unity among a great number of biſhops, and an immenſe population: they accompanied their offer with conditions; and, finally, they lived under a government, whoſe peculiar duty it was to give protection to the meaſures they might arrange among themſelves. How different were all theſe circumſtances from thoſe of the French biſhops, who were commanded, without conſulting each other, without time allowed for deliberation, and without knowledge of cauſes, or power of ſtipulating for events, to reſign at once the ſacred truſts which had been conſigned to them.

The biſhops, who were deputies to the ſtates general, it was obſerved had not tendered their reſignations to the Pope in 1791, as an act of paſſive obedience, but as the effect of a free and enlightened deliberation. Pius VI. in his brief of the 10th March, 1791, approving the doctrine and conduct of thoſe prelates, aſked if there was no method of conciliation left which might prevent a ſchiſm; their anſwer of the 3d of May was, "Let principles be "placed on a ſecure foundation; "let the powers of the church in "the inſtitution of its miniſters "be reſpected; let a canonical "miſſion be formed to appoint our "legal ſucceſſors; and we will "lay at your feet, moſt holy "father, our reſignations." The wide difference between that free, conditional, and well conſidered offer, and the preſent attempt at ſurpriſe and force was clearly and amply diſplayed. "The demand "of our reſignation," the writers proceeded, "remains then merely "to be conſidered as to its own "nature, and, on that conſidera-"tion of it, we have formed our "judgment. We reflected that "our bleſſed Saviour placed us at "our poſts, not as mere delegates, "but as judges, who were not to "abandon them but with life, or "on a rational conviction, that "in quitting them, we ſhould "contribute to the welfare of the "church. Now we have not that "conviction, and for it no ſubſti-"tute can be allowed when it is "our duty to decide. We are "obliged then to remain at our "poſts; and in this point of view "have

" have conſidered it our duty not " to acquieſce in the demand of " our reſignations."

Leſt however the cauſes of their refuſal ſhould be miſunderſtood, they examined at length the conſequences which might be reaſonably expected from their compliance, expoſing the fallacy of the hopes exhibited to them as inducements. The brief ſaid, their reſignations would preſerve the unity of the holy church. How that unity was to be promoted by the forcible diſmiſſion of the whole epiſcopacy, it was not eaſy to underſtand, nor was ſuch an expectation to be gathered from the late events which had taken place in France. That they would contribute to the reeſtabliſhment of religion was another inducement alleged, but the expreſſions in the Pope's brief, if duly conſidered, would leave ſome doubt whether he was himſelf perſuaded of that fact. But, in truth, the Catholic religion had never been extinguiſhed; and it was now only the deſire of the people ſtrongly expreſſed, their unalterable attachment to the Catholic faith, which obliged the government to attempt ſome arrangement with the ſovereign Pontiff. It was not then the ſentiment of religion which was required to be reeſtabliſhed in France, but its pure and free exerciſe; the ceremonies of public worſhip. Could it be true that to arrive at this end, the only mean muſt be the expulſion of eighty biſhops, confeſſors of the faith, tried by fourteen years exile? Such an excluſion of the whole body of original paſtors, far from being a guaranty of the uſeful views of government, rather announced an intention to break thoſe bonds which incommoded them in the proſecution of their ulterior plans, the nature of which, the experience of the paſt, gave but too much cauſe to apprehend. The ill effect of ſuch an innovation as the reſignation of all biſhops at once, was alſo ſtrongly inſiſted on. It was for the purpoſe of avoiding ſuch ſudden ſhocks that the church eſtabliſhed canonical rules, and preſcribed forms of government, the obſervance of which had ever prevented the ſudden annihilation of the whole epiſcopal body. The new diviſions alluded to proved that there muſt be a creation of new eccleſiaſtical titles, and a ſuppreſſion of old ōnes. Againſt the raſh adoption of ſuch a meaſure, without recourſe to the regular means of obtaining the conſent of the church, they uſed many arguments, proved the great injury which the cauſe of religion muſt ſuſtain by the grant of ſees to men whoſe views in accepting them were merely worldly, and ſhewed that they, at leaſt, were bound not to give to the church the bad example of yielding to ſuch a meaſure. If biſhops were to reſign on ſuch terms, their miniſtry could only be timid, uncertain, precarious, and diveſted of all independence; for that which had been obtained by one government, might, with equal probability, be required by another.

With reſpect to the concordat itſelf, they obſerved that no act could be required from them as a conſequence of it, ſince it had not, according to the terms of the exiſting conſtitution of France, been propoſed, diſcuſſed, decreed, and promulgated as a law. On the other hand, laws ſtill exiſted in

France

France againſt religion and its miniſters, and impoſing conditions and impediments on public worſhip. Could they then, in ſuch a ſtate of affairs, give themſelves up to a blind confidence, which nothing authorized, but which every thing tended to repreſs? Could they be reproached with diſobedience to the Holy Father, when the very nature of his brief proved that it did not emanate from his free will? It was addreſſed to the biſhops as a collective body, yet required from each a ſeparate anſwer; it was full of expreſſions of conſtraint and regret, ſuch as, "*dolenter dicimus;*" "*magno cum dolore fatendum eſt,*" and in other parts the imperious and menacing expreſſions, hitherto unknown in the correſpondence between the firſt of biſhops, and his epiſcopal brethren, ſo different too from thoſe which Pius VII. himſelf had uſed in September 1800, demonſtrated the interference of a ſtranger's hand, directing that of the Holy Father, and proved to how great a degree he was compelled to yield to that which he deplored, the imperious force of circumſtances.

Theſe and many other arguments advanced by theſe reſpectable diſſidents, were urged in terms of the greateſt reſpect and affection toward the head of their church, and ſupported by illuſtrations and quotations from the moſt accredited writers on the Chriſtian religion, whoſe doctrines were acknowledged by the church of Rome. The biſhops in Germany alſo publiſhed a ſhorter, but not leſs cogent or learned vindication, to which thoſe in London ſubſcribed their aſſent. Whatever difference there may be between the mode of faith profeſſed by theſe men, and that which is eſtabliſhed in this country, it is impoſſible to withhold from their conduct on this occaſion the tribute of a warm eulogy. In 1791 they offered for the eſtabliſhment of peace, and for the ſecurity of that religion of which they too plainly foreſaw the degradation, to reſign the benefices of which they were in actual poſſeſſion. In 1801, when they might have returned from obſcurity and exile to the enjoyment of ſome compenſations, and ſome portion of favour, they refuſed to reſign a mere titular dignity, attended with no emolument, nor any proſpect of profit, rather than ſanction what they deemed a breach of the eccleſiaſtical law, and ſet an example which in future times might have tended to the degradation of the church, and the injury of religion. Their conduct on this occaſion has alſo another good effect; it ſhews that a Catholic prieſt need not, even in points of church government, ſubmit implicitly to the command of the Pope, if repugnant to eſtabliſhed principles; and it muſt follow, that he would be much leſs obliged to do ſo, if ſuch command were hoſtile to the common principles of juſtice, humanity, or divine law *.

Such was the aſpect aſſumed by

* It ſhould be mentioned that ſome of the complying biſhops alſo publiſhed apologies for their conduct, particularly the Archbiſhop of Aix, and the Biſhop of Bordeaux; they were anſwered with vivacity, and not without advantage by many French writers; theſe tracts, however, cannot be conſidered as belonging to the hiſtory of the period, but as mere individual controverſy.

this

this regulation as a matter of controverſy between the head of the church and his ſubordinate dignitaries. With reſpect to the government of France, or at leaſt the chief of that government, it was not ſuppoſed to be connected with any religious motive, but viewed merely in the light of a political expedient. The whole life of Bonaparte was ſo replete with acts and expreſſions which proved an utter contempt for all religion, and an utter diſregard to all thoſe obligations which religion tends to impoſe and inforce, that no one believed in his converſion to Chriſtianity, more than in his ſincere adoption in 1798 of the religion of Mahomet. Both were profeſſed for political purpoſes, and the preſent profeſſion excited neither wonder nor curioſity, except as to its probable influence on the people of France. That the great majority of the nation was attached to the faith of their forefathers was not diſputed, and therefore the re-eſtabliſhment of the rights of public worſhip could not fail of producing an extenſive popular effect. Even many of the pretended philoſophical party, who warred againſt all religions, were not diſpleaſed to ſee an eſtabliſhment revived which promiſed ſome reſpite from the violences which had ſo long convulſed the nation, for want of ſome fixed points to which popular opinion might be directed. But thoſe friends of religion, who reflected deeply, were not pleaſed to ſee it rendered thus completely a mere engine of ſtate, degraded in the perſons of its moſt reſpectable profeſſors, and inſulted in the very moment of pretended patronage. It was not without indignation that they witneſſed the eſtabliſhment of forms of inſtruction for youth, even after the date of the Concordat, in which religion was not even mentioned, and a chapel, that of the invalids, which had been ſolemnly dedicated to Chriſtianity, converted into a Temple of Mars, and the converſion ratified by the Firſt Conſul, who placed the image of that pagan Deity on the ſpot which had been occupied by the Chriſtian ſymbol of redemption. Theſe and many other recent acts of government, as well as the whole tenor of the Concordat, the manner of forcing the Pope to acquieſce, and the conduct he was afterward obliged to adopt, all proved that the Catholic religion was merely to be ſuffered, but not honoured; employed as an engine of ſtate, but allowed neither dignity, reſpect, nor ſecurity. Thoſe who expreſſed their ſentiments with the greateſt freedom compared the Concordat to a plaiſter, which would patch up the Catholic religion, and enable it to exiſt a little longer.

On the other hand, ſome furious enemies of all eſtabliſhment, and all public worſhip, repreſented to Bonaparte that he was duped in permitting its reintroduction, and thoſe who had influenced him were leading him to ruin. To theſe obſervations the Firſt Conſul only replied, by aſking if they conſidered as nothing the advantage of a ſet of biſhops intirely created by him, and of churches, where prayers muſt be continually offered up for him, and for the republic?

A ſeries of organic laws was to be prepared for carrying the Concordat into effect, and for fixing

all

all matters relative to religion, both in eſtabliſhment and toleration; and although theſe were not expected to be highly honourable or beneficial, they were awaited with impatience as the definitive arrangement of the new ſyſtem. In preparation for this code, the Conſuls decreed that there ſhould be a counſellor of ſtate, charged with all matters relative to public worſhip, he ſhould be employed in direct co-operation with the Conſuls, and his duty ſhould be, 1ſt. To preſent plans of laws, regulations, decrees, and deciſions reſpecting the object of his adminiſtration; 2d. To propoſe for the nomination of the Firſt Conſul, ſubjects qualified to fill the places of miniſters of the different religions; 3d. To examine, previous to their publication in France, all reſcripts, bulls, and briefs of the Court of Rome; and 4th. To maintain all internal correſpondence relative to theſe objects. This office, which was in ſome degree equivalent to what was called under the old ſyſtem *la feuille des benefices*, and comprized ſome of the duties of the advocate general, was conferred on Portalis. The arrogant and perſecuting Fouché was outrageous at ſeeing the clergy and the votaries of religion thus ſuddenly ſnatched from his gripe, and it was ſuppoſed not to be without his concurrence, or at leaſt connivance, that many ſarcaſms were publiſhed againſt the new religious turn of the Firſt Conſul, or that the uſe of the word ſubject in this decree, and on ſeveral other occaſions, together with the ſtipulation in the Concordat, that he ſhould enjoy with the Pope all the rights and prerogatives of the old government, were aſcribed to a deſire of aſſuming that ſovereignty which the admirers of a republican government had ſo repeatedly abjured. Whatever might be the truth or particular influence of theſe opinions, all prudent and moderate men rejoiced in the appointment of Portalis. He had in the council of five hundred defended the relations of the emigrants from the perſecutions with which they were oppreſſed, advocated the freedom of public worſhip, and in thoſe times of anti-religious fanaticiſm, raiſed the voice of compaſſion in favour of the prieſts. The adherents of the majority of the directory had included him in the liſt of proſcription on the 18 Fructidor (4th September, 1797,) but having had the good fortune to eſcape from their hands, he was recalled by Bonaparte in 1799. To him was confided the arrangement of the definitive ſyſtem of eccleſiaſtical regulation, which will preſent itſelf to conſideration among the events of the enſuing year.

Oct. 8.

In other reſpects the internal ſituation of France afforded few objects calculated to engage curioſity. Earneſtly employed in attempts to deſtroy Britiſh commerce, the government took little care to augment that of France; and although pompous promiſes, projects, and reports occaſionally amuſed the public, yet it was not poſſible to diſguiſe the general decay of trade to all parts of the world. A neceſſary conſequence was, that finance was in the higheſt degree embarraſſed; government ſecurities, and even the paper of the moſt ſubſtantial bankers, were

were discounted at 15, 18, or 24 per cent.; forced loans were threatened for the sake of raising supply, and the ready cash at the houses of bankers was forcibly taken to relieve the necessities of government.

Yet in the midst of these wants the First Consul seemed to have fixed his thoughts on vast plans of improvement and embellishment. Early in the year he made a journey to St. Quentin, where he purposed to revive the expiring manufactures, and visited for the purpose of resuming them, the discontinued works of the canal of Languedoc. On this point he consulted his most eminent engineers, and purposed, by a canal which should join the river Yonne to the Saone, to form a complete internal navigation from the north of the republic to the south. When the canals of St. Quentin and Burgundy should be finished, a boat from Amsterdam might, without discharging its cargo, arrive through the interior at Marseilles. Other magnificent projects were daily detailed, new bridges were to be built, the public roads improved, fortresses were to be erected, the Louvre completed, the national library placed in a new hall, and museums established in the fifteen principal cities of France. These and many other grand promises were employed to occupy the public attention, while bread was rising to an alarming price, insomuch that even fear could not restrain the outcries of the rabble, and all the vigilance of the police could not prevent the most daring robberies even in the capital.

Feb.

Splendid shews were repeated, and these seemed never to lose their effects; but that was only momentary, and government shewed many signs of alarm. The new laws, however rigorous, were not considered sufficient, although their execution was unremitted and unlimited; the press both in France, and wherever the influence of France extended, was laid under arbitrary restraint; those who published pamphlets in Paris on the Concordat were arrested and imprisoned, and the Leyden Gazette was forcibly suppressed, because the editor had allowed himself to make some observations on the various constitutions established in Holland. Yet rumours of discord and insurrection were prevalent; the officers of the army of Germany loudly complained that their services were slighted, while all favours were lavished on those who had acted in Italy and Egypt, and even Moreau himself was regarded with jealousy and suspicion. The Consular guard was augmented to 16,000 men, and in the midst of triumph, flattery, and uncontrouled power, the chief appeared distrustful, and the people dissatisfied.

CHAP.

CHAP XII.

View of the internal State of Great Britain. Contraſt between this Country and France. State of Ireland; trial and condemnation of Napper Tandy; arrival of Lord Hardwicke as Lord Lieutenant. Plentiful Harveſt in England; Meaſures taken by Government for aſcertaining the quantity of Grain; Bounties on certain Proviſions. Threats of Invaſion renewed by France; Camps formed on the Coaſt, which is divided into Maritime Prefectures; efforts of France to obtain Seamen; ſtate of her Naval Force; great ſuperiority poſſeſſed by Great Britain. Meaſures taken in England to repel Invaſion. Cautious manner in which French Boats proceed from other Ports to Boulogne; various ſpirited attempts of Britiſh Veſſels in the Channel; La Chevrette cut out from Camaret Bay; a Diviſion of Ships placed under the Command of Lord Nelſon; his firſt Attack on the Flotilla at Boulogne; a ſecond attempt made by his Direction; failure of both; Boaſts of the French on the occaſion; further Proceedings of little importance. Tranſactions in the Weſt Indies; Capture of St. Martin; St. Euſtatia taken; ſlight Naval Captures. Tranſactions in other Parts of the Atlantic; various Captures made. Tranſactions in the Mediterranean; gallant Exploit of Lord Cochrane. Battle in the Bay of Algeziras; ill Succeſs of Sir James Saumarez; Loſs of the Hannibal of ſeventy-four Guns; Exultation of the French; ſecond Battle of Sir James Saumarez; Deſtruction of two Spaniſh, and Capture of one French Ship; brave Action of Capt. Hood in the Venerable. Eſcape from Breſt of a Squadron under Rear Admiral Gautheaume; Sir Robert Calder ſails in purſuit of it to the Weſt Indies, but its real Deſtination is Egypt; it fails in the main Object; but takes ſeveral Prizes, and, among others, the Succeſs Frigate, and the Swiftſure Man of War. Bold attempt to cut out the Sloop Bulldog from Ancona; fails, but ſhe is afterward taken at Gallipoli. Capture of Le Tigre, a piratical Veſſel.

TURNING from France to contemplate the internal ſtate of the Britiſh empire, the great difference between the two countries becomes ſtrikingly apparent. Depreſſed as the national ſpirit was by a long and expenſive war, by the preſſure of ſcarcity, and by an intemperate deſire of peace too generally indulged, no want of public confidence, no diſtruſt between the government and the body of the people, no violence in the adminiſtration of public affairs, or efforts to ſtrengthen government by overthrowing liberty, were to be recognized. In England a ſuſpenſion of the Habeas Corpus continued during many years, had been productive of only thirty arreſts, which were attended with no further conſequences. In France, one ſingle day had witneſſed the ſentence of baniſhment pronounced on one hundred and thirty-three perſons without a hearing, and without a ſpecific accuſation, beſides the infliction of death on many more, and the rigid execution of a tyrannical law, by virtue of which thouſands were impriſoned before the expiration of the

the year. In the Britiſh parliament the ſtate of the clergy had engaged attention in various regards, but in all the debates the utmoſt temper and decency were obſerved; a manly firmneſs prevented the claims of arrogance, or the follies of ſuperſtition from prevailing, while, on the other hand, a tender regard was ſhewn to the rights of the clergy as Britiſh ſubjects, and a due attention to the honour of their ſacred order. Far different from this was the harſh manner in which the clergy of France were readmitted to their functions, being obliged at the very door of the temple to bend lower, than as miniſters of God they had been taught to believe they ought to bend to human power, and to grovel in the duſt for a diſhonourable eſtabliſhment, and precarious protection. In England internal improvement was proſecuted with increaſing ſpirit and induſtry, but private enterprize was not reſtrained by the oppreſſive, though oſtentatious, interference of government; and, as every individual felt ſecure in poſſeſſing the produce of his fortune, or the ſavings of his induſtry, all readily contributed to the exigencies of the ſtate, however extenſive, and devoted the reſidue without apprehenſion, to projects of gain, or ſpeculations of public utility. Such was the difference between a country pronounced unſucceſsful in all the objects of warfare, yet in truth triumphant by the preſervation of her excellent conſtitution, and one which, after ſucceeding beyond all rational hope in war, and trying every frantic ſcheme of political, moral, and religious revolution, was evidently verging to a more hopeleſs and degrading military tyranny than had been aſcribed by its bittereſt enemies to the worſt periods of the old government.

Ireland, which was viewed by the friends of Great Britain with the greateſt anxiety, ſeemed in the courſe of this year to gain a conſiderable portion of quiet. Whether thoſe who had ſo long agitated the country were reduced to deſpair by the frequent expoſure of their plans, whether the well affected were ſufficiently emboldened by the vigorous regulations which government had adopted to preſerve the public tranquillity by their union and firmneſs, or whether expectation was ſo excluſively engaged in the portentous view of general affairs as to confine exertion, and reſtrain conſpiracy, little tranſpired during this year, eſpecially after the riſing of Parliament, to create any alarm for the ſafety of that portion of the empire. The trial of the celebrated rebel Napper Tandy, took place before an ordinary tribunal at Lifford, in the county of Donegal, and, as he avowed all the charges, he was ſentenced to death as a traitor; his execution did not take place, although it was generally expected, but his conviction occaſioned no tumult, and apparently very little ſenſation. Nor did the change of government produce any greater effect; the new and the retiring Lord Lieutenant treated each other with the civility characteriſtic of poliſhed manners, and liberal minds; and the public ſhewed equal attention and equal reſpect to both, not appearing to ſacrifice

April 7.

April 25, 27.

ſacrifice to the popularity of the cauſe of Lord Cornwallis's reſignation, or to dread Lord Hardwicke as the agent, who was to inforce a harſh or injurious ſyſtem of policy.

While the events already related as having taken place on the Continent, quieted in England the uneaſineſs which the formidable influence and avowed deſigns of Bonaparte had inſpired, the hand of Providence removed from the people one ſource of diſtreſs and deſpondency, and from the government one grand cauſe of apprehenſion and difficulty, by the bounteous bleſſing of a copious harveſt. Warned by the paſt not to riſque thoſe impreſſions which the people might not, for want of information, know how to counteract, miniſters diſpatched to all the biſhops a circular letter, incloſing returns, with columns to be filled up, for them to forward to the clergy in their ſeveral dioceſes, in order that government might be correctly apprized of the number of acres of grain, pulſe, and potatoes in every pariſh throughout England and Wales. The goodneſs of Providence was celebrated in all churches with an appropriate form of thankſgiving, and to prevent the diſtreſs which might yet have been occaſioned by the too early conſumption of the new harveſt, bounties were offered by government for the encouragement of thoſe who ſhould bring to market the largeſt quantities of ſalted, corned, and freſh fiſh, which bounties were to continue in force till the 1ſt of May in the enſuing year.

Aug. 17.

Sept. 13.

Sept. 22.

As the ſucceſs of the projects for injuring Great Britain, by means of the Continent, became leſs probable, the French government renewed the attempt ſo often made to alarm the country by menaces, and oſtentatious preparations for invaſion. The ordinary mode of accompliſhing ſuch an undertaking by means of a ſuperior fleet was never within the hopes of France at any period of the war, and at the preſent time it was perhaps leſs ſo than ever, as the ſucceſs of Nelſon at Copenhagen, and the pacific diſpoſition manifeſted in the north, ſoon gave to England a diſpoſeable force of eighty ſhips of war for the protection of her coaſt. Yet as the patriotic feeling of the Britiſh people is eaſily alarmed by the threat of making theſe ſhores the ſeat of war, the French have ever found it eaſy to create apprehenſions by avowing deſigns of invaſion, however improbable to the reflecting mind might be the chance of their execution. Before the expedition to Egypt an army of England was pompouſly announced, and by whomſoever the abſurd fiction was fabricated, many people were ſeriouſly terrified at an army of Frenchmen, which, it was ſaid, was to be brought over on a raft of immenſe ſize, worked by a mechanical proceſs, defended by a wooden parapet, behind which the men would fight as in a caſtle, or an intrenchment, and ſupplied with furnaces to pour red hot balls on Britiſh men of war, ſhould any dare to approach this formidable marine Chimera. When this mighty project had been ſufficiently diſcredited, not by arguments of its impracticability, for they generally failed in their effect, but by repeated

peated aſſertions that every harbour of France had been inſpected, but no ſuch machine exiſted, then the plan was invented, or rather revived, of threatening invaſions by means of flat boats. This ſcheme, however difficult, certainly ſtands on better ground of probability than the raft, ſince no man will be ſo hardy as to pronounce it abſolutely impoſſible; but the ſtate of the French naval force, as proportioned to the neceſſary ſcope of its action, and contraſted with that which was poſſeſſed by Great Britain, appeared to render the plan, for the preſent at leaſt, utterly hopeleſs.

For the purpoſe, however, of creating the greateſt poſſible terror in England by the appearance of methodical preparation, the Firſt Conſul ordered camps to be formed between Bruges and Oſtend; between Gravelines and Dunkirk; and a principal one at Boulogne, in which port the chief oſtenſible preparations were to be made. There were alſo encampments at Breſt, St. Maloes, and on various other parts of the coaſt. To give to the plan a greater ſemblance of reality, the Iriſh traitors, who had ſo long been protected by the French government, were embodied and employed, as it was intended, according to the accounts which were publiſhed, to land large armies at the ſame time in various parts of Great Britain and Ireland.

The coaſt of France was divided into ſix maritime prefectures, namely, Breſt, Toulon, L'Orient, Rochfort, Havre, and Antwerp. Ships were ſaid to be in preparation, but gun-boats and flat-boats were required, and prepared in conſiderable numbers not only in all theſe places, but in the ports of Holland, and wherever the influence of France could prevail. In all parts of this extenſive coaſt an extraordinary degree of activity was enforced, and communication was kept up by chains of telegraphs throughout the line.

To gain a ſupply of marines, the Firſt Conſul diſpatched, with great publicity, a circular letter to all the magiſtrates of the interior, requiring them to uſe all diligence in ſecuring and forwarding to the coaſt all ſeamen who had fled from the ſea port towns, as without the aſſiſtance of thoſe men, the meditated invaſion of England at all points, could not be effected. At the ſame time it was with equal pomp announced, that an adjutant from the Firſt Conſul had been at Dunkirk to haſten the equipment of veſſels for this great purpoſe. Accounts were given of the great force collected, the grand rendezvous of which was at Boulogne; a flotilla at Dunkirk for the conveyance of troops along the coaſt was ſpoken of, and the conſtruction of gun-boats, which had been built three years, was particularly deſcribed. They were to be rowed with ſixty oars; each to carry 160 men; and at one of their extremities was a bridge which could be lowered or raiſed at pleaſure, and was contrived to facilitate the landing of troops. Meaſures were taken to place all points of the coaſts both of Holland and France in ſecurity, the ſeamen were called out, and incited to emulate the renown of the army, and fly without delay to the poſt of glory, where by conqueſt they were to May 13.

ſecure a maritime peace; and at Breſt evolutions were performed on the water, repreſenting the circumſtances and manner of diſembarking, intended as a preparatory manœuvre to the deſcent on the coaſts of England.

The navy which the combined powers poſſeſſed to ſupport the operations which France ſo loudly threatened, conſiſted principally in the grand combined French and Spaniſh fleet at Breſt, the number of which was ſometimes boaſted as amounting to fifty-two ſail of the line. Its effective ſtrength, however, was never conſidered formidable, ſince the ſailors of the two nations entertained rivalſhips which often produced hoſtility, the ſhips were not ſufficiently manned for ſervice; the Spaniards conſidered themſelves, and were generally regarded as mere priſoners, under the honourable name of allies, and it was deemed fortunate when detached ſquadrons could eſcape to perform ſeparate ſervices. Beſide this fleet, one of five ſail of the line, under Admiral Latouche Treville was ſtationed at Boulogne to protect the flotilla, with which the French boaſted that they would conquer the modern Carthage, and ranſack the coffers of the ſhop-keeping race of Engliſhmen, to enrich the heroes of their own land. There was a ſquadron too at Rochefort, but it was kept cloſely blockaded by Sir Edward Pellew; as was a Spaniſh ſquadron at Cadiz, by Sir James Saumarez; and the Dutch fleet did not attempt any ſervice during the year, being blocked up by eighteen ſail of the line, and ſome other veſſels, under Admirals Dickſon and Graves. The navy of England was ſo immenſely ſuperior to all the force which could be aſſembled by the enemy, that the nature of war was changed; the vigilance of perpetual blockade ſucceeded to the energy of frequent conteſt, and the commanders on the ſide of the enemy, although they fought valiantly when forced into action, had yet learned to conſider, and even in their public diſpatches to boaſt of, ſafety as a triumph, and to conſider an Engliſh fleet or ſhip defeated as often as it failed to make prize of its opponent. Secured as the ſhips and even boats of the enemy were by every device which prudential caution could invent; by land batteries, and flying artillery, by troops of ſoldiers ever in motion, by being faſtened to the ſhore with cables and with chains; by being even dragged on ſhore, and deprived of their rigging, ſtill the daring enterprizes of the Britiſh ſeamen in all parts of the world where the flag of an enemy could be found, were conſpicuous in the records of heroic valour, although many of them were not, in their reſult, of ſufficient moment for hiſtorical commemoration. Such events as are moſt worthy of notice will be ſelected.

Although the threats of invaſion, under all the circumſtances of the times, could not be conſidered as formidable to thoſe who merely reaſoned on the relation of cauſes to probable effects, ſtill the events of late years, the overthrow of all Europe by means which ſeemed not leſs remote from probability, did not allow the Britiſh government to rely with a too ſanguine confidence on appearances. They would not have been juſtified in omitting

omitting to take ſuch precautions as would tend to keep alive the vigour of defenſive reſolution, and at once animate the country to exertion, and afford the beſt means of repelling the foe, ſhould he, in any manner, or with any force, greater or ſmaller, attempt the accompliſhment of his threats.

July 25. A letter from the treaſury having informed the Lord Mayor that miniſters had ſtrong reaſons to believe the enemy would attempt an immediate deſcent, leave was given to ſearch for, and, with the aſſiſtance of a peace officer, impreſs ſeamen who ſought refuge within the walls; meaſures were taken for calling out the military force of every deſcription, for muſtering horſes to mount cavalry, and waggons for conveyance of baggage and neceſſaries, and for driving the cattle from the neighbourhood of the coaſt to the interior. Beſide the exertions recommended, and ſtrenuouſly adopted in every county for calling into action all theſe reſources, parks of artillery were formed, and kept in perpetual readineſs; the ſupplementary militias were embodied, and meaſures were concerted for protecting the mouths of navigable rivers, by batteries on ſhore, by hulks ſtationed in well ſelected poſitions, and by preparations for the removal of all guides to navigation with which the enemy could be acquainted; regulations were iſſued for the march of troops at a ſhort notice, and for ſupplying them with neceſſaries without injury to the proprietors from whom they ſhould be taken. Signals both for day and night were eſtabliſhed; frigates, gun-boats, and other veſſels were ſtationed in the neighbourhood of all the ports of the enemy, and every device reſorted to for impeding their progreſs ſhould they attempt to execute their plan, and for giving the earlieſt alarm in England, that the means of ſecurity might be inſtantly and vigorouſly employed.

If the French really entertained ſerious hopes of ſucceſs from the accumulation of a vaſt force, nothing could be more ridiculous than the expedients to which they were reduced in order to convey their craft from one of their harbours to another. They never ventured to any hazardous diſtance from the ſhore, but under the protection of batteries, or an eſcort of flying artillery, crept cautiouſly along in ſhallow water, purſuing every ſinuoſity of the coaſt, rather than riſk an encounter with the Britiſh cruizers, or their boats. Sometimes this precaution was carried ſo far, that the boats were dragged from place to place over land, a circumſtance which coupled with ideas of invaſion and conqueſt, produced an effect abſolutely ludicrous. A nocturnal voyage of a few leagues, if unattended with diſaſter, was deſcribed as abſolutely glorious; and future ſucceſs was boldly prognoſticated by thoſe who conſidered themſelves eminently fortunate in ſecuring preſent ſafety. The following extract of a diſpatch from Boulogne will ſhew theſe hopes, fears, and exaggerations in a more clear light than any other deſcription: "The "diviſion of gun-boats," the writer ſays, "compoſed of ſixteen "veſſels, which waited at Dieppe "for a favourable wind and op-"portunity, arrived at Boulogne

" this night. One boat only ran " on ſhore, but troops were im- " mediately ſent, and ſome pieces " of artillery will be planted to " prevent the Engliſh from get- " ting poſſeſſion of her. Thus " all our diviſions of armed veſ- " ſels ſucceſſively join the flotilla, " and continue to elude the vigi- " lance of the Engliſh cruizers. " If there are circumſtances in " which the Engliſh cannot hinder " a numerous diviſion of boats " from going to Boulogne from " Cherbourg, how can they hinder " us from making a paſſage acroſs " the channel, which would only " take five hours? And if the " Engliſh government can neither " hinder the collection of our " forces, nor annihilate them as " they had threatened, nor diſ- " pute our paſſage; how will they " find means to relieve their peo- " ple from panic terrors of in- " vaſion? The weſt wind, which " had driven the Engliſh from " our anchorage ground, ſoon be- " came ſo violent, that one of " their ſhips of war, after having " veered out all her cable, was " obliged to cut it. The captain " left a buoy that he might find " his cable when he returned, " but Admiral La Touche, whom " nothing eſcapes, ſent out a " boat which brought away the " buoy."

This feeble calculation of poſſibilities was almoſt the only topic of encouragement by which the French could inſpire confidence or hope. Almoſt every one of their ports had, in the courſe of the ſummer, been the ſcene of ſome daring attempt made by the Britiſh ſhips or boats to tear from the protection of land batteries, or even to carry off in ſight of the combined fleets of France and Spain ſome portion of the flotilla, which, if it could not conquer, was to keep up a panic terror in England. The Britiſh fleet which blockaded Breſt, conſiſted of fifteen ſail of the line, beſides frigates, under Admiral Cornwallis; and from this, as well as from the grand or channel fleet, ſeveral ſingle ſhips performed brave exploits againſt the boats of the enemy, although they could not gain honour in a general action. Every Gazette contained accounts of theſe reſolute attempts; enumerations of gun-boats and flat-boats driven on ſhore, and deſtroyed, or with difficulty reſcued by the land forces; or of moſt daring efforts fruſtrated only by the moſt unprecedented precautions. No ſingle exploit performed in the channel, however, equalled in intereſt, or exceeded in effective gallantry, that of taking from Camaret Bay the French corvette La Chevrette, mounting twenty guns, and having on board 350 men. This achievement was executed by 150 volunteers in boats, belonging to the Doris, Beaulieu, and Urania frigates, commanded by Lieutenant Loſack of the Ville de Paris, who was aſſiſted by Lieutenants from all the frigates above mentioned. In the night this heroic band ſet forward to ſignalize Britiſh courage in the preſence of the combined fleets of France and Spain; they boarded, fought through all the reſiſtance, which, during a conteſt of two hours and a half, ſo formidable a ſuperiority of numbers could offer, and, in triumph, July 21, 22.

triumph, brought away the prize ſo gloriouſly acquired. After the action the deck of La Chevrette was crouded with the dead bodies and mangled limbs of the combatants on both ſides; the French captain was run through the body by Lieutenant Neville, of the Urania; another corvette, ſimilar to that which was captured, cut her cables, and ran into Breſt. The loſs of the aſſailants on this occaſion was, two officers and nine men killed, one drowned, and ſeven officers and fifty men wounded; on the ſide of the enemy, the number killed and wounded amounted to 154. The prize was carried into Plymouth, the wounded men having been ſent to Breſt in a cartel. Admiral Cornwallis, in his diſpatch to the Admiralty, juſtly declared that this daring exploit appeared to him to ſtand as high in point of credit to his Majeſty's arms, and glory to thoſe brave officers and men who had ſo nobly achieved it, as any of the kind ever performed.

Detached enterprizes could not be expected to produce any material effect on the war or even on the expedition againſt which they were directed, but greater events were anticipated when the gallant Nelſon, on his return from the Baltic, was inveſted with the command of all the fleet deſtined to protect the coaſt. The daring ſpirit of this great commander could not remain contented with mere protective exertions, and therefore having ſelected a ſquadron of men of war, frigates, gun and bomb veſſels, he proceeded to the coaſt of France for the purpoſe of attacking the enemy in their head quarters at Boulogne. In the morning of the 4th of Auguſt, at day-break, he deſcried twenty-four veſſels anchored in a line in front of the town, and the wind being favourable, directed the bombs to weigh, and throw ſhells at them, but to avoid as much as poſſible annoying the town. By their exertions three flat-boats and a brig were ſunk, and ſix boats driven on ſhore, five of which were afterward floated, and with difficulty hauled into the Mole. During this attack Lord Nelſon was diligently employed in making obſervations, but the whole affair, as he obſerved, was of no further conſequence than to ſhew that the enemy could not, with impunity, come outſide their ports. The French, however, in their official accounts gave another complexion to the tranſaction, and vaunted it as of the greateſt magnitude. They boaſted of the vigour with which the fire of the Engliſh armament was returned, and the eager ſolicitations of their ſoldiers to be allowed to board, an ardour which it would have been very difficult for them to gratify, if their own account was true, that the Engliſh kept a diſtance of 1900 fathoms, rather more than two miles, from the line of their diviſion. The aſſailants, they ſaid, threw 900 ſhells without killing or wounding any one, and two boats, which had ſuſtained ſome ſlight damage, were inſtantly refitted. This was the firſt engagement of the kind, they added, and perhaps the hiſtorian would find reaſon to notice it. This action, in itſelf unimportant, was rendered intereſting to many by being diſtinctly ſeen from the Engliſh,

June 30.

Aug. 1.

Aug. 4.

as well as the French ſhore, the hills on each ſide being crouded with ſpectators.

The noble Admiral, anxious to derive advantage from the experience gained in this attack, and having made further preparations in Margate Roads, ſoon returned to Boulogne to attempt bringing off the flotilla moored in front of that harbour. For this purpoſe he formed four diviſions of boats for boarding, under Captains Somerville, Cotgrave, Jones, and Parker, and a diviſion of howitzer boats, under Capt. Conn, each having it in charge to aſſail a particular portion of the enemy's force, and all to ſupport each other. They put off half an hour before midnight in ſilence, and in admirable order. Owing, however, to the darkneſs of the night, and the tide and half tide, the diviſions ſeparated, and each commander of a diviſion was obliged to exert his own bravery and judgment in endeavouring to execute his ſhare of the general plan without a certainty of the expected co-operation. Another circumſtance, adverſe to the ſucceſs of the expedition was, that the French were perfectly prepared. The appearance of Nelſon off their ſhore ſufficiently indicated that ſome enterprize would be attempted, and the collection of boats around the Admiral's and other ſhips in the courſe of the day, convinced the enemy that an attack would be made without delay. To what extent they had carried their meaſures of precaution is not aſcertained; on one ſide it is aſſerted that they bound the flotilla with chains, which faſtened the veſſels to each other, and to the ground; but this the French poſitively deny; they admit, however, that they had conveyed on board a large body of land forces, and that each veſſel was protected by a ſtrong netting braced up to her lower yards.

Aug. 15.

Capt. Parker was the firſt who came into action; he attacked the part of the flotilla aſſigned to him, at about half paſt twelve, running alongſide a large brig off the Mole Head, which wore the Commodore's pendant, while a ſubdiviſion of the boats under his command, puſhed on to attack the veſſels to the northward. The attempt to board was reſiſted by the netting already mentioned, and the aſſailants were received with a diſcharge of muſketry from about 200 ſoldiers ſtationed on the gunwale of the brig, which threw Capt. Parker, his officers, and two-thirds of the crew on their backs into the boat; all either killed or deſperately wounded. The flat-boat in which Capt. Parker was, being thus deprived of officers and men, muſt have fallen into the hands of the enemy, but was towed off. The ſubdiviſion diſpatched to the northward, and commanded by Lieutenant Williams, was not more ſucceſsful, nor did it ſuffer leſs ſeverely, the whole boat's crew, in which the lieutenant was, being either killed or wounded.

Capt. Somerville, in endeavouring to execute his ſhare of the enterprize, found himſelf on getting in ſhore, carried away by the rapidity of the tide, conſiderably to the eaſtward of the Bay of Boulogne, but having directed the boats to caſt each other off, he was able to reach the flotilla a lit-

tle before the dawn of day. He attacked and carried a brig, and cut her cables, but was prevented from towing her out by her being ſecured with a chain. In this ſituation, being expoſed to a heavy fire of muſketry and grape, which the French poured in from the ſhore, from three luggers, and a brig within half piſtol ſhot, regardleſs of the injury which muſt enſue to their own troops, Capt. Somerville found himſelf obliged to quit the prize he could not hope to retain; and as it was broad day, to provide for his own ſafety, and that of his crew.

Capt. Cotgrave, in execution of Lord Nelſon's orders, proceeded to attack the largeſt of the veſſels which were to be attempted by his diviſion, but the enemy having opened a heavy fire from the batteries, he conſidered it improper to await the proceeding of the heavy boats of his diviſion, and cutting the tow rope, advanced ſingly. His boat was ſoon ſunk by the number of ſhot which pierced her bottom, and with difficulty he ſaved himſelf and crew in another veſſel.

The fourth diviſion could not get into action being unable to bear up againſt the rapid tide; and the howitzer boats endeavouring to ſupport Capt. Parker, threw about eight ſhells into the pier, but were ſoon carried from their ſtation by the force of the current. In this attempt, therefore, valour, diſcipline, and conduct were waſted in a purſuit, where, from the firſt moment, hope did not ſhew a probability of ſucceſs. Lord Nelſon paid the homage of ſympathetic gratitude to the individuals engaged, by declaring in his official diſpatch, that he never witneſſed more determined, perſevering courage, nor a greater zeal, and ardent deſire to diſtinguiſh themſelves by an attack, than was ſhewn by all perſons under his command. The loſs, which the brave Admiral acknowledged to have fallen far below his expectations, was forty-four killed, and 128 wounded; in the latter number was Capt. Parker, whom Lord Nelſon honoured with the title of his gallant good friend, and able aſſiſtant; on his return to England he ſuffered the amputation of a leg, but did not long ſurvive the operation.

The failure was for ſome time magnified by the enemy into an affair of the utmoſt importance: in their accounts it would have ſeemed that Copenhagen was obliterated, and Aboukir avenged. Rear-Admiral La Touche Treville did not indeed give much foundation for theſe boaſtful rodomontades, for although his account of the engagement was intended to ſhew his own prudence, to conceal his loſs, and to exaggerate that of his opponents, it was written with good temper, and its language was not that of inſolence or reproach. He allowed that he had foreſeen the attack, and prepared for it by getting on board his flotilla battalions of the 46th, 57th, and 108th regiments, and he was apprized of the approach of the Engliſh by boats ſtationed on purpoſe to look out. He denied, however, that the land batteries fired at all, giving as a reaſon, that which by thoſe who affirmed the contrary was ſtated as a wonder, that they muſt have killed friends and enemies without diſcrimination; yet

he allowed that all the gun-veſſels of the advanced guard had been boarded though without ſucceſs. He calculated the loſs of the Engliſh at between four and five hundred in killed and dangerouſly wounded, the beach being, as he ſaid, every inſtant covered with the carcaſes. To counterbalance this ſuppoſed great deſtruction, and after admitting the boarding of ſeveral veſſels, he repreſented the French to have had only ten killed and thirty wounded.

But what the Admiral was aſhamed to do on this occaſion was performed by a pretended eye-witneſs, who giving an account of the action in one of the few papers allowed by government, exhauſted every term, ſerious or humorous, which the language could afford, in extolling the prodigies of valour performed by the French heroes, and deſcribing the drubbing they had given to the moſt magnanimous and moſt veracious Nelſon. Not content, like the Admiral, with ſtrewing the ſhore with carcaſes, this eye-witneſs ſtrewed the decks of all the gun-veſſels with the fingers, hands, and wriſts of Engliſhmen. In the very rage of impotent ferocity this writer blackened his countrymen with a character of ſavageneſs, which, on that occaſion at leaſt, they had no opportunity of diſplaying. "We "did not amuſe ourſelves," he ſaid, "by making priſoners, or "in ſaving thoſe who were "drowning; our only occupation "was, to deſtroy; and in the "hoſpital of Boulogne there are "but two Engliſhmen, and they, "it is thought, cannot recover "from their wounds." How different this atrocious paragraph, in a government print, from the noble ſentiments expreſſed on ſimilar occaſions by Britiſh Admirals, and re-echoed with pride by every individual in the nation!

The Official Journal too, in contradicting the accounts publiſhed by the Britiſh government, boaſted that the Engliſh had been vanquiſhed by the ſame bayonets which had put them to flight in Holland, and would be their terror wherever the chance of war ſhould lead them. At the ſame time it was wondered why ſo much importance ſhould be attached to this tranſaction, which was nothing more than a ſimple ſkirmiſh, or affair of advanced guards.

This obſervation at leaſt was well founded; for nothing but the intereſt which was ſo juſtly attached to every event connected with the name of Nelſon could have given even a momentary importance to a fight of boats, which did not laſt in cloſe action two hours; in which an enemy, pretending to invade, hugged his own ſhore with all the anxiety of terror, and counted as a triumph the aſſurance of ſafety at the diſtance of one thouſand yards from the Continent. Againſt this mixture of menace and alarm Nelſon was employed no more, although he continued to ſuperintend the operations of his diviſion of the fleet, making occaſional movements towards various parts of the coaſt, which always produced the deſired effect in alarming the foe. Single veſſels ſtill ſeized every opportunity of damaging and inſulting the ſmall flying ſquadrons which ventured to appear. Sometimes a few were taken; Capt. Roſe, of the Jamaica, captured and deſtroyed

ſtroyed at Etaples about ſix; but the whole courſe of this hoſtility ſeems too inſignificant to form part of the hiſtory of a war ſo eventful and replete with great and ſurprizing changes.

Turning then from theſe trifling exploits, directed againſt the ſuppoſed invaders of England, it becomes neceſſary to follow the Britiſh navy to other parts of the world, and the firſt place to be noticed will be the Weſt Indies. Mention has already been made of the capture and reſtitution of the Daniſh Iſlands, a matter of too little importance in the general hiſtory of the period to claim much notice. The Expedition
Mar. 16. ſailed from St. John's, in Antigua, the fleet being under the command of Rear-Admiral Duckworth, and the land forces under General Trigge. After taking St. Bartholomew, they reach-
Mar. 23. ed St. Martin's, a ſmall iſland, but capable of a good defence, and in the joint poſſeſſion of the French and Dutch. The troops were divided into two brigades, for the purpoſe of aſſailing theſe two portions of territory ſeparately. The firſt, under Brigadier General Fuller, compoſed of a battalion of the Royals, and the ſecond Weſt India regiment, was deſtined to attack Fort Cheſterfield, near the town of Mariſot, in the French quarter. The other, led by Brigadier General Maitland, conſiſting of ſix companies of Britiſh troops, and four of the 8th Weſt India regiment, was intended to aſſail the portion belonging to the Dutch. To each brigade was attached a proper portion of artille-
Mar. 24. ry. The landing having been effected in the Dutch quarter, the principal ſhare of action fell on the diviſion of General Maitland. That Officer having gained the heights toward fort Amſterdam, was ſoon oppoſed by detached parties of the enemy, who, contrary to expectation, had drawn their chief force to the Dutch quarter. They did not wait to be attacked, but impetuouſly aſſailed the invaders with 300 men, and two field pieces; they however were repulſed with the loſs of their cannon, and fifty men killed. A capitulation was entered into the ſame day for the Dutch part of the iſland, and the French part ſurrendered without reſiſtance. In the account of this affair tranſmitted to Government, General Trigge praiſed the troops in general, but beſtowed particular plaudits on the Weſt India corps; the 8th regiment of which, although entirely compoſed of African negroes, who had not been embodied above three years, engaged with a degree of gallantry, and behaved in a manner that would have done honour to any troops. The iſland was gained at the expence of only ſix men wounded.

While General Trigge was employed on this ſervice, a Britiſh force took poſſeſſion of the Dutch colonies of St. Euſtatia, with Saba, its dependency. Theſe
April 21. iſlands having been evacuated by the French, Mr. Thomſon, Preſident of the Council at St. Chriſtopher, anxious to provide for the ſecurity of the Britiſh iſlands in the neighbourhood, and to recover a great number of runaway ſlaves, authorized Lieutenant Colonel Blunt, with a party of 100 men of the Buffs, and ten

of

of the artillery, to take poſſeſſion of St. Euſtatia, till the pleaſure of General Trigge ſhould be known. The troops were conveyed in the ſhip Arab, by Capt. Perkins, and as the iſlands were left in a deplorable ſtate of want, the French having carried off the field pieces, and as much powder and plunder as they could ſtow in their ſhips, they ſurrendered without reſiſtance, but the acquiſition was juſtly conſidered of very ſlight importance. Far different indeed was the condition of Saint Euſtatia, from that which in the American war made it a capture of ſuch high importance, and occaſioned ſuch general joy in the Britiſh nation.

Some ſlight naval actions alſo took place in the Weſt Indies, the moſt conſiderable of which was a bold exploit of Lieutenants M'Kenzie and Peachey, who cut out from under the batteries of Baſſeterre, Guadaloupe, an armed ſchooner, capable of mounting twelve ſix-pounders, but, in fact, armed only with four four-pounders, and twenty ſwivels, and defended by twenty men. The action was praiſed as eminently gallant. Captain Loftus Otway Bland alſo captured in the ſame ſeas, L'Egypte, a French ſchooner, of 16 guns, and 100 men, which had ſailed from Guadaloupe to annoy the Britiſh commerce.

Feb. 18.

May 31.

In parts of the Atlantic, nearer to the European poſſeſſions of the enemy, ſeveral ſpirited actions took place, with various ſucceſs. Captain Hotham, in the Immortalité, captured a French privateer of peculiar conſtruction, named l'Invention, carrying 24 guns on a fluſh deck, and 210 men. She had been but nine days from Bordeaux, and was planned by her commander, M. Thibaut. She was of extraordinary dimenſions, being 147 feet long, and 27 wide, but the greateſt peculiarity was, her being provided with four maſts, each rigged in the uſual manner, and which, in Captain Hotham's opinion, anſwered perfectly well.

July 31.

July

Capt. Mudge, of La Conſtance, diſtinguiſhed himſelf by ſeveral gallant exploits; he captured a Spaniſh privateer and a cutter, and afterward, by a well-directed and ſpirited manœuvre, took, near Cape Ortegal, the El Cantara privateer, of 22 guns, and a lugger of 10. The boats of the Fiſguard, Diamond, and Boadicea, under the temporary command of Lieutenant Pipon, cut out of Corunna a Spaniſh ſhip of 20 guns, a gunboat, and a merchant veſſel, although they were all moored within the batteries, and the Engliſh boats challenged, and fired on from the ſhore. Capt. John Fraſer, Commandant of Goree, alſo rendered an eſſential ſervice by a naval enterprize. A large ſhip, under Spaniſh colours, was lying off Senegal, which had been brought in by part of the crew, aſſiſted by a number of ſlaves, who had murdered the officers, and ſeized the veſſel. A Frenchman, named Renaud, had propoſed, as ſoon as the cargo was landed, to refit the ſhip, and employ her in attacking the Britiſh veſſels trading for gum in the open roads of Port Andique, to plunder Sierra Leone, and then run for Cayenne. Theſe circumſtances

July 21.

Aug. 21.

June 12.

ſtances coming to the knowledge of Capt. Fraſer, he procured the aſſiſtance of a merchant veſſel from Liverpool, the only armed ſhip on the coaſt, and with her, and the government ſchooner, which was navigated by blacks, ſent down a detachment of the garriſon, under Capt. Lloyd. On their approach to the place of deſtination, the crew of the Spaniſh ſhip betook themſelves to their boats, and the Engliſh, finding her ſtripped of her ſails and rigging, and from other cauſes, deeming it impracticable to bring her off, burnt her where ſhe lay. She was of 900 tons burthen, and pierced for 30 guns, and, but for this fortunate expedition, would probably have occaſioned great damage.

In the Mediterranean, Lord Keith was Commander in Chief; Sir John Borlaſe Warren blockaded the port of Toulon; while Admiral Sir James Saumarez, who blockaded Cadiz, might, although not ſtrictly within that ſea, be conſidered as acting on that ſtation, as his force was principally drawn from that of Lord Keith; his general rendezvous was Gibraltar, and the moſt conſpicuous naval actions of the whole ſummer were fought by him at and near Algeziras. Of the detached actions performed by ſingle veſſels of either ſquadron it is little neceſſary to ſpeak, except perhaps to notice one of ſingular gallantry by Lord Cochrane. This noble Commander being off Barcelona, in command of the Speedy, mounting only 14 4-pounders, and navigated with only 54 perſons, including officers and boys, engaged the Spaniſh ſhip El Gamo, having 22 long 12-pounders, eight 9-pounders, and 2 carronades, with 319 men. Notwithſtanding this prodigious diſparity of force, his Lordſhip boarded the enemy, and ſurpriſing him by the impetuoſity of attack, ſucceeded in making prize of the Gamo. In this action only three Engliſhmen were killed and eight wounded; and on board the Spaniard, 15 killed, and 41 wounded.

May 6.

The French and Spaniards, being deſirous to raiſe the blockade of Cadiz, a French ſquadron of two 84's, and one 74, and a frigate under Rear Admiral Linois, was anchored in the Bay of Algeziras, intending to co-operate with the Spaniſh Admiral Moreno, in effecting that purpoſe, after which they were to be employed in conveying ſuccours to Egypt. Sir James Saumarez, informed of this fact, ſtood through the Streights of Gibraltar, with three 84's, two 74's, a frigate, and a lugger, and having opened Cabareta Point, ſaw with ſatisfaction that the French lay at a conſiderable diſtance from the ſhore; but their poſition was not intended to be permanent, for it was only preparatory to their taking another, in which they would be ſupported by the land batteries. They were early warned from ſhore of the approach of the Britiſh fleet, and therefore made the beſt poſſible diſpoſition for reſiſtance. The Engliſh were led by Capt. Hood in the Venerable, an officer particularly relied on for his experience and knowledge of the anchorage, and as there was a good leading wind, the Admiral advanced with well founded hopes of ſucceſs. Suddenly, however, as is very common in that climate, the wind ſhifted and failed, inſo-

July 6.

much

much that the Venerable, contrary to the original intention, was obliged to drop an anchor; Capt. Sterling, of the Pompée, anchored oppoſite the inner ſhip of the enemy, and brought his veſſel very handſomely into action. Captain Darby, in the Spencer, and Capt. Jervis, in the Hannibal, were prevented from advancing to ſupport them, for want of wind, until the Hannibal, getting a breeze, preſſed forward to join in the engagement, but unfortunately took the ground. The French ſquadron, in the mean time, made every advantage of their ſituation, keeping up a briſk fire, in which they were ſupported by the land batteries, which more than compenſated for their inferiority in naval force. The fire of the Britiſh ſhips had however ſilenced one of theſe batteries, and a detachment was actually landing to take poſſeſſion of it, when the French, who had many troops on board, landed a ſuperior force, and not only fruſtrated the deſign, but renewed the firing with increaſed activity and effect. At length, after exerting, during ſix hours, every effort which valour and prudence could dictate, the Britiſh Admiral found himſelf obliged to retire from the combat, leaving in poſſeſſion of the enemy, the Hannibal, of 74 guns, which it was impracticable to bring off, although every poſſible endeavour was made, the Engliſh ſhips getting within three cables lengths of the batteries. Even in the deſperate ſituation in which this veſſel was, ſhe did not fall an eaſy prey: animated by the knowledge that the whole garriſon of Gibraltar were ſpectators of the conflict, the crew fought with increaſed reſolution, and did not ſurrender until her boats, ſails, rigging, and ſprings, were all ſhot away. After the action, the French Admiral ſays in his diſpatch, ſome boats came on board the Hannibal, to aſk for leave to take away the wounded, but, as they were unprovided with flags of truce, and the men were armed, he detained the veſſels, and made their crews priſoners. The killed on board the Britiſh ſquadron were 121, the wounded 240, and there were miſſing 14, making a total of 375. The ſhips of the enemy muſt have ſuffered greatly; the French publiſhed no account of their loſs, except the names of Lalonde and Moncouſu, Captains of le Formidable and l'Indomptable, who were killed; but the Spaniards, leſs diſcreet, or more honeſt, acknowledged in the Madrid Gazette, that the French had 800 men killed and wounded; their own loſs, the Spaniards ſaid, was conſiderably leſs than that of their allies, and the capture of the Hannibal was entirely owing to the battery of Saint James. Rear Admiral Saumarez, in his diſpatch, declared that two of the enemy's ſhips were aground, and the whole ſquadron rendered totally unſerviceable, but in this he over-rated the injury they had ſuſtained, as the French alſo appear to have rated too highly that which they had been able to accompliſh.

The news of the capture of an Engliſh 74 was received in France with incredible exultation; the details were read to the audiences at the theatres, the journals were filled with boaſtful and deriſive paragraphs; the makers of epigrams pronounced that the modern Car-

thage

thage muſt ſoon be deſtroyed, ſince they had left their Hannibal, and, as if the whole hope of England was embarked on board the ſquadron of Sir James Saumarez, they termed the action off Algeſiras, the naval Marengo.

But a very few days were ſufficient to deſtroy theſe inſubſtantial triumphal arches. The Britiſh Admiral having retired to Gibraltar to repair his loſſes, Don Joachin de Moreno no longer blocked up in Cadiz, joined Linois, with five ſhips of the line, two being of 112 guns, one of 94, one of 80, and one of 74, beſides a French 74, and frigates, expecting that they might together return to Cadiz without fear of moleſtation. For this purpoſe, the whole force, with an immenſe number of gun-boats and other veſſels, of which large quantities are always ſtationed at Algeſiras, got under weigh, bringing with them the Hannibal, but made no great progreſs until the evening, when they were much ſurpriſed to ſee to windward of them, Sir James Saumarez, who with the hearty aſſiſtance of the garriſon at Gibraltar, and by means of indefatigable activity and perſeverance, had refitted all his ſquadron, except the Pompée, whoſe maſts could not be got in. Notwithſtanding the vaſt diſparity of his force, he prepared to oppoſe the progreſs of the enemy, and about midnight his foremoſt ſhips attacking one of the largeſt of the Spaniſh, called the Real Carlos, ſhe ſoon took fire. Seeing her in this condition, the Britiſh veſſels hauled off, as did alſo the ſhip San Antonio, manned principally by Frenchmen, and under French colours, which had advanced to her ſupport. While the flames raged on board the Real Carlos, ſhe found herſelf near another veſſel, which proved to be the San Hermenegilde, alſo of 112 guns. Miſtaking each other for enemies they grappled, the fire communicated, and both blew up with a tremendous exploſion, and general loſs of their crews, not more than 45 being reſcued from the hand of fate. The ſhip which firſt aſſailed the Real Carlos was the Superb, Capt. Keats, and as this veſſel and the San Antonio quitted the conflagration together, they began an engagement, which ſoon terminated in the ſurrender to Captain Keats, of his opponent's ſhip, which bore a French broad pendant. The reſt of the combined fleet ſhared little in the action, which was fought during a tremendous gale, and terminated at half paſt ſix in the morning of the 12th, the San Antonio remaining in the hands of the Engliſh, and the reſidue of the ſquadron reaching, though much ſhattered, the harbour of Cadiz.

July 9.

July 11.

A detached engagement took place between Capt. Hood, in the Venerable, of 74, and Captain Tourdes, temporary Commander of le Formidable, of 80. After a ſhort chace, Capt. Hood came up with the enemy, whom he fought during an hour and a half, within piſtol ſhot, but the Frenchman having carried away all the maſts of the Venerable, and ſhe being near the ſhore, cloſe to the Caſtle Santi Petri, Capt. Hood was obliged to allow his antagoniſt to eſcape, in order to provide for his own ſafety, which he ſecured by the aid of boats, and of the Thames

July 12.

Thames frigate, but not without conſiderable difficulty, his cables and anchors being all diſabled, the officers and men much fatigued by their exertions to get the ſhip to ſea, and not 500 able to go to their quarters. The loſs of the enemy in this engagement is not aſcertained; on board the Superb, only 15 perſons were wounded, none being killed; the Venerable had 18 killed, and 85 wounded.

The French ſhips moſt diſtinguiſhed in theſe actions were part of a ſquadron of ſeven ſail of the line, and three of an inferior deſcription, under Rear Admiral Gantheaume, which early in the year eſcaped from Breſt during a heavy gale, which blew away the Britiſh fleet. They were immediately deſcried by Sir Edward Pellew's ſquadron, and obliged to put into Camaret Bay, whence they ſoon found means again to eſcape, and proceed towards their deſtination. As their departure was known, the French papers, with great addreſs, gave a falſe colouring to their project, by treating on the importance and preſent ſtate of St. Domingo, and, at length, aſſerting that Gantheaume was to attempt the ſubjugation of that revolted colony, and that he was furniſhed for that purpoſe with 3,500 men, of whom 1,500 were people of colour collected in and about Paris, headed by one of their own claſs, named Mentor, a deputy ſent from the iſland, during the times of imaginary freedom and equality. This artful and probable tale had the deſired effect, as it induced the Britiſh government to diſpatch a fleet under Sir Robert Calder to the Weſt Indies, for the purpoſe of encountering this ſuppoſed foe, ſome even aſſerted that the intention was to attack the Brazils, and it was not till after a long period of ſuſpenſe, that the real object of the voyage was diſcovered to be that of carrying reinforcements to the French army in Egypt. This was firſt authentically announced in the official paper of the French government, which contained a letter from Gantheaume, narrating his progreſs and his ſucceſs in making various prizes, but the Britiſh naval force in the Mediterranean was ſufficient not only to prevent him from executing his chief purpoſe, but to keep him in ſuch continual alarm for his own ſafety, that the place where he might be found was generally unknown in France, and after many months of expectation, continually renewed and continually diſappointed, the people of that country began to turn into ridicule the expedition which had occaſioned ſo much anxiety and hope. After a ſufficient pauſe at Toulon, and a protracted cruize in the Mediterranean, the fleet returned unable to accompliſh its object, awed in ſome places by the preſence of the Britiſh ſquadron, and in others deterred from landing any troops by the determined hoſtility of the natives.

Jan. 23.

March 2.

In the courſe of his expedition, beſides other prizes in conſiderable number, he took two Britiſh ſhips of war, one, the Succeſs frigate, yielded without reſiſtance to a force which ſhe was evidently unable to cope with, but the Swiftſure, of 74 guns, commanded by Capt. Hallowell, though ultimately taken, was not ſo eaſy a prey. This veſſel, which was

June 24.

one

one of a ſquadron ſent into the Mediterranean under Sir Richard Bickerton, being ſeparated from her convoy, conſiſting of cartels and light tranſports, deſtined for Egypt, was endeavouring to ſecure a retreat to Malta, when five ſail were deſcried to leeward, which proved to be Gantheaume's ſquadron, reduced by detachments to four ſail of the line and a frigate. A chace was immediately commenced, in which, as Captain Hallowell ſaw no probability of ſaving himſelf by flight, he reſolutely bore down, and commenced an engagement with two French men of war, and the frigate, in hope of diſabling them and making his eſcape to leeward. The ſuperior ſailing of the French gave them ſo much advantage in the battle that he was deprived of this laſt hope, and the other two ſhips coming within gun-ſhot, he found it vain to maintain a longer conteſt againſt a foe ſo ſuperior, and with reluctance ſtruck his flag. As the enemy principally attacked his ſails, maſts, and rigging, only two men were killed and eight wounded. The Swiftſure was, at the commencement of the action, ſhort of her complement by 86 men, and had 56 ſick. On this occaſion Capt. Hallowell's diſpatch contained acknowledgements which the opponents of France had ſeldom an opportunity of making during this war, of the humane and handſome conduct of the Victor, of his attention to the officers, and care to prevent the plunder of private property. The intelligence of this capture, and that of the Hannibal, reached France nearly at the ſame time, and the exultation was of courſe redoubled by the concurrence.

One more maritime attempt worth noticing aroſe from the endeavours of the French to reinforce and ſupply their army in Egypt. Capt. Rogers, of the Mercury, having learnt that the Bull-dog, a ſloop lately belonging to Great Britain, was lying in the Mole at Ancona, with ſtores for the troops in Egypt, the boats of the Mercury, commanded by Lieutenant W. Mather, were employed to take or deſtroy her. About midnight, having got alongſide without being hailed by the centinels, they ſurprized, ſeized, cut the numerous cables with which ſhe was moored, and got her out of the Mole, in defiance of a heavy diſcharge of cannon and muſketry from the Bulldog and the ſhore. For awhile the captors were favoured with a light breeze, but at length it became calm, and the enemy crouding from the port with numerous gun-boats and other veſſels, while the Mercury, for want of wind, could not advance to aſſiſt them, they were obliged, with regret, to renounce the prize, after having had her in poſſeſſion three hours, and after failing in ſeveral attempts to ſet her on fire. May 26.

Her voyage to Egypt was however delayed by the damage ſhe had ſuſtained, and Capt. Rogers having ſome time afterward gained intelligence that ſhe had ſailed, in company with four trabocolos and a tartan for that country or Tarento, proceeded in purſuit of them with the Mercury and Champion, and entering the Gulph of Tarento ſaw the Santa Aug. 15.

Dorothea

Dorothea in purſuit of them, though at a very great diſtance. The fugitive veſſels got into Gallipoli, where they anchored under the guns of the garriſon, but ſo anxious were the Engliſh ſailors to recover the Bulldog from the enemy, that thoſe on board the Champion, led by Lord William Stuart, notwithſtanding the fire of the batteries, got cloſe under her ſtern, ſilenced her guns by a ſuperior fire, cut her cable, and brought her out of reach of the batteries, with the loſs of only one man. She was laden with braſs mortars, field pieces, and other artillery and ammunition. All the trabocolos warped cloſe to the walls of the garriſon, except one, which was brought away by the boats of the Mercury.

Nor was the bravery of Captain Rogers dormant during the interval between theſe two actions. A piratical tartan, called le Tigre, manned by ſixty Frenchmen and Italians, and carrying eight ſix and twelve pounders, had ſailed from Ancona, and being chaced by a Britiſh veſſel called El Corſo, took refuge among the rocks in the Tremite Iſlands, in the Adriatic, which are inhabited only by a few renegadoes. The Mercury having joined El Corſo, they proceeded in queſt of the pirates, who, on their approach, moored their veſſel faſt to the ſhore with hawſers, and landing the greater part of their men, ſtationed them on a hill, whence they poured a fire of grape and muſketry on the boat of the Mercury, in which Lieutenant Mather was advancing to ſeize the Tigre. The intrepidity and judgment of this officer ſoon ſurmounted every obſtacle; one portion of his men landed, and drove the banditti from the hill, while the reſidue hove the veſſel off the rocks, and brought her away, without the loſs of a man. She was laden with bales of cotton, and other goods, taken from ſhips of all nations, a circumſtance which ſufficiently proved her piratical character.

June 23.

CHAP.

CHAP. XIII.

Peace between England and France expected; causes of its being deferred; Egypt a great obstacle; motives assigned by France for desiring to retain that country; plan of an expedition to India by land, said to be arranged between France and Russia. View of Affairs in Egypt; improvements which had been effected by Kleber at the time of his assassination; in finance and government; emolument of natives in the French army; fortification of Cairo; suppression of all party spirit in the French army; characters of Menou, Kleber's successor; his display of prudence and moderation on his accession to power; change of his conduct; the French army divided by him into two parties; his alterations of the established system in finance, internal regulation and commerce; their bad effects; his injudicious mode of restoring the Divan of Cairo; his hasty alterations of established laws; excessive and impolitic taxation; augmentation of the expences of government; Menou neglects to form magazines; general dissatisfaction; remonstrances of certain Generals; he makes slight concessions for temporary purposes; his dispatches to government; he is confirmed in his situation; eagerness of all the Turkish Commanders to negotiate; repressed by Menou; slow preparations of the government of Constantinople against the French; reinforcements and supplies sent from Toulon arrive in safety; exultation of the French; their contemptuous description of the Grand Vizier's army; an English force expected; strength of the armies on each side which were to contend for the possession of Egypt.

DURING all these transactions, the expectation of peace between Great Britain and France was continually kept in view, although it was at some times considered less probable than at others. Before the change of administration in England, some approaches toward mutual civility had been noticed between the two governments, although they were interrupted by a correspondence relative to the seizure of French fishing-boats. It could not however, at that period, be expected that peace should be concluded, or even seriously discussed until Bonaparte had made some experiment of his extensive plan of operations against England. When the northern confederacy had been frustrated, the grand scheme was evidently deranged beyond reparation, and the approaches to pacification were considerably accelerated, as might be gathered from several external circumstances, as well as from the language used by the new Chancellor of the Exchequer in the House of Commons, and which has been noticed in a preceding chapter. After the failure in the north, the remaining experiments to be made in Europe, were not of sufficient moment to justify the labours and expences of war, and peace would probably have been concluded without delay, but that the First Consul still adhering with pertinacious fondness to the retention of Egypt, preferred a trial of his strength and resources to the last extremity, to the sur-

Jan.

render of a colony on which he had founded ſuch extenſive hopes and expectations.

Before the derangement of the plans with reſpect to Europe, the French government, by the orators in its intereſt in the tribunate, declared to the world, and endeavoured to recommend to the people of France, the views which originally led to the invaſion of Egypt, and the plans which made them ſtill ſo earneſtly deſirous to retain it. The country was repreſented, not merely as a colony in which the induſtry, the force, the learning, and the philanthropy of France were to be employed, but it would be of additional value as bringing them in contact with the ſeat of the Turkiſh government, and by their influence, inducing the Porte to guard its own intereſts with greater vigour againſt all attacks. Theſe pretexts were equally ridiculous and contradictory, conſidering that the invaſion of Egypt was, toward the Turkiſh Emperor, an act of unprincipled aggreſſion, and a formal depoſition of him from a part of his dominions; and that the only attacks which could be conſidered as menacing him, were thoſe of Ruſſia, with which country France was then uſing every art to court an alliance. But the main ſpring of the enterprize was avowed to be the deſire of deſtroying the naval power of England. "On their conqueſts in India," ſaid one of the orators of government, "the "Engliſh reſt the trident they "have uſurped. To wreſt it from "their graſp, it became neceſſary "to attack them in India, and "the ſhorteſt, ſafeſt, and leaſt ex-"pected way to thoſe remote re-"gions was through Egypt. The "plan was conceived by Bona-"parte; and after being long "meditated, was as ſuddenly re-"ſolved on by the government, "and as ſuddenly put into execu-"tion." It appeared that, at this period, the beginning of the year, the French conſidered that the victory of Heliopolis, the meaſures begun by Kleber, and, as they ſuppoſed, carried on by Menou, the terror of the Grand Vizier, and the pacification of Murad Bey rendered their poſſeſſion of Egypt abſolutely ſecure, and left them at liberty, either jointly with Ruſſia, or ſingly, to purſue the projects they had formed for proſecuting the original plan againſt the Britiſh poſſeſſions in India.

As the project they had combined with Paul was oſtentatiouſly detailed in French publications, and excited ſome ſpeculations with reſpect to its practicability, and as it bore a ſtrong relation to their attempt on Egypt, it may not be improper to preſerve it from oblivion by a ſhort outline. For the purpoſe of utterly expelling the Engliſh from India, delivering thoſe rich and beautiful countries from the Britiſh yoke, and opening new vents for the commerce and induſtry of all civilized nations, and particularly France, that republic and the Emperor of Ruſſia were to form a combined army of 70,000 men, to which the Emperor of Germany was to allow a paſſage through his dominions, and to facilitate their progreſs down the Danube. Paul was to collect 35,000 men at Aſtrakan, who were to embark on the Caſpian ſea, and await at Aſtrabad, which

was to be the head quarters, and where all the magazines were to be eſtabliſhed, the arrival of the French; Aſtrabad was alſo to be the centre of communication between Hindoſtan, France, and Ruſſia. The French were to detach from the army of the Rhine 35,000 men, who, embarking in boats, were to fall down the Danube to its mouth in the Black Sea, where tranſports, provided by Ruſſia, and properly victualled, were to meet them, and convey them acroſs the Black Sea, and that of Azof, where they were to diſembark at Taganrog, and coaſting by the right bank of the Don, to croſs it at a given point, and paſs by land to Taritſin, on the Volga, where they were to embark, and drop down the river to Aſtrakan, where they were to be received on board merchant veſſels, which would convey them acroſs the Caſpian Sea to Aſtrabad. The combined force then marching by the cities of Herat, Ferah, and Candehar, would, in forty-five days, reach the right bank of the Indus. The whole progreſs was calculated to require 120 days. The means of executing the plan were accurately deſcribed, and the objections to it foreſeen and anſwered, in ſuch a manner as to make it appear that facility, ſafety, and plenty, both of proviſion and water, would attend the whole progreſs of the troops. The greateſt impediment was to be expected in Perſia, but there the Kans were to be pacified by a proclamation ſetting forth the power and good intentions of the united nations, that the army would levy no contributions, but would purchaſe in a fair manner, for ready money, whatever they wanted, and the people were inclined to ſell; that ſtrict diſcipline ſhould reſtrain the troops within the line of duty, and that the laws, cuſtoms, manners, property and women ſhould every where be reſpected. The general in chief was to be ſupplied from France with arms, of the manufacture of Verſailles, ſuch as muſkets, carbines, piſtols, and ſabres; with vaſes and other articles of Sevé China; with watches and time pieces by the beſt workmen in Paris; with ſuperb mirrors, and fine cloths of the French manufacture, and of the colours moſt eſteemed by the orientals, as ſcarlet, crimſon, green, and blue; and particularly with ſilks, velvets, cloths of gold and ſilver, lace and ſilk of Lyons, and Gobelin tapeſtry. All theſe things were to be judiciouſly diſtributed among the princes of the country, and being offered with the grace and amiableneſs ſo natural to the French, would ſerve to inſpire thoſe nations with a high opinion of the munificence, induſtry, and power of the French nation, and in conſequence to open a new branch of commerce. The expedition was alſo to be attended by *Savans*, and artiſts of every kind, and by air balloon makers, and artificers. It is among the many curious circumſtances attending this plan, to be obſerved how little account the French made of their good allies the Ruſſians; they were not mentioned in all theſe diſplays of taſte, wealth, and magnificence; it was indeed allowed to their coſſacks to ſcour the country, they were to combine with the French at Aſtrabad, in a military fête, in imitation of thoſe given at Paris, and they

were carefully reminded, that among the coins moſt eſteemed in Perſia were Ruſſian imperials and roubles. Yet, however extravagant this ſcheme may appear, and however doubtful it may be, that it could ever have been executed to the extent propoſed by France, it is not therefore to be pronounced that it would not be undertaken, or that it might not have been proſperous to a certain degree. The expedition to Egypt would have been deemed equally abſurd had the memoirs in recommendation of it been alone conſulted previous to the attempt, and even after the French had landed and conquered the country, how many doubts were entertained of the poſſibility of their retaining it; yet how long they were maſters of it in all directions is well known, and the efforts which were required to expel them remain to be deſcribed.

The over-land expedition to India was no more heard of after the death of the unfortunate Paul, but the extreme anxiety of the French to reinforce their army in Egypt, by means of the expedition under Gantheaume, ſhews how ſtrongly Bonaparte continued attached to the ſcheme of aſſailing Britiſh India through that avenue. Even when every other object of the war with England had ceaſed to preſent images of hope, when the threat of invaſion was no longer conſidered formidable by the rulers of France, and when the aſcendancy of the Britiſh naval power rendered all hoſtile maritime expeditions in the higheſt degree precarious, new efforts were continually made to ſuccour Egypt, and the retention of it was never conſidered deſperate till the final triumph of the Britiſh arms completed the expulſion of the firſt invaders.

When the aſſaſſination of Kleber left the chief command in the hands of Menou, many of the difficulties attending the French had vaniſhed before the prudent and liberal conduct of the deceaſed general. His ſeverity in puniſhing both corporeally and by fine, the revolt at Cairo had the double effect of awing the people, and ſupplying the wants of his troops. Circumſtances alſo tended to render the domination of the French ſecure for ſome period at leaſt. The defeat of the Grand Vizir, the immediate repreſentative of the ſublime Sultan, ſtruck the natives with equal dread and aſtoniſhment, and the treaty of peace concluded with Murad Bey promiſed a continuance of peaceable diſpoſitions. By the care of Kleber the arrears of the army had been liquidated, and ſuch arrangements made, that the government could, without extreme diſtreſs, wait for further ſupplies till the taxes ſhould next be received, and he had made the collection of thoſe impoſts as conformable as poſſible to the cuſtoms and convenience of the natives.

Under Kleber, the arts and induſtry made ſome progreſs; money began to circulate, and the French, or the natives, who were endowed with ingenuity, or addicted to labour, were not without hope of reward. At Cairo, the Turks emulated the attainments of the French, and under their inſtruction made ſome proficiency in embroidery and other appendages of luxury, and the markets were well ſupplied, particularly with buffalo-beef, and excellent mutton. The cloathing of

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the troops was a task of some difficulty, but by adhering to no particular colour for the uniform, but using whatever cloth could be obtained, it was at length effected. They even enjoyed many comforts; but their prevailing sentiment, which nothing subsequent to the rupture of the convention of El Arish could abate or extinguish, was to revisit their native land. This strong desire, ever prevailing in their minds, was always strongly expressed, as well in private as in public, and could not be restrained or diverted by the advantages of Kleber's government, or by the shows and festivals with which he endeavoured to elevate their minds, and amuse their hours. Kleber, however, increased the comfort of his soldiers by stopping numerous dilapidations and peculations which had been practised to their injury, by causing the rations of their provision and forage to be regularly delivered, and by superintending the proper issue of their cloathing.

When the French troops were regularly paid, and well fed and cloathed, the general made a strong, and not unsuccessful, endeavour to recruit their ranks by inrolments of the natives. To the copts, he represented that if they had armed during the late siege, they would not have been, as they were, pillaged by the Turks; and he endeavoured to persuade them that it was their interest to concur with the French in defending the city, since if it was taken by the forces under the Grand Vizier, they would be objects of vengeance and indiscriminate plunder. These arguments, aided by the natural desire to possess arms for self-protection, produced the desired effect; a battalion of 500 copts was raised, trained, disciplined, and accoutred in the French mode, and habited in the French uniform. Such a beginning propagated the desire to bear arms; the inhabitants, both Christians and Mussulmen, enrolled themselves in French demi-brigades, a practice which Kleber strenuously encouraged, as by uniting with the French they became more familiar with their persons, and more easily acquired their exercise. The Greeks offered themselves with great zeal and readiness; two companies had been raised by Bonaparte; but Kleber collected a Greek legion, which soon amounted to 1500 men. The inhabitants of Lower Egypt were repugnant to the French service, but hopes were entertained that their dislike might be surmounted.

Kleber had removed the difficulty, so embarrassing to the army, of procuring means of carriage in moments of urgency. This service had depended on the hiring of camels from the Arabs, but in periods of danger those men always disappeared. The general therefore established a park of 500 of these useful beasts which were of service in the field, and at other times were employed in operations of public utility. He had besides directed the purchase of horses and camels to remount the cavalry, and for the artillery; he had established flying bridges over the branches of the Nile to facilitate the march of troops from the coast to the frontier of Syria, and fixed posts of communication between the different stations of the army.

For the defence of Cairo, he had projected works of great ſimplicity, calculated at once to overawe the inhabitants of that extenſive city, and ſo to command the avenues that an enemy could not eaſily introduce himſelf to excite inſurrection; and he eſtabliſhed a committee of works, conſiſting of five members, heads of the principal departments of civil adminiſtration, with whom he adviſed on the improvements which the ſtate of the country would allow.

Such was the outline of Kleber's internal government at the time when he was removed by an aſſaſſination, the cauſes of which are ſo myſterious that no ſatisfactory ſolution can be offered. As a melioration of the improvident tyranny, and unprincipled vexation and fraud eſtabliſhed by Bonaparte, it commands reſpect, and contraſted with the ſyſtem equally weak and violent which was introduced under Kleber's ſucceſſion, it claims ſomewhat like admiration; but Kleber's plan was not without a large portion of fraud and treachery; the regularity he introduced was rather intended to fix his own power than to promote the good of the people; and it is not denied nor palliated that in permitting the copts to acquire property by the exerciſe of induſtry, he meant only to conſider them as temporary holders, from whom at the moment of need he might ſqueeze all they had acquired, and promiſe himſelf the execution of his plan with the greater facility, as confidence in the oſtentatious mildneſs, and equity of his government would ſuperſede the uſual caution of the people, and prevent them from concealing their wealth.

In one reſpect the government of Kleber was eminently and juſtly ſucceſsful; it ſuppreſſed all party ſpirit in the French army. He could not be conſidered as the projector of the enterprize with which they were all ſo heartily diſguſted; his efforts to improve their ſituation were received with gratitude, becauſe they were never conſidered as an atonement for previous miſconduct; above all, by acceding to the treaty of El Ariſh, he had ſhewn that his own inclination coincided with that of his troops in promoting their return to France, and after the diſavowal of it by England, the ſenſe of honour and feeling of indignation, which buoyed up the ſpirits of every man in the army, was unmixed with a thought of unkindneſs or reproach toward the Commander in Chief. The projects of his policy were therefore received as the dictates of patriotiſm and prudence, and his rule was reſpected while his perſon was generally beloved.

Menou, into whoſe hands the reins of government were thrown by the aſſaſſination of Kleber, was among the very few who were known to diſlike that general. He was not indeed calculated to deſerve, nor had he, by any means, obtained, the good opinion of the army. As a member of the Conſtituent aſſembly he had diſgraced the order of nobility, from which he was a deputy, by being one of the firſt to join the *tiers etat*, and although the revolutioniſts of that day might conſider this act as a ſervice which intitled him to his hour of popularity, the infamy of

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deſerting the corps to which he belonged would never, even in their eyes, be waſhed from his character. In the army of Egypt that circumſtance would indeed have given him but little claim to favour, ſince many of the officers, and moſt of the privates who ſerved there, had firmly embraced the doctrine of Robeſpierre; that moſt of the members of the Conſtituent aſſembly, but particularly the ex-nobles, were traitors to the nation, and deſerving only of the guillotine. Thoſe who profeſſed themſelves of the true revolutionary ſchool deſpiſed him, as a man to be ſuſpected from his birth, who had ſought popularity merely becauſe he had failed in ſome intrigues with the miniſtry; while thoſe who poſſeſſed any humanity, abhorred him as the avowed inſtigator of Jourdan-le-coupe-tête at Avignon. As a general his character was in ſtill leſs repute: his ſervice in La Vendée in 1793 being uniformly unſucceſsful, was received as a proof of his incapacity; and during the conteſts in Paris in 1795, his conduct was ſo wavering as to occaſion ſome, though perhaps unjuſt, ſuſpicions of his cowardice. As a man, his character was diſfigured by all the traits which licentiouſneſs can ſupply, whether in manners, religion, or morality; and he conſummated them all by a ſolemn profeſſion of the Mahometan faith, the adoption of Turkiſh habiliments and manners, by changing his baptiſmal, for a Mahometan name, that of Abdallah, and by a marriage with a woman of the Turkiſh religion. The French, it is true, cared little for religious faith, but their indifference was far from encouraging any preference. They did not deſpiſe Chriſtianity becauſe they reverenced Mahometaniſm, and, even in their mouths, the word renegade, accompanying the name of their general, would be pronounced with as much contempt and diſguſt as thoſe of deſerter, intriguer, or coward, with which they conceived themſelves equally intitled to brand him.

Although at his firſt acceſſion to authority Menou was known not to have been cordially attached to Kleber, but, on the contrary, was ſuppoſed to have circulated calumniatory reports concerning him, yet as he ſucceeded to his ſituation by indiſputable right, the army acquieſced in his elevation. Menou had at firſt the dexterity not to diſplay his real character and temper; when the command was offered he refuſed it, alleging thoſe very circumſtances which he knew would be afterwards advanced againſt him by others; his inexperience in military affairs, his little acquaintance with the troops, and, above all, the prejudices which might be entertained againſt him on account of having changed his religion. Theſe objections were, as he knew they muſt be, overruled by reference to the eſtabliſhed cuſtom, that on ſuch occaſions the ſenior military officer ſhould aſſume the command proviſionally till freſh orders were received from government at home.

When Menou yielded to theſe arguments, he continued for a time to conduct himſelf with great caution, appearing anxious to gain the good will of every one. He received the generals and heads of the different departments with at-

tention, paid them frequent visits, and seemed even to anticipate their counsels, and their wishes. Soon, however, his conduct changed; little low intrigues began to operate; the fame of Kleber was assailed by obscure insinuations, and his plans changed for the worse.

The new commander ostentatiously announcing an intention to preserve the dominion of Egypt to France, affected to be considered as the head of a party, who were termed the Colonists, in opposition to another supposed faction, whom he called the Anti-colonists. Sensible that he was not qualified, especially after such generals as Bonaparte and Kleber, to gain a great military reputation, he affected the statesman and reformer; declaimed in favour of morality and probity; inveighed against dilapidations and abuses, which he promised utterly to suppress; engaged to maintain the full and punctual pay of the troops; and with great ostentation established a commission to superintend the making of bread. He assumed too a greater stateliness and reserve in his manners toward the officers, omitting to ask their advice or assistance, receiving them with an appearance of intense application, and amidst bundles of papers, and, in fact, bending his general endeavour rather to secure a certain number of partizans, than to conciliate the general good will of all who served under him. By these means the officers, who, during the stay of Bonaparte, had never manifested any differences of opinion, and who under the command of Kleber had perhaps not entertained any, were now split into factions, each promoting some separate opinion or interest, fostering mutual hate into absolute rancour, and cherishing that distrust and want of confidence, which afterward, among other causes, contributed to their defeat and expulsion from Egypt.

Unfortunately perhaps for Menou, Egypt was, for some time after he gained the command, free from the fear of any enemy, for such an alarm would have abated his confidence in himself, obliged him to conciliate the other generals, kept in subjection his malignant passions, and restrained his desire of innovation. His troops were protected by the inundation of the Nile from attack, and the army of the Vizier, and the dispersed forces of the Mamalouks were not considered at all formidable; the inhabitants of Egypt were tranquil, and the contributions regularly paid; and the principal tribes of Arabs were reduced to obedience, dispersed in the desert, or scattered among the villages. Menou, however, in this state made some useless and some absurd military movements, displacing the flying bridges over the Nile, changing, under the notion of relieving them, the garrisons of Alexandria, Rosetta, and Rahmanieh, and repelling the advances of some Arab chiefs, who might have rendered him essential services.

In this interval the general extended his attempts at reform to all points of government and finance. Instead of adhering to the old mode of investing the sheiks in every village with shawls, pelisses, or other insignia of office, which long usage had rendered popular, and which the pride and gratitude

gratitude of thoſe people, who always returned gifts of diſproportioned value, rendered profitable, Menou appointed a new officer, under the name of director and accountant general, and head of the municipal authority in Egypt. The ſheiks, whenever they were terrified or diſguſted with the government, were accuſtomed to abandon their villages, prevailing on the inhabitants to deſert with them, and ſometimes even to riſe in arms; hence, therefore, this officer being obliged to correſpond with all the ſheiks, could by an abuſe of his power raiſe inſurrections in all parts of the country at the ſame moment, while government would not entertain the leaſt ſuſpicion of his deſign; to add to the imprudence, this office was intruſted to a ſheik of Cairo, who had twice before betrayed the confidence repoſed in him by the French. Menou alſo created a director and accountant general of the revenues; appointed directors and ſubordinate officers in greater number, and with larger ſalaries than had been aſſigned to them by his predeceſſor; iſſued decrees relative to foreign commerce; impoſed a ſtamp duty on gold and ſilver; augmented the committee of adminiſtration which Kleber had formed, by the addition of ſeveral members; but afterwards ſuppreſſed it, and ſubſtituted a ſelect council of forty or fifty members too numerous to act, and too dangerous to be allowed to debate. Even the officers ſelected to compoſe it repreſented the probability that it would occaſion mutiny and diſaffection in the army, and Menou himſelf terrified at the proſpect, rendered the appointment a nullity by perpetual poſtponements of the day of ſitting. He diſguſted the Arabs, and drove them into a contraband ſyſtem by vexatious and difficult regulations on the trade with Syria. For the encouragement of Greek veſſels, Kleber had granted exemptions from duties, and premiums on the importation of certain neceſſary articles; but Menou, with an ill-judged parſimony, ſubſtituted printed papers, containing promiſes of protection which he was not able to afford, and offended the traders by heavy duties, and rigorous regulations. Several ports and marts were utterly ruined by his injudicious innovations, and internal commerce was relaxed by oppreſſive duties. Confidence was again ſuppreſſed, proviſions were ſparingly ſupplied and at an advanced price, and the troops who received money as an indemnity for their rations were diſtreſſed and diſſatisfied.

The divan of Cairo formed by Bonaparte had been diſſolved after the convention of El Ariſh, and Kleber had refuſed to reſtore it until the fine levied on the city for its revolt ſhould have been paid. When that object was attained, it was conſidered politic to reſtore the divan, as it would inure the people to buſineſs, and make them regard themſelves as of conſequence in the ſtate; and it was intended to form alſo a tribunal of appeal, which would have rectified the errors and partialities in the Turkiſh adminiſtration of juſtice. In the compoſition of his divan, Bonaparte had included men of all religions, foreſeeing how uſeful it would be to him to obliterate the ſtrong influence on national

national character which was produced by the perpetual preference of one faith. Menou on the contrary, with the characteriſtic indiſcretion of a proſelyte, when he recompoſed the divan, excluded all but muſſulmen. He introduced ſeveral novelties in the adminiſtration of law, which are more juſtly cenſured as being too haſtily eſtabliſhed, than for being fundamentally wrong. Among theſe was the abolition of an old practice, called the *dieh*, or compoſition for blood, which was not only conſecrated by cuſtom, but allowed in the Koran. It is in itſelf repugnant to every principle of civilized regulation, but in that country it was found uſeful in the repreſſion of a ſanguinary ſpirit of revenge, which could in no other way be appeaſed; not even by the execution of the offender, for vengeance was ſought from his kin, or from the village where he happened to reſide. Such a principle would have yielded to time and inſtruction, but no good effect was to be hoped from a haſty alteration by a mere edict.

While therefore both commerce and juriſprudence were burthened by the indiſcreet regulations of the general, which kept the treaſury empty, and multiplied appeals; he offended and diſguſted the French by extending to their effects a tax on ſucceſſions to the property of individuals deceaſed, inciting the natives to farm this impoſition at a high price, by reminding them of the large fines they would receive on the death of any of the generals or other great officers. To complete the meaſure of his financial errors, he laid a heavy tax on corporations, which the trading cities, after the repeated plunder of their ſtores, were unable to pay, and therefore the greater part of merchants deſerted their commerce; and with equal imprudence he impoſed particular duties on every nation, according to its mode of worſhip. The copts he conſidered as foreigners, and taxed them accordingly; the poll tax, which bore ſo heavy on Chriſtians under the Turkiſh adminiſtration, was not remitted, or even diminiſhed; the Syrians, who had loſt a great portion of property at the taking of Boulac, who had before paid heavy contributions to the Turkiſh government during the ſiege of Cairo, and to whom Kleber had promiſed indemnifications, were oppreſſed by a requiſition of 500,000 livres, and their poll tax was fixed at 150,000; the Greeks, notwithſtanding their zeal in aiding the French, were haraſſed with a demand of 50,000; the Jews were alſo very heavily rated, and the franks, who had been plundered, and reduced to the extremity of miſery during the ſiege of Cairo, were aſſeſſed at 40,000 livres. It was alſo announced that the eſtabliſhments which Frenchmen were forming in the hope of gaining profit by ſupplying the wants of the army, would ſoon be ſubjected to heavy duties, and from that moment all their projects were abandoned.

At Kleber's death part of the contribution in money impoſed on Cairo, and the whole of that which was to be rendered in merchandize, remained unliquidated, and all theſe, beſide other ſupplies, came to the hands of Menou; but his perpetual projects of reform, while they profeſſed to be founded

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in economy, were profecuted with ſo little judgment, that the monthly expence of the army advanced from about 1,400,000 livres, to which it amounted in the time of Kleber, to nearly 1,800,000. The annual produce of Egypt was calculated by the director of the finances at 21,000,000 or 1,750,000 livres per month, with contributions in kind ſufficient for the ordinary conſumption of the army, and for forming magazines of reſerve; but the receipt of theſe ſupplies was never regular, nor could they be collected without great loſs. During the inundation no territorial impoſitions could be obtained; at all times the collection depended on the internal tranquillity of the country; for an attack, or even the menacing attitude of an enemy, by compelling the troops to concentrate, would be ſufficient to ſuſpend the receipts, eſpecially in a country where no government can obtain taxes without the aid of a military force. Theſe circumſtances ſtrongly indicated the neceſſity of economy, of a proper huſbandry of public money, and a cautious reſervation of prompt means for obtaining ſupplies in caſe of emergency; but Menou, as if he conſidered Egypt in his hands, guaranteed againſt every attack, not only ſquandered the reſources of the army, but by raiſing from the copts two forced loans within a few months after his acceſſion to power, deprived himſelf of a moſt eſſential reſerve, to which in moments of embarraſſment he might have reſorted with advantage.

As almoſt every extravagant perſon is injudiciouſly parſimonious in ſome point where a liberal expenditure would be conformable with prudence, ſuch was the caſe of Menou, who neglected the formation of magazines of reſerve for ſubſiſting the troops, diſcontinued the baking of biſcuits as too expenſive, and provided no ſtores in caſe of ſieges. The remonſtrances which were made againſt theſe departures from the plan of Kleber by Daure, the commiſſary general, induced Menou to obtain from him a reſignation of his office under promiſe of advancing him to a better, but afterwards to diſappoint his hopes by conferring on him one far inferior.

All theſe circumſtances had given great force to the diſſatisfaction which had before begun to prevail among the officers. At a former period of his command, Menou had given great offence to the party whom he ſtigmatized as anti-coloniſts by the haſty removal of General Damas, without notice and without aſſigning a reaſon. As the diſplaced general was known to be an intimate friend of Kleber, the party in oppoſition to Menou gained an advantage by aſcribing this act to his hatred and envy of the deceaſed general. The innovations made by Menou in every department ſoon increaſed their diſcontent; the troops ridiculed the language of his proclamations, which, by their continual declamations on morals and probity, ſeemed, they ſaid, as if addreſſed to an army profligate, and without honour; and the people of the country complained that a muſſulman general, from whom they had

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reaſon to expect ſo much, compelled them to regret the loſs of a Chriſtian chief.

As all theſe events had taken place while Menou was only proviſionally commander in chief, his authority not being confirmed by government, ſeveral generals of diviſion thought proper to remonſtrate with him on his conduct; and when at length he proceeded ſo far as to announce in the order of the day that diſſenſions prevailed in the army, Generals Reynier, Damas, Lanuſſe, Beliard, and Verdier ſought an explanation with him, which they conſidered imperiouſly due to their own characters, as well as to the general intereſts of an army which could not fail to be thrown into an additional ferment by the imprudent declaration of the general. The remonſtrating officers repreſented to him the tranquillity the army had enjoyed under its two preceding commanders, their regret at ſeeing the germs of diviſion ariſing among the troops, and ſtated that ſuch a change could be aſcribed to his conduct alone. The ſureſt mode of reſtoring harmony, they ſaid, would be to recall ſome orders, contrary to the general intereſt; to govern himſelf in future by the laws of the republic, with the aid of his chief officers; and, above all things, to baniſh all intrigues. They ſhewed the impropriety of many late acts, reprobated his innovations, and particularly inſiſted on the imprudence he had been guilty of in proclaiming Egypt a colony before it had been ſo declared by government; a mode of conduct contrary to the policy of Bonaparte and Kleber, calculated only to give inquietude to the Turks, whom it was their intereſt, and had for ſome time been their endeavour to conciliate. They adviſed him to be cautious in attempting innovations, to ſuppreſs the declamatory paragraphs in his orders of the day, and explained ſeveral points in which his conduct had been repugnant to military uſage, particularly in correſponding with the ſubalterns himſelf, and in removing perſons who had been appointed by government without bringing them to a court martial.

They alſo repreſented to him the propriety of promoting a ſubſcription for a monument to Kleber, and as a late arrival from France had brought orders for funeral ceremonies in honour of Deſaix, they adviſed that he ſhould unite them in one order of the day. Menou acknowledged the juſtice of ſome of their remonſtrances, and afterward promiſed to remove ſome of the cauſes of complaint; but when the funeral of Deſaix was celebrated, although the ceremony took place in ſight of Heliopolis, and of the field where Kleber had rendered ſo eſſential a ſervice to the army, his name was not mentioned, but the ceremony was ſtill and gloomy, unenlivened by any ſpeech which could animate the troops, and unadorned with any of thoſe diſplays of enthuſiaſm for which the French had ſo long endeavoured to make themſelves celebrated.

In fact Menou did yield to the repreſentation of his officers, ſo far as to repeal ſome of his injudicious acts, and to be more cautious with reſpect to innovations, but in a general

general view, he was merely temporizing. As he was obliged to ſend diſpatches to France, he wiſhed not to exaſperate them to ſuch a degree, that their repreſentations ſhould accompany his, and the narratives he thought proper to convey were probably the ſource of many errors both in opinion and conduct, which were diſcernible in the acts and proclamations of the French government. He complained of the difficulties of his ſituation, boaſted of the pains he had taken to introduce order into the civil adminiſtration and the finances; declared he made himſelf enemies only by preferring the general good to the intereſt of individuals; and announced his reſolution to maintain poſſeſſion of Egypt, although he encountered inceſſant difficulties from the party of Anticoloniſts. Having thus parried, by anticipation, the accuſations which might be made againſt him, he prepared reports to government of the tranſactions in Egypt. The events which happened in the life-time of Kleber, and which he had not written himſelf, were finiſhed by Damas, but Menou expunging almoſt every thing in the report relative to the ſtate of the army, and particularly with reſpect to the formation of auxiliary corps, gained the advantage of being able afterward to aſſume to himſelf the credit of that eſtabliſhment. He aſſerted, that the brilliant circumſtances of the army were due ſolely to his adminiſtration; and that the inhabitants of Egypt bleſt his reforms, and his juſtice. He deceived the government by falſe ſtatements of the reſources of the country, and of the expenditure they would cover, and by boaſting of fortifications, works, encouragements given the ſciences, journies, and reſearches of learned men, of all which things none exiſted in Egypt.

Before the writing of this diſpatch his confirmation in the command had been ſent from Paris, and ſoon after, it arrived; his letter, therefore, had not the effect of producing that appointment, but it ſecured him againſt all complaints which might be made, and by rendering government ſuſpicious of a party againſt him, prevented them from liſtening even to facts which the bearers of his letters could diſcloſe, and even them he took care individually to point out as objects of ſuſpicion. In fact, any repreſentations which the adverſaries of the general could make againſt him, on the ſubject with which they ſeemed moſt impreſſed, his injuſtice to the memory of Kleber, would rather have recommended him to Bonaparte than proved injurious to his intereſt. The Firſt Conſul was well apprifed of the real ſentiments of Kleber on his flight, and of the vengeance he had vowed againſt him, and therefore Menou was paying moſt effectual court at Paris, when he was guilty of acts moſt offenſive to the army in Egypt.

Thus then Menou, with all his faults of intellect, character, and conduct, was firmly fixed in the ſituation of commander in chief, and to his judgment and diſcretion were left all the means by which the French government hoped to retain this cheriſhed conqueſt againſt the efforts which were known to be in preparation for their expulſion. As it will

now

now become neceſſary more eſpecially to attend to the progreſs of thoſe efforts, it may ſuffice to obſerve of the French General, that no part of his conduct after he was confirmed in the command, tended to remove any unfavourable opinion he had previouſly excited. His retractions of error were inſufficient to atone for the ill effects they had already produced; he paid a tardy and ungracious funeral compliment to the memory of Kleber, and propoſed a ſubſcription for a monument, which he contrived, by underhand means, to prevent from filling; and his rancour againſt the officers who had remonſtrated againſt his conduct, continually increaſed, and, after venting itſelf, at firſt in indirect inſinuations againſt their characters and principles, produced effects conſiderably injurious to his army in the courſe of the enſuing campaign.

During the life of Kleber, the Turkiſh fleet, commanded by the Capitan Pacha, had appeared off Alexandria, for the purpoſe, as was ſuppoſed, of landing ſome men, but, in reality, of opening a negotiation for the evacuation of Egypt. As Kleber was then determined to reſiſt this propoſition, he would not ſuffer any agent of the Turks to land, but ſtill had hopes of commencing a treaty for the neutrality of the Porte, while the Engliſh ſhould, if they thought proper, contend ſingly with France for the poſſeſſion of the country. Diſpatches were alſo brought from the Grand Vizier and Sir Sidney Smith, announcing that their governments were ready to fulfil the terms of the treaty of El Ariſh, but the inſtructions given by Kleber were fulfilled after his death, and they were ſent back. The Capitan Pacha and the Grand Vizier were equally anxious to begin a negotiation with Menou, becauſe, if it relieved in any degree, the apprehenſions of the Turkiſh government, it muſt, as they imagined, procure him who had the good fortune to make it, great favour, they preſſed to be allowed to negotiate, and had they been dextrouſly managed, might, it was ſuppoſed, have ſecured to France the deſirable object of Turkiſh neutrality, or at leaſt have planted ſome diſſenſion between the Turks and the Engliſh; but Menou roughly and laconically anſwering, that for all arrangements relative to Egypt, they muſt apply to the government at Paris, the Turks conſidering ſuch a declaration as an abſolute refuſal to treat, deſiſted from further application.

The preparations made by the Porte for co-operating with Great Britain in the recovery of Egypt, were marked with heſitation, doubt, and delay. The ſtate of the government at Conſtantinople, too feeble to ſuſtain its own authority againſt the numerous inſurrections and outrages of various military bodies, and even of individuals, was ſufficient to account for its tardineſs in preparation. The defeat and ſevere loſſes ſuſtained by the Vizier, increaſed the difficulty, by abating the confidence both of the government and the people, and the diſunion, which at the beginning of the year, was evident between the miniſters of England and Ruſſia, contributed to the embarraſſments of the Turkiſh council. The French had therefore many advantages for negotiating, but

but fortunately, the desire to recover the invaded territory by force was sufficiently prevalent with the Sultan to prevent the proceedings on his part which would have enabled France to repair the indiscretions of Menou, and have suspended exertion by means of treaty. In this point indeed, the delusion occasioned by their General's dispatches, and by the reports of those who brought them, was doubly injurious to France, by inspiring a confidence which circumstances did not entirely justify, and a contempt of precaution, which no situation can altogether excuse. The wealth, industry, strength, popularity, and general unanimity of the troops were so loudly vaunted; the accession of force already gained, and further to be expected from the good will of the natives was so exaggerated; the disadvantages which must attend an invading army were so ostentatiously displayed; and the certainty of a disunion between the allied powers was so forcibly deduced, that some errors in calculation were almost inevitable.

The French government was further lulled into confidence in their success by the fortunate circumstance of some supplies and reinforcements reaching their destination in safety. These were embarked on board two frigates, la Justice, and l'Egyptienne, and arrived after a voyage of ten days from Toulon, conveying, according to the French accounts, 15,000 muskets, 60,000 cannon balls, and 500 picked men, of whom 100 were artillerymen of the line. Several other arrivals were also announced, and the consular government, exulting in this success, published in its official paper, a philippic against the infatuation of the English ministry. The principal motive, it was said, which they alleged for refusing a naval armistice, was that the French intended sending into Egypt 1200 men, and six frigates, and they had refused to comply with Otto's request, that six Savans might have passports to return. What was the result? In the course of the winter, more ammunition and men had entered the ports of Alexandria and Damietta than six frigates could have conveyed; and of the six Savans, three had arrived, and the other three were not ready to depart from Egypt.

Feb. 5.

The army of the Grand Vizier was represented in a most deplorable condition, reduced by desertion and the plague to not more than 10,000 men, and those in a state of absolute famine, supported principally by means of grain which the Arabs smuggled from Egypt, but the arrival of which in future, the French would take care to prevent, and in fact some sallies and skirmishes did take place between the parties. The exertions of the Porte, it was said, might raise this army to 20,000, at the utmost, but they would enter the field with a full determination to run away on the least shew of resistance.

A body of English troops under Sir Ralph Abercomby was known to be destined to attempt the recovery of Egypt; their number was ascertained by the French with minute exactness, and the circumstances of their condition were pretty accurately disclosed. The

French

French alſo publiſhed, that which has ſince been frequently repeated, that at an early period of the year, the Britiſh miniſtry, alarmed at the appearance of affairs in Europe, particularly at the northern confederacy, and diſguſted with the apparent tardineſs of the Court of Conſtantinople, tranſmitted orders to Sir Ralph Abercromby to deſiſt from the expedition, but they arrived too late to be executed.

The conteſt for Egypt then was deſtined to be maintained between the French, aided by the corps of natives, which they had formed and diſciplined, fortified by the poſſeſſion and knowledge of the country; and ſuſtained by a large cavalry and ſufficient number of camels; the Engliſh, deſtitute of all theſe advantages, deficient in acquaintance with the ſcene of their efforts, and unprovided with cavalry; but maſters of the ſea, and expecting a large reinforcement from India, and aided by the army of the Grand Vizier, which, however, it was well known both to French and Engliſh, would not advance into action, unleſs ſucceſs crowned the firſt efforts of the Britiſh troops, nor indeed until their aſcendancy in ſome quarter of Egypt was confirmed by repeated victories.

The numbers engaged on each ſide are not eaſily to be aſcertained amid accounts equally poſitive and contradictory; but the moſt rational ſtatement appears to be, that in the whole extent of Egypt, the French had 28,000 fighting men, including the native troops. The Engliſh, at the beginning of the campaign, had in groſs numbers 16,599, but the effective force, making proper deductions for ſick, and thoſe left on board ſhip for neceſſary purpoſes, did not exceed 12,000. Their labours were however alleviated by the aid of ſailors and marines from the fleet, and reinforcements arrived at various periods of the campaign. The force expected from India was 6000 men, and of theſe 5,666 actually arrived, but not ſufficiently early to aſſiſt in the campaign. To theſe were added Turks, commanded by the Capitan Pacha, and Mamelouks, who at a late period joined them, amounting together to more than 6000. The army of the Grand Vizier, when proſperity had encouraged the natives to join him, conſiderably exceeded 20,000 men, but although their ſtate was not quite ſo deplorable as it was deſcribed to, and reported by, the French government, yet, from inſubordination, terror, and jealouſy, this army was an inſtrument difficult to work, and unſafe to rely on. As theſe forces did not come into action at the beginning of the campaign, it reſted on the Britiſh alone, to ſecure the firſt poſitions neceſſary to the recovery of Egypt, and their operations are firſt and moſt eſſentially to engage the attention of the reader.

CHAP.

CHAP. XIV.

Deſtination of Britiſh Troops, under Sir Ralph Abercromby, to act againſt Egypt; they proceed from Gibraltar to Malta; and to the Coaſt of Aſia Minor; reaſons for this deviation; they reach the Bay of Marmorice; diſappointment in reſpect of Horſes and Gun-Boats; increaſing difficulties of the Enterprize; departure from Marmorice; arrival off Alexandria; fate of Major Makarras and Major Fletcher; inſtructions given by Sir Ralph Abercromby to his Troops. State of the French; prevalence of Faction; injudicious conduct of Menou; arrival of La Regenerée and the Lodi with Reinforcements; Proclamation of Menou; preparations to oppoſe a Landing. Britiſh Officers reconnoitre the Shore; order of Landing; Batteries raiſed by the French on the Sand Hills; circumſtances attending the Landing; loſs on both Sides. More Troops landed; Fort Aboukir ſummoned; Water diſcovered in plenty; the Troops hutted; the Horſes arrive; advantages derived from Lake Aboukir. Sir Ralph Abercromby advances; Action of the Thirteenth of March; great loſs on the ſide of the Engliſh, who take a new Poſition; deſcription of it; meaſures taken for Defence; and Accommodation; the Arabs ſupply the Engliſh with Proviſions; Surrender of Fort Aboukir. Skirmiſh of Cavalry attended with loſs. Five hundred Turks under the Capitan Pacha join the Britiſh Army. State of the French; their uncertainty as to paſt Events; orders ſent by Menou to General Roize at Demanhour; method of conveying Intelligence into Alexandria; General Reynier returns to Cairo; Menou reaches Alexandria; ſituation of Affairs; plan of an attack on the Engliſh Poſition. Sir Ralph Abercromby apprized of the arrival, but not the deſigns of the French; their attack on the Twenty-firſt of March; the Engliſh prepared; progreſs of the Action; the Invincible Legion deſtroyed; reſolute Aſſault by the French Cavalry; repulſed; the French intirely defeated; loſs of the French; the Standard of the Invincible Legion taken; loſs of the Engliſh; death of Sir Ralph Abercromby; his Character; Eulogy on him by General Hutchinſon.

October 1800. SOON after the ſurrender of Malta to the Britiſh forces, orders were received from government for the armies under Sir Ralph Abercromby and Sir James Pulteney to ſeparate, the larger force remaining under the former officer, and being deſtined for an expedition then undiſcloſed, but which both the opinions and hopes of the army directed to Egypt. At the time of receiving their orders the Britiſh troops were at Gibraltar, indiſpoſed by a long continuance at ſea, during weather as ſevere as ever was experienced, and dejected in mind by a ſeries of diſappointments and unmerited failures; yet the courage of the troops was never for a moment depreſſed; they had in fact every reaſon for confidence; they were the flower of the army, and their officers eſteemed and beloved by them all, and in perfect harmony with each other. While part of the force proceeded to Minorca, where they were to meet

Lord Keith; the reſidue, with Sir Ralph Abercromby, went directly to Malta, where they were ſoon joined by the party who had been at Minorca, and the noble Admiral. A ſhort period paſſed in this iſland, having ſerved to repleniſh the ſtores, and to cheer the men by a momentary relaxation on ſhore, after ſo long a confinement on board ſhip, the fleet proceeded to the coaſt of Aſia Minor.

Dec. 14.

The reaſon for making this digreſſion, inſtead of proceeding directly to Egypt, was, that the Turks had promiſed, on that condition, to furniſh gun-boats, horſes to mount the cavalry, and a reinforcement of troops. Their failure in theſe promiſes, while both the Capitan Pacha and the Grand Vizier were endeavouring to negotiate with the French, proved how little reliance was to be placed on them if the Britiſh troops were unſucceſsful, and how inexpert Menou had proved himſelf in terminating ſo abruptly the conference they were ſo anxious to continue. In this paſſage toward the coaſt of Aſia Minor it was that Lord Keith fell in with ſome polacres, coming from Alexandria, laden with rice, on board one of which was the horribly celebrated Tallien, who was ſent priſoner to England, but allowed to return to his own country.

January 1801.

It was the original intention of Lord Keith to make his rendezvous in the Bay of Macri, but that being too open, and Rhodes incapable of admitting ſhips of war, he diſcovered by reconnoitring, the Bay of Marmorice, one of the fineſt harbours in the world, the entrance of which was ſo narrow and retired, that it could not be perceived till within a cable's length of the coaſt. In this excellent harbour the veſſels were ſuddenly embayed by mountains, which formed the grandeſt ſcenery imaginable, and ſailing in ſmooth water, although the inſtant before they had been labouring in a heavy gale of wind, and rolling about in a tremendous ſea. At this place the ſick were landed and encamped, for the town could afford no accommodation; regiments were ſucceſſively brought on ſhore, and practiſed the manœuvres requiſite in their next attempt; the ſhips were cleaned, and the officers employed themſelves in purchaſing horſes, expecting from Conſtantinople thoſe on which the men were to be mounted. Theſe cattle at length arrived, and ſevere was the diſappointment, when, inſtead of thoſe admirable breeds, for which Turkey is famous, they received only ſome hundred animals, naturally ſo bad, and in condition ſo wretched, that the dragoons felt humiliation in being ordered to take charge of them. With difficulty, and with diſguſt, two hundred were ſelected for the cavalry, and fifty for the artillery, the reſidue being ſhot as unfit for ſervice, or ſold for a dollar a piece. The aſſiſtance to be derived from the Turks was limited to a few gun-boats; the reports from the camp of the Grand Vizier and the non-arrival of the Capitan Pacha evidently proving that a long time muſt elapſe before the aid of either could be expected, if indeed it was ever ſeriouſly intended.

Thus diſappointed in the hope of ſupply and co-operation, the Britiſh

British army had the further mortification to learn, that the French force greatly exceeded the amount which government had been led to expect they would be exposed to encounter. The escape of two frigates into Alexandria alarmed them lest reinforcements should continue to be received, and the difficulty of their undertaking augmented. The resolution immediately to proceed in the enterprize was therefore adopted, although the persons best acquainted with the coast insisted that it would be madness to attempt a disembarkation till after the equinox, and although the generals were totally devoid of topographical information respecting Egypt; unable to procure any assistant whom they could depend on, and having only one map, which was, in all particulars, incorrect. Their only guide present was Sir Sidney Smith, who knew some portion of the coast, but not the interior; and the only information on which they could rely was that gleaned by Capt. Boyle, who had been detained prisoner among the French, and that of Mr. Baldwin, who, before the French invasion, had been the British Consul at Alexandria.

Feb. 17. Notwithstanding these discouragements, Sir Ralph Abercromby assembled all the general officers on board the Kent, explained his intentions, and gave his final instructions, among the strongest of which was, a charge to be particularly careful of water, as it was probable that a supply would not easily be obtained in the country to which they were destined. The embarkation was performed with the utmost speed, the horses being placed on board some vessels lately arrived from Smyrna; the fleet and transports were 175, and at the time of departure the British soldiers and sailors by their alacrity and shouts testified their joy at the probability of being soon engaged in a service honourable to themselves, and beneficial to their country.

Feb. 23 to 28. The weather, during the voyage, was as boisterous as reason had taught the leaders of the expedition to expect; the Greek vessels, on board which the cattle were stowed, badly manned, and ill equipped for sea, some of them having neither quadrant nor log, were incapable of beating up with the men of war and transports. One, laden with mules, foundered, and most of the others separated from the fleet, carrying with them the greater portion of the cavalry and artillery horses.

Mar. 1. After enduring these calamities a week, the ships came in sight of Alexandria, but the weather did not yet permit an attempt to land. The troops also received the discouraging intelligence of the disastrous fate of two brave officers. Majors Makarras and Fletcher, of the engineers, had been sent in the Penelope, before the fleet sailed from Marmorice, to reconnoitre the coast; but when off Alexandria they got into the Peterell, and in her boat, in the night of the 27th of February, proceeded into Aboukir Bay, in order to discover the proper point of landing. In vain was Major Makarras advised not to penetrate too far into the bay, he advanced, and even landed; but at the dawn of day, as

he was returning, a French gun-boat, full of ſoldiers, from Lake Maadie, appeared to windward, and bore down, firing from her carronade and ſmall arms: a ſhot ſoon diſabled the Engliſh boat from continuing ſail; and a muſket ball having killed Major Makarras, the maſter of the boat, ſurrendered. Major Fletcher and the boat's crew were carried priſoners into Alexandria, and thence ſent to Cairo. By this event, the point where a landing would be attempted became as effectually aſcertained to the French, as it was to the Engliſh troops. The Britiſh general had indeed been adviſed to diſembark at Jaffa, but on mature conſideration rejected the council. The difficulty of paſſing the deſart with inexperienced troops, the ſtate of the Vizier's army, and many other circumſtances, formed, in his mind, inſuperable objections to ſuch a plan. It is to be obſerved too, that till the laſt moment, Sir Ralph Abercromby was unacquainted with the real force of the enemy; he knew it to exceed that which had been ſtated as its amount by the Engliſh government, but ſtill his intelligence was ſo defective, that he eſtimated it only at 10,000 French, and 5000 auxilaries.

Mar. 1 to 8. For another week continual tempeſts prevented every attempt to land the troops. Excellent general orders for their conduct on this occaſion, and for their general regulation had been iſſued by Sir Ralph Abercromby before he left Marmorice. The troops were inſtructed to get into the flat-boats with the utmoſt expedition; and in good order; to ſit in profound ſilence while they were rowed to ſhore; their pieces were not to be loaded till they ſhould have formed after landing, and rules were laid down for preventing confuſion at a moment ſo important. The general then paid a high and well merited compliment to their behaviour at Marmorice, where they had inſpired the natives with the unuſual ſentiment of eſteem and regard for Chriſtians, and he ſtrictly commanded that they ſhould pay the moſt ſcrupulous reſpect to the manners, cuſtoms, and religious opinions of the people of Egypt.

While the Britiſh expedition was thus ſtruggling againſt adverſe circumſtances, and endeavouring by prudence to gain ſucceſs, the diviſions in the French army raged with unreſtrained fury, and the din of faction, as well as his own indiſcretion, prevented Menou from turning to the beſt account the many advantages he poſſeſſed. By his harſhneſs, inſolence, and ſuſpicious temper, he diſguſted and offended many of the Beys, whom he might elſe have retained, at leaſt, in bonds of neutrality; the plague began to ſhew itſelf in Cairo, yet he refuſed to adopt the neceſſary precautions for ſecuring his troops from its contagion; his innovations, at once increaſing expence, diminiſhing and retarding receipt, and anticipating reſources, emptied his treaſury; and the magazines were neglected, and inadequately ſupplied. Yet the French force was more than amply ſufficient had it been prudently directed to reſiſt every attempt which could be made againſt it, and at the very moment when the

Engliſh fleet appeared, Menou's army was cheered by the proſperous arrival of La Regenerée, and the Lodi. La Regenerée, which had by ſome means got into the midſt of the Britiſh fleet before it reached the ſhores of Egypt, by the admirable dexterity of the commander, ſailed with it undetected, till the moment arrived when he could, without fear of purſuit, puſh for the port of Alexandria. The Lodi further encouraged the French army by bringing advice that a reinforcement of nearly 4000 men had ſailed under Gantheaume; but theſe troops, as already has been ſhewn, failed in reaching the point of their deſtination.

The appearance of the Engliſh fleet was known at Cairo on the 4th of March, and the general officers adviſed Menou to concentrate his troops. They repreſented that, from the concurrent information of all reports, the Vizier's army was not yet in motion, or at leaſt not in a ſtate to occaſion any alarm. Aboukir was the only point on the coaſt at which a landing could be attempted, becauſe in that road only the fleet could find ſhelter, and the whole army expected to march toward the coaſt. Menou, however, alarmed at dangers which theſe generals overlooked, jealous of their unſolicited advice, or deceived by ſome ſpeculation on the improbability of the attempt being made where it ſeemed to be intended, would not even diſpatch veſſels to watch the movements of the Engliſh, but aſſigned to the various generals ſcenes of ſervice far diſtant from thoſe which they judged moſt eligible. One of them wrote a long letter, ſtating his reaſons for diſapproving the plan of his commander in chief, but received only a laconic anſwer, importing that his determination was inflexible. Menou addreſſed a proclamation to the inhabitants of Egypt, in which, after a bombaſtic boaſt that the ſword of God's angel always ſhone before the French troops, and deſtroyed their enemies; and that if the Engliſh ſet foot on ſhore they ſhould be thrown into the ſea, he proceeded in theſe terms. "The "Oſmanlis, inſtigated by the Eng- "liſh, are alſo moving, if they "advance they ſhall be reduced "into duſt, and the deſert will "ſwallow them up. You, in- "habitants of Egypt and of Cairo, "I tell you, that if you behave "as men ought to do, who fear "God, if you remain quiet at "home, minding your own buſi- "neſs, as uſual, you have no- "thing to fear. But I warn you "alſo, that in caſe any one among "you ſhall dare to bring on diſ- "turbances by revolting againſt "the French government, I ſwear, "in the name of God and of his "prophet, his head ſhall be cut "off that inſtant. Remember "well what happened during the "laſt ſiege of Cairo—the blood "of your fathers, of your chil- "dren, of your wives, has ſtream- "ed all over Egypt, and chiefly "in the city of Cairo. Your "properties have been plundered, "and laid waſte; enormous ex- "traordinary taxes have been "levied upon you. Mind ſeri- "ouſly what I have told you."

The force on which Menou relied to prevent the landing amounted to upward of 2000 men

under General Friant; they had fifteen pieces of cannon, and while the Engliſh were by the elements prevented from landing, the enemy were ſeen diligently employed in throwing up works on the ſand hills.

It was not till the 6th of March that the wind at all abated, but even then the ſwell of the ſea, and the fierceneſs of the ſurf, prevented all attempts to land; but Sir Sidney Smith, always anxious to be actively employed, went in ſhore with two armed launches to attack a French gun-boat, which had ſtationed itſelf at the entrance of Lake Maadie, or Aboukir. It was ſoon abandoned, and Sir Sidney, having thrown the gun into the lake, and otherwiſe diſmantled the boat, came off with a French corporal of artillery, whom he had taken priſoner, and an Arab, who had been employed on the lake as a ferryman, but he could afford no uſeful information. On the 7th the weather continuing fair, and the ſea tranquillizing by degrees, the general went in a boat to reconnoitre the ſhore, and fixed his plan for attempting a landing on the morrow. The ſmall tranſports were employed in carrying troops from the larger veſſels, and working in with them to the ſhore; the launches and gun-boats appointed to cover the landing repaired to the Tartarus bomb, and, in the evening, a ſignal directed that all boats ſhould be in readineſs by two o'clock next morning.

Mar. 8. At the hour appointed, the wind continuing moderate, the firſt diviſion of the army, under the command of Major General Coote, got into the boats, which at three proceeded to the rendezvous near the brig Mondovi, about gun ſhot from the ſhore; but they were not properly arranged, and in readineſs for ſtarting together, till nine o'clock. Their right flank was protected by the Cruelle cutter, the Dangereuſe and Janiſſary gun-veſſels, and two launches; the left by the Entreprenant cutter, the Malta ſchooner, the Negreſſe gun-veſſel, and the other launches. The Tartarus and Fury bomb-veſſels were ſo ſtationed as, in ſome meaſure, to cover the landing with their fire; the Peterell, Camelion, and Minorca were moored with their broadſides towards the ſhore. Sir Sidney Smith, with a detachment of 350 ſeamen, and Captains Biboleau, Guion, Saville, Burn, and Hillyar were directed to co-operate with the troops on ſhore, and 112 artillerymen had charge of the launches which carried their field pieces and their ammunition.

At nine o'clock, on a ſignal made by Captain Cochrane, who commanded them, the boats moved forward at the ſame inſtant, and, with prodigious vigour, rowed towards the place of landing, which was but of ſmall extent, under, and oppoſite to, a ſand hill of about 160 feet in perpendicular altitude. On this and the adjoining ſand hills the French occupied a poſition about a mile in length, and ſomewhat concave towards the bay of which it commanded a view. Its height, however, created dead or unſeen parts throughout almoſt the whole extent of its front; and as it had no batteries near the bottom to flank or ſcour the approaches, it was not ſo capable of defence as

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it might have been. Fort Aboukir and a blockhouſe with two guns were alſo relied on as defences, but the diſtance prevented them from being of great utility. As ſoon as the boats got under weigh, the armed veſſels, in order to cover the troops, commenced a heavy fire at the batteries of the enemy, who, on their part, threw a great number of ſhot and ſhells though with little effect; but as the boats advanced towards the ſhore, and approached the place of diſembarkation, the diſcharge of cannon, grape and muſketry, became truly tremendous. The ſoldiers were wedged cloſe to each other, fifty in a boat, ſitting with their muſkets between their knees, while the ſailors rowed with their accuſtomed ſpirit; but the tremendous roar, and aſtoniſhing diſcharge from the ſhore, were ſufficient to have created alarm in any boſoms where fear could find a place. The ſea was ploughed up by the ſhot, and the operation of ſo many arms on ſo ſmall a point has been compared by an eye witneſs to the effect of a violent hail ſtorm. A little diſorder and confuſion were occaſioned by three of the boats ſtriking and ſinking, but moſt of the men were ſaved by the cutters of the fleet, which were providently placed in the rear to remedy ſuch accidents. Almoſt all the reſidue of the boats reached the beach nearly at the ſame time, having ſuffered ſeverely from the fire of the enemy, which they could not return; and many men being put to the bayonet in the act of ſtepping out, by the enemy, who had come down to the water's edge, to receive them as they landed. The regiments formed as they got out of the boats, and loſt not a moment in advancing. The 23d regiment, and the four companies of the 40th, under the command of Colonel Spencer, advanced briſkly towards the principal ſand hill, and, according to the general orders, without attempting to fire a ſingle ſhot. The moment they got near it, and while they were aſcending, they were by the very nature of the ground covered and ſheltered from the fire of the enemy, who finding it, contrary to their expectation, incapable of affording ſecurity or preventing the approach of the Britiſh troops, loſt all confidence, and without making a vigorous reſiſtance, gave way almoſt as ſoon as the troops reached the ſummit, and were purſued till poſſeſſion was obtained of the two Nole hills in the rear, which commanded the plain on the left. The 42d regiment on landing had formed with almoſt as much regularity and order as if they had been on a parade, and advanced againſt the enemy's poſition, aſcending the heights with great rapidity. When they reached the ſummit, a body of 200 cavalry made a feeble attempt to charge them, but ſoon deſiſted with inconſiderable loſs, and in ſome confuſion. They rallied, however, under cover of the ſand hills, and ſallying ſuddenly from behind them, charged the guards before they were formed, occaſioning ſome diſorder, which was ſoon removed by the 58th, already formed on their right, who by their fire gave them time to form and preſent a front, and compelled the cavalry to retreat with conſiderable loſs. The 54th and royals, being in tranſport boats,

did not reach the ſhore quite ſo ſoon as the reſt of the troops, but landed providentially at the very inſtant when a column of ſix hundred French infantry was advancing through a hollow, or defile againſt the left flank of the guards, but ſeeing the additional troops who had landed, they were deterred from making the attack, and after firing a volley retired. The enemy obſerving the Engliſh to be in poſſeſſion of the heights, and General Coote advancing with the guards, and his brigade, quitted every point of their poſition, but kept up a ſcattered fire for about an hour and a half; after which the greater portion retired towards Alexandria, the reſt taking refuge in Aboukir.

The number of ſoldiers intended for this ſervice was 6000, but about 1200 were left behind for want of means to convey them. Thoſe who landed ſhewed the moſt determined valour, joined to the utmoſt regularity of diſcipline, and their efforts were admirably ſeconded by the ſailors, who, in every part, were equally active in the performance of the duties aſſigned to them. In deſcribing the events of the day, it is probable that writers, who were eye witneſſes of the fact, animated by the intereſt which attaches to ſuch a ſcene, may have uſed ſome phraſes which are rather exaggerated in ſtating the difficulties which were ſurmounted, and have deſcribed the nature of the obſtacles without ſufficient allowance for the grand military error the French committed, in reſting their chief hope of protection on batteries placed on the ſand hills; but Sir Ralph Abercromby, who came on ſhore at five o'clock in the afternoon, declared, in his general orders, that the gallant behaviour of the troops claimed the warmeſt praiſe he could beſtow, their conduct being equally marked by ardent bravery, coolneſs, regularity, and order. In his diſpatch to government too, he ſaid, their conduct exhibited an intrepidity ſcarcely to be paralleled. The loſs of the enemy is not aſcertained, but it is calculated at 400 in killed, wounded, and priſoners, beſides ſeven pieces of cannon, and a howitzer. On the ſide of the Engliſh 102 were killed, 515 wounded, and thirty-five miſſing, being thoſe who were drowned by the overſetting of the boats.

A great portion of the reſt of the army being landed, Sir Ralph Abercromby proceeded to a poſition nearly three miles diſtant, which he occupied with his right flank to the ſea, and his left to the lake Aboukir, called by the French Maadie. He alſo took poſſeſſion of the block-houſe on the tongue of land at the entrance of that lake, but not time enough to prevent eighty of the French from making their eſcape acroſs the ferry; and he left a party to reduce the fort of Aboukir, which, on being ſummoned, refuſed to ſurrender.

The day after the landing, the poſition of the army was advanced a ſhort way to an outpoſt of the enemy, which they abandoned, ſpiking and throwing over the work a twelve pounder, and deſtroying a large quantity of biſcuit and barley, which they had not time to carry away. During the whole day the wind prevented the land- Mar. 9.

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ing of ſtores and proviſions, but the troops carried with them three days allowance, and the fear of wanting water was agreeably relieved. Sir Sidney Smith had aſſerted, and it was confirmed by experiment, that where date trees grew that neceſſary element could not be wanting; and beſides, an Arab came and ſhewed a well which he had ſtopped up on the landing of the French, and never before diſcloſed; a moſt agreeable omen of the diſpoſition of the natives. Nor was the date tree alone uſeful, as it indicated where water might be found, for the landing of camp equipage not being yet ordered, the troops, not excepting the commander in chief, were tolerably ſheltered in huts made from its branches.

Mar. 10 and 11. On the enſuing days ſome ſkirmiſhes took place between the advanced poſts, and thirteen of the Corſican rangers, with Lieutenant Guittera, and Mr. Smith, their ſurgeon, were taken by a party of cavalry. In the courſe of the 10th the reſt of the troops came on ſhore. The Greek veſſels having rejoined the fleet, the army had alſo the ſatisfaction to ſee the horſes arrive and land, for theſe miſerable cattle, inſufficient and bad as they were, conſtituted for the preſent the only reſource. Proviſions, ſtores, and forage were alſo landed in abundance, an operation which could not have been ſo immediately effected, but for the vicinity of the poſition to Lake Aboukir. This lake is of a very modern date, having been formed by an irruption of the ſea ſo late as 1778. A ſtone dyke, the greater part of which is to this day ſtanding, was the only barrier which kept out the ſea from a plain much below its level, but this being broken down in a violent gale, the water ruſhing in deſtroyed ſeveral villages, and formed the preſent extenſive inundation. The kaliſch or canal of Alexandria divides it from the ſite of Lake Mareotis, which was almoſt every where dry, having no communication with the ſea. Lake Aboukir is navigable in moſt parts for boats and ſmall craft: it alſo abounds in excellent fiſh, eſpecially mullets, which afforded a welcome and plentiful ſupply to the army, the Arabs being glad to find ſo good and ready a market. Great advantages were derived from this lake; all the proviſion, ammunition, guns, and ſtores of every deſcription, were brought up with the greateſt facility in boats; but without this mode of conveyance the means of land carriage were ſo feeble, that the moment of action would probably have been loſt before ſupplies could arrive, as two or three hundred miſerable horſes or mules could be of little effective aſſiſtance in the heavy ſands of the peninſula. The lake was alſo of the greateſt ſervice in affording a harbour for the gun boats, which, excluſive of other advantages, added great ſecurity to the left flank of the army.

Mar. 11 to 13. After the neceſſary ſtores were brought on ſhore, an hoſpital eſtabliſhed on the beach, and a depot formed, Sir Ralph Abercromby, having ordered the troops to receive proviſions to the 14th inclusive, moved with the army to Mandora Tower, about four miles nearer to Alexandria, on the 12th,

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and about ſeven o'clock in the morning of the 13th marched to attack the enemy, who were poſted on a ridge of heights near that city. They had received a reinforcement of two demi-brigades of infantry, a regiment of cavalry from Cairo, and ſome other troops from Roſetta, which made their total force conſiſt of nearly 5400 foot, and ſix hundred horſe. They had alſo about twenty pieces of ordnance, and were on very commanding ground with a gradual ſlope in front which formed a ſort of glacis. As they refuſed their left, Sir Ralph Abercromby, in order to turn their right, marched the army in two lines and column of regiments from the left, the reſerve keeping parallel with the firſt, and covering the right of the movement. They had ſcarcely got out of the wood of date trees in front of Mandora Tower, when all the French cavalry, and a conſiderable body of their infantry, with ſeveral cannon, moving down by their right, commenced a heavy fire at the heads of both theſe lines, which were commanded by Major General Craddock and Major General the Earl of Cavan, but the ſteady fire, and great firmneſs of the Britiſh infantry, ſpeedily diſconcerted, and compelled them to retreat. A few only of their dragoons came to a cloſe action, who were bayonetted by the ninetieth regiment in attempting to break through their ranks. The firſt line now formed two to the front of march, and continued to advance in that order, while the ſecond, its firſt brigade excepted, continued in column, and turned the right of the French, compelling them to quit their poſition, and retreat acroſs the plain to their own lines on the heights before Alexandria. In this retreat they kept up a conſtant fire of muſketry and artillery, not oppoſing in line, but only as ſharp-ſhooters. The Britiſh troops followed but ſlowly, halting repeatedly for the cannon, which, for want of horſes, were, with much difficulty, dragged by ſailors along the burning ſands. During theſe intervals or ſtoppages, the enemy always galled the troops ſeverely with their flying artillery, removing, as ſoon as the Engliſh got again in motion, to ſome new poſition. Theſe operations continued till between eleven and twelve o'clock, and when the French reſumed their entrenched poſition on the heights, and the Britiſh troops halted in a long plain expoſed to the fire of their cannon; the men, in high ſpirits, and elated with ſucceſs, were impatient to proceed, but they were ordered to ſit down till it could be determined whether it was adviſeable to attack the poſition. Sir Ralph Abercromby, wiſhing to make the attempt, had advanced acroſs the plain, ordering General Hutchinſon, with the ſecond line, to move forward on the left to occupy a riſing ground, which projected into the plain; and Major General Moore, with the body of the reſerve, which had remained in column during all this time, to advance on the right, in order that both flanks of the enemy might be aſſaulted at once. General Hutchinſon detached the 44th regiment to diſlodge a body of French infantry and cavalry poſted at a bridge acroſs the canal at Alexandria, with two guns, which ſervice they performed with great gallantry,

gallantry, but were ſoon obliged to retreat, being expoſed to the fire of a number of pieces of cannon. This bridge lay in front of the riſing ground occupied by General Hutchinſon in the bottom between it and the right of the French poſition. The French had now began a general and well ſuſtained fire; the column under General Hutchinſon derived ſome ſhelter from its ſituation, and the reſerve under General Moore was protected by the uneven and broken ſurface of the ſoil; but the centre of the army remained altogether expoſed to a moſt deſtructive fire, during ſeveral hours of indeciſion and uncertainty, while Sir Ralph Abercromby was employed in reconnoitring. The work of death was never more quick, or greater opportunity afforded for deſtruction. The French, no longer in danger, had only to load and fire; aim was unneceſſary, the bullets plunged into the lines, and were ſure to take effect. At length the Britiſh General determined not to attempt forcing the French lines on the heights, ſuppoſing that were he to ſucceed he could not keep poſſeſſion, as they appeared to be commanded and looked into by forts Cretin and Caffarelli. The troops were therefore withdrawn to the poſition from which he had driven the enemy. The loſs in this affair was 156 killed, and 1081 wounded, of whom the greater part were incapable of further ſervice, having received their hurts from cannon balls. The loſs of the enemy was eſtimated at 700. The want of cavalry, and deficiency of artillery, were ſeverely felt through this whole day, as they took away the advantage the Engliſh muſt elſe have derived, if from nothing elſe, from their ſuperiority of numbers, which amounted to double thoſe of the French, being 14,000 againſt 7000. On the ſide of the Engliſh, however, were but 250 cavalry wretchedly mounted, while the French had ſix hundred, on excellent and remarkably well trained horſes; and their artillery comprized forty pieces, moſt of them curricle guns, oppoſed to a few heavy cannon, drawn laborioufly by men. The Commander in Chief did juſtice to the ſteadineſs and intrepidity of his troops by the ſtrongeſt expreſſions of approbation.

By this great exertion the Britiſh army gained a new poſition, which extended from the ſea on the right, to Lake Mareotis on the left. From the lake, a flat ground extended about a quarter of a mile, then a riſing ground about three quarters of a mile, then a valley about four hundred yards, from which the ground roſe for about four hundred yards further quite to the ſea. This laſt mentioned high ground projected towards Alexandria, and the French lines on the heights of Nicopolis, about a quarter of a mile in front of the reſt of the poſition; and on it were the ruins of a large old Roman erection, ſuppoſed to have been a palace. On this projecting eminence were poſted the 28th and 58th regiments, ſupported by the 23d, the 40th, the 42d, and the Corſican rangers. In the valley between this eminence and the high ground in the centre of the poſition were the cavalry of the reſerve, but ſomewhat in the rear. On their left, and on the central hill, were, firſt the guards, then,

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en echellon to them, the Royals, 92d, the second battalion of the 54th, and first of the 54th. From this central hill were placed also en echellon with these the 8th, 18th, 90th, and 13th, in succession towards the canal of Alexandria and Lake Mareotis; and at right angles to their left, and in the rear the lake and canal, the 27th, 79th, and 50th were posted. The second line was formed from the right by the Minorca, De Rolle's, Dillon's, the Queen's, the 44th, the 89th, the 30th, the dismounted cavalry of the 12th dragoons, the mounted part of this regiment, and the 26th. On the right of the position, nearly opposite to the front of the projecting eminence, on which are the old ruins, some gun-boats and armed vessels were stationed within 150 yards from the sea shore, under the command of Capt. Maitland. Two batteries were ordered to be constructed on the canal to defend the left of the position, the rear of which was protected by some armed launches, under Captain Hillyer, in Lake Aboukir.

Mar. 14. To secure this position, which nature rather than art had rendered strong, numbers of men were employed in throwing up works; several heavy guns and large supplies of ammunition were landed at the depots near the head of Lake Aboukir, and tents were also ordered for the troops, who before had no covering but their blankets, and great coats, although the nights had been very cold, (the thermometer being sometimes below fifty degrees,) and the exhalations arising from the ground very damp and chilly.

Mar. 15. The Arabs, convinced of the friendly disposition of the English towards them, ventured to come from the interior, bringing provisions in abundance, and some horses. Mr. Baldwin, formerly English Consul at Alexandria, and much respected by the natives, was appointed superintendant of the market, which, without his meritorious efforts and exertions, must have been irregularly and ill supplied.

Mar. 17. In five days from its first being invested, Aboukir castle, reduced almost to a heap of ruins, surrendered. The garrison, in number 190, were made prisoners of war, but the officers were permitted to keep their swords; the artillery was very good, most of the pieces being brass, which the French had carried with them to Egypt. On this event Lord Dalhousie, with the Queen's regiment, joined the army, the garrison duty at the fort being performed by a battalion of marines.

Mar. 18. On the ensuing day a skirmish took place between eighty of the English cavalry under Colonel Archdall, and a body of 150 French cavalry and infantry, which was observed reconnoitring on the canal of Alexandria, near the village of Bedah, under General D'Estin. The ill-judged ardour of the troops occasioned a loss of thirty-three men killed, wounded, and taken, and of forty-two horses; Colonel Archdall himself lost an arm. Sir Ralph Abercromby next day in public orders expressed disapprobation of this excessive impetuosity, which occasions loss and danger without promise of commensurate advantage,

advantage, and can never be neceſſary where courage is known to abound, and diſcipline alone is to be inforced and proved. No blame, however, could be imputed to Colonel Archdall, who was led into miſtake by conceiving that he had orders from Brigadier General Finch to attack. Diſcipline was the object neareſt to the heart of Sir Ralph Abercromby, and at this time he took the precaution of ordering the troops to be under arms from half an hour before, till half an hour after, day-break; a regulation which, as will ſhortly be ſeen, proved of the utmoſt importance to the army.

Mar. 19. Fortune had now ſhewn herſelf ſufficiently attached to the Britiſh arms to remove ſome portion of the fears entertained by the Turks, for on this day 500 of them were landed from the ſhip of the Capitan Pacha, and two other veſſels which arrived with him at Aboukir, and encamped near the depot. A further junction of 5 or 6000 was alſo promiſed.

At this period too the Engliſh began to be ſenſible, both from information, and the failure of the market, that ſome movement was made by the French. The intelligence that a diſembarkation was effected reached Cairo on the 11th, and the army in general were ſenſible of the miſtake which Menou had made in not proceeding immediately on hearing the fleet was in ſight with a great force to Aboukir. They alſo learnt that the Grand Vizier was encamped at Yabneh; that he was expected at El Ariſh, and prepared to paſs the deſert. It was impoſſible to know whether there would yet be time to attack the Engliſh, and return to the frontier of Syria before his arrival; and news were received that a part of the Engliſh fleet from India was already arrived in the Red Sea. The French were further embarraſſed by an uncertainty whether Alexandria might not have been attacked and carried by a coup-de-main, or what loſs their troops had ſuſtained, and they knew the city was not in a condition to hold out a week againſt a regular attack. All theſe circumſtances ſhewed the neceſſity of aſſembling, with the utmoſt ſpeed, a conſiderable force; of evacuating ſeveral poſts, and leaving only feeble detachments in thoſe which it was thought requiſite to retain. The ſpirit of faction which prevailed in the French army ſtill exerted its baleful influence: Menou ſeemed rather to perceive what was right, and decline it, than to follow his own judgment; and the generals in oppoſition to him, particularly Reynier, ſeem to have been anxious, by all means, to make his ſituation additionally uneaſy. Menou directed all the horſe at Cairo to march to Demanhour to be placed under the direction of Roize, and inſtructed him to keep reconnoitring parties continually employed in the neighbourhood of Alexandria, a meaſure which he ſaid might be purſued without fear, as the Engliſh had no cavalry. He alſo ordered that all poſſible means ſhould be uſed to inform General Friant, who commanded at Alexandria, of his intention to come from Cairo into that quarter. The natives were to be employed to carry in, as they could, a billet in theſe words: "The General in

"Chief

"Chief is coming with the ar-
"my," and a detachment of ca-
valry was to be furniſhed with more explicit details of the force intended to ſuccour the city, which was to conſiſt of ſix regiments, a battalion of another, and a Greek battalion, with all the cavalry; theſe precautions were prudent, but uſeleſs, as Alexandria was not beſieged. Menou further obſerved, that he knew the Engliſh had demanded proviſions from ſeveral villages, and directed Roize to inform all thoſe in the way to Alexandria, that they ſhould be utterly deſtroyed, if they provided ſo much as a ſingle ſheep. Among the orders which Menou expedited to put his plan of defence into execution, he directed General Reynier to diſpatch a portion of the force under his command for Rahmanieh, by the route of the Delta. Reynier, who had unwillingly left Cairo, under a conſcious impreſſion that the General in Chief ſuſpected him of caballing againſt his authority, took advantage of ſome ſuppoſed ambiguity in the words of the order, and inſtead of diſpatching a part of his troops, as directed, marched with it by the way of Cairo, determining to put himſelf at the head of the two demi-brigades of his diviſion, and to take with him his artillery. Still, although Menou had ordered ſo conſiderable a force to the ſcene of action, it was complained that he left too many troops at Cairo, Damietta, Belbeis, and Salahieh, and omitted to give directions for the evacuation of Upper Egypt.

In his march toward Alexandria, Menou executed his threat, by inflicting death on every native who was caught conveying any ſupplies to the Engliſh camp. On his arrival near the city, he found the ſituation of the army extremely critical. The Engliſh, being maſters of the dykes, prevented the junction of the troops before Alexandria, unleſs it had been poſſible to diſcover, in the baſon of the lake Mareotis, a road paſſable by artillery, and it was not known but the Engliſh might have let the ſea into that baſon, by cutting the dyke which ſeparates it from lake Aboukir. A practicable road was however diſcovered, and the junction effected at Alexandria on the 20th of March.

The neceſſity of an immediate attack on the Engliſh was acknowledged by all parties, and a plan for the enſuing day, ſaid to have been the joint production of Lanuſſe and Reynier, indirectly conveyed to Menou, was iſſued by him, the chief aim of which was to ſurpriſe the Engliſh poſition before day-break, and by a feint on the left, divert their attention from the right, where the principal attack was intended. They expected to rout the right wing by a great effort, overpowering it by the impetuoſity of French infantry. Afterward all the troops were to be preſſed upon the centre, while the left was amuſed by a falſe attack. Finally the favourable moment was to be ſeized to complete the ſucceſs by a charge of the cavalry, and drive the Engliſh into lake Aboukir. With the ſtrength of the Engliſh poſition they were not unacquainted; they ſtated it to be not more than 1300 fathoms in extent; the right wing ſupported by the ſea, and the left by lake Aboukir, were flanked by gun-boats, and the left was beſides fortified

fortified by redoubts on the dyke of the canal of Alexandria, and covered by lakes. Redoubts on the heights occupied by the centre, commanded the whole rear of the left wing; and the centre was equally covered by the position of the right, and by a redoubt erected near the ancient Roman camp. The artillery with which it was defended amounted to two 24-pounders, and 34 field pieces. The force to be employed by the French amounted, according to their own account, to 8330 infantry, with 1380 cavalry, and 46 pieces of cannon; but there is good reason to believe that their whole force in the field amounted to 12,000 veteran soldiers, besides artillerymen.

Nor was the English General intirely unapprised of the approach of the enemy, although unacquainted with their exact strength; he had felt their presence by the want of supplies in the market; he had received many reports of their march and their force, and he had seen many of their troops, and camels, and cavalry, as they approached Alexandria. It is said Sir Sidney Smith received from an Arab Chief notice that the French meant to attack the English, and that Sir Sidney pledged his credit for the truth of his informant, but failed in obtaining belief. Perhaps this story receives too much attention, even in being mentioned. The letter is published, and contains nothing more than a series of untruths and guesses. It states that the whole French army had entered Demanhour, none being left at Cairo or any where else in the interior, which was all erroneous. "They meditate," it proceeds, "an attack on you in the night." This happened to be true, but the writer could not know it, since he must have written his letter about the 18th of the month, from Galli, near Demanhour, and General Menou's orders were not issued to the subordinate Generals till the 20th, at ten o'clock at night. The Arab guessed the truth, but knew it no more than he did another truth which he stated with equal confidence, that the English would be victorious.

An hour before day-light, the French, according to Menou's order, assembled in perfect silence at the advanced posts. The left wing, consisting of four demi-brigades of infantry, and the greater portion of the cavalry under General Roize, was commanded by General Lanusse. Generals Friant and Rampon had charge of the centre, composed of five demi-brigades, and two regiments of cavalry; and General D'Estin commanded the advanced guard, which consisted of one demi-brigade, some light troops, and a detachment of cavalry. General Lanusse believing that the English redoubts might be easily carried by grenadiers, supported by the head of the columns, marched his two brigades in close columns, intending to form them beyond the main redoubt and the Roman Camp, and fall upon the right of the English army. The brigade of General Silly was to march directly against the redoubt; that of Gen. Valentin to follow the shore, passing between the sea and the Roman camp. The centre was to march close to the right of General Silly's brigade, following it as a second line; and on the first

March 21.

ſucceſs, vigorouſly to attack (along with the right wing) the redoubts in the centre of the poſition. But the diviſion of the French centre into two bodies, each with its ſeparate commanding officer, and ſubdivided again, by detaching its grenadiers, deprived it of that combined action neceſſary to the complete accompliſhment of its orders. The right wing was to form between the lakes and the centre, to attack the oppoſite wing of the Engliſh, as ſoon as the right was broken. They were alſo to detach a corps between the two lakes to occupy the left wing of the Engliſh, and prevent their ſending a body againſt Alexandria, which might have proved extremely embarraſſing. This wing was to be ſupported by General Baron, detached with two regiments of cavalry to the baſon of lake Mareotis, and alſo by a falſe attack of dromedaries on the ſide of Bedah. The cavalry were to march in a ſecond line behind the infantry, till the left had broken the line of the Engliſh, when they were to ſeize the moment of diſorder, to decide the victory by a vigorous charge.

In purſuance of Sir Ralph Abercromby's regulation, already mentioned, the Britiſh army was under arms at three o'clock in the morning, and in half an hour afterward, the report of a muſket was heard at the extremity of the left; immediately afterward a cannon was fired; ſcattered muſketry ſucceeded, and then two more cannons. The army doubted not, for a moment, that a general attack was commencing; but the feebleneſs of this firing convinced them that the left was not the point on which a ſerious attempt was to be made; and ſo ſtrong was this conviction, that General Moore, who as general officer of the night, had at firſt proceeded toward the left, turned back to the right. This attack was made by the dromedary corps, who advancing with great rapidity, and entering a ſmall flêche at the ſame time with the out centinels, turned a twelve-pounder that was mounted in it, againſt the Engliſh, and fired one ſhot from it, when a fort of redoubt in its rear firing on them, made them immediately retreat. They carried off with them three officers, one ſerjeant, and ten rank and file of the fifth brigade, with their own wounded, but left an officer and four privates killed in the flêche.

In a few minutes all ſuſpenſe with reſpect to the real point of attack was terminated by the loud ſhouts of the enemy in front of the right, which were immediately followed by a roar of muſketry, and the action immediately became general. Menou having offered a louis d'or per man to any thouſand of his troops, that would undertake to turn the right of the Engliſh, and take a battery, which defended it, Bonaparte's invincible legion, compoſed of nine hundred men, volunteered that ſervice; they ſucceeded in turning the right between the walls of the large ruin and the redoubt, which they ſtormed thrice, but had their parties deſtroyed in ſucceſſion. The 42d and 28th finding the enemy to be in their rear, faced about, and charging them with the bayonet, drove them back, ſtep by ſtep, into theſe old ruins. Not a man of theſe invincibles returned; for ſix hundred and fifty of them lay extended on the ground, and the

the remaining two hundred and fifty aſked for, and obtained, quarter. A body of the enemy took poſſeſſion of a ſmall redan, in which there was one gun, but were ſo annoyed by a heavy fire from the redoubt, that they were obliged to fall back. Another, proceeding along the ſea ſide, with an intention to penetrate between the redoubt and the old ruins, was ſtopped in its progreſs by the fire of the twenty-third and fifty-eighth regiments, and the flank companies of the fortieth, who defended the ruins. The French, however, perſiſting in the attempt to penetrate between them and the redoubt, their ſixty-ninth demi-brigade had one of its flanks fired on by a 24-pounder, loaded with grape ſhot, and was almoſt deſtroyed. On this, the reſt of the body refuſed to advance, and General Lanuſſe, in attempting to rally them, had one of his thighs ſhot off by a cannon ball, which occaſioned great confuſion in that column, and finally its complete diſperſion.

While theſe tranſactions took place on the right, General Rampon's diviſion made an attack on the centre, which extended towards the left, as far as the ninety-ſecond regiment. In attempting, however, to turn the left of the brigade of guards, it was expoſed to ſo ſevere a fire from the third regiment, whoſe left was thrown ſomewhat back, and from the royals, that after a pretty obſtinate conteſt, it was forced to retreat with conſiderable loſs.

General D'Eſtin, with his diviſion, leaving the redoubt on his left, penetrated along the hollow, toward the rear of the Britiſh poſition, and tried to gain the old ruins, where he was ſo warmly received by the forty-ſecond, that he endeavoured to withdraw his troops, but was compelled to leave behind him a battalion of the twenty-firſt demi-brigade, who had advanced too far, and being ſurrounded, were obliged to lay down their arms.

Theſe movements failing of ſucceſs, Menou directed Brigadier General Roize to make a briſk and reſolute charge with the main body of the cavalry, and ordered General Reynier at the head of the diviſions of Lanuſſe, Rampon, Friant, and the 85th demi-brigade to ſupport it. Roize having twice remonſtrated againſt making this aſſault, as uſeleſs and extremely hazardous, was anſwered only by a peremptory order, which, with reluctance, though with no want of courage or energy, he obeyed. The third and fourteenth of dragoons, under General Bouſſart, charged through the forty-ſecond regiment as far as the tents, with all the fury and impetuoſity of men in a ſtate of phrenzy and deſpair, and wheeling to their left, directed their attack againſt the rear of the Engliſh reſerve. But moſt providentially this charge was broken, and rendered ineffectual, by an accidental circumſtance. The ground in the rear of the forty-ſecond was in all parts excavated into pits between three and four feet deep with the ſand raiſed another foot or two on the ſides; theſe had been dug by the twenty-eighth regiment, as convenient places to ſleep in, before the tents could be landed. The body of cavalry attempting to charge over theſe pits, was completely broken and routed. Three

hundred periſhed, and a great number of the horſes being entangled among the cords of the tents were deſtroyed. The enemy conſidering theſe excavations as a ſtratagem, and ſuſpecting that moſt of the adjoining ground was in the ſame ſtate, became ſurpriſed, confuſed, and diſconcerted. Till that moment victory ſeemed to be ſuſpended; for the French infantry, though they had been repulſed, had not given up the conteſt, which was long, obſtinate, extremely confuſed, and ſometimes fluctuating and alarming.

The Minorca regiment coming moſt opportunely to the aſſiſtance of the forty-ſecond, which was broken by the impetuous charge of the French cavalry, drew up in the vacant ſpace between the redoubt and the guards. General Roize himſelf, at the head of the ſecond line of French cavalry, compoſed of the fifteenth, eighteenth, and twentieth dragoons, charged theſe regiments, who judging it impracticable to ſuſtain the ſhock, opened to let the enemy paſs, and then facing about fired ſeveral volleys, which brought a great number, both of men and horſes, to the ground. Dreading a ſimilar fate with their firſt line, they endeavoured to force their way back, which, being a good deal diſordered, they were not able to effect. A conſiderable part of them was killed or wounded in the attempt, and Roize himſelf was among the ſlain.

During all this time the enemy's right continued motionleſs, oppoſite to the left of the Engliſh. A warm cannonade was kept up on both ſides, and the riflemen and ſharp-ſhooters ſcattered along the reſpective fronts were inceſſantly employed in firing.

When the broken remains of the French cavalry formed in the rear of their infantry, hardly a fourth part of their number could be collected. Their army however, ſtill loth to quit the field, remained drawn up in order of battle, contenting themſelves with keeping up a heavy cannonade, which was vigorouſly returned. They ſeemed, for ſome time, wavering and irreſolute, deliberating on the expediency of another attack, and in this interval they ſuffered conſiderably from the Britiſh artillery, which cauſed much greater havoc among them, than a renewed aſſault would have produced. At length, two of their ammunition waggons having blown up, their fire began to ſlacken conſiderably, from want, as is ſuppoſed, of ammunition, and, at about half paſt nine o'clock, they began to retreat, expoſed to the fire of the Britiſh artillery, which at this juncture would have been tremendouſly effective, but that the troops, for want of draft cattle to convey it from the magazines, could not be ſupplied with ammunition.

This hardly-conteſted victory could not be improved by the Engliſh for want of cavalry, and becauſe the French had lined the heights of their poſition under which they retired, with cannon. On reviewing the effects of this extraordinary conflict, it was found that the French had left on the field 1700 killed and wounded, of whom 1040 were buried in the courſe of two days. Among the ſlain was General Roize, in whoſe pocket was a letter from General Menou, which afforded ſome intereſting intelligence.

telligence. General Lanuſſe did not ſurvive his wound, and General Beaudot was killed; Generals D'Eſtin, Silly, Eppler, and ſeveral other officers of rank were wounded, and 250 priſoners unhurt, remained in the hands of the Engliſh. From theſe particulars, which are aſcertained, it is calculated that the whole loſs of the enemy could not be leſs than 4000 men, killed, wounded, and captured. They alſo left behind 400 horſes killed, two pieces of cannon, and the ſtandard of the regiment which Bonaparte ſo proudly termed invincible, inſcribed with the names of the principal ſcenes of that General's glory in Italy, the Scrivia, Tagliamento, Iſonzo, Gratz, and the bridge of Lodi. The glory of ſecuring this trophy belongs to Anthony Lutz, a private in the Minorca regiment: it had firſt been taken by Major Stirling, and conſigned to the care of a ſerjeant in the 42d, named Sinclair, but from him it was reſcued by the French, and afterward recovered by Lutz, who received the reward and honours due to the achievement. In fact the valour diplayed by the Britiſh troops in this action was ſufficient to place their renown on the higheſt eminence. Their number did not exceed that of the enemy, and not above one half were ever actively engaged. The 28th and 58th regiments, ſurrounded by the enemy in their firſt furious onſet, preſented the unuſual ſight of troops fighting at the ſame time to the front, flank, and rear. The 42d, broken by the furious charge of French cavalry, though ſeparated, not defeated, each individual man maintaining the conteſt, intermixed with the foe, till relieved and ſuccoured by other troops.

But while the bravery of the Britiſh army is celebrated, its loſſes muſt not be forgotten. They conſiſted in ſix officers and 233 men killed; ſixty officers and 1190 men wounded, and three officers and twenty-nine men miſſing. Among the wounded were General Moore; Brigadier Generals Hope, Oakes, and Lawſon, and Sir Sidney Smith. The hurts of theſe officers were ſlight, and they ſoon recovered; the brave, beloved, and lamented Commander in Chief, Sir Ralph Abercromby, received in this glorious action his mortal wound. On the firſt alarm occaſioned by the deſperate charge of the French cavalry, this illuſtrious officer mounted his horſe and proceeded to the right. When he came near the ruins, he diſpatched his aids-de-camp with ſome orders to different brigades, and while thus alone, ſome dragoons of the French cavalry penetrated to the ſpot, and he was thrown from his horſe. One of them, from the taſſel of his ſword, ſuppoſed to be an officer, rode at him, and attempted to cut him down; but juſt as the point of the ſword was falling, his natural heroiſm, and the energy of the moment, ſo invigorated the General, that he ſeized the ſword, and wreſted it from his hand: at that inſtant the officer was bayonetted by a ſoldier of the 42d. Sir Ralph Abercromby did not know the moment of his receiving the wound in his thigh, but complained ſeverely of the contuſion in his breaſt, ſuppoſed to be given by the hilt of the ſword in the ſcuffle. Sir Sidney Smith was the firſt officer

who came to Sir Ralph Abercromby, and as he, by accident, had broken his own ſword, the General preſented to him that which he had ſo glorioufly acquired. Although he muſt have ſuffered great agony from his hurts, the heroic General could not be prevailed on to quit the field, but remained in the battery, where he repeatedly was in danger of being killed by cannon ſhot, till the defeat of the enemy was abſolutely certain. He had continued walking about, paying no attention to his wound, only occaſionally complaining of a pain in his breaſt from the contuſion. Officers who went to him in the courſe of the action, returned, without knowing from his manner or appearance that he had been wounded, and many only aſcertained it by ſeeing the blood trickling down his clothes. At laſt, his ſpirit, when exertion was no longer neceſſary, yielded to nature; he became faint, was placed in a hammock and borne to the depôt, cheered by the feeling expreſſions and bleſſing of the ſoldiers as he paſſed; he was then put into a boat, accompanied by his aid-de-camp and eſteemed friend, Sir Thomas Dyer, and carried to Lord Keith's ſhip. In this ſituation he bore the moſt painful operations with the greateſt firmneſs, but the ball could not be extracted; a mortification enſued, and he died in the evening of the 28th, having always expreſſed the greateſt ſolicitude for the army, and irritating his mind from the firſt moment with the anxiety to reſume his command. His loſs was a ſevere one; his death univerſally mourned; he was beloved by the troops for his kindneſs and attention to their welfare, and his courage was their pride and example. His age, combined with his ſervices, exertions, and manners, rendered him an object of enthuſiaſtic admiration; but every eulogium is unworthy of his fame, except that conveyed in the pathetic and elegant ſentiments of his friend and ſucceſſor, General Hutchinſon.—"Were it "permitted for a ſoldier to regret "any one who has fallen in the "ſervice of his country, I might "be excuſed for lamenting him "more than any other perſon; "but it is ſome conſolation to "thoſe who tenderly loved him, "that as his life was honourable, "ſo was his death glorious. His "memory will be recorded in the "annals of his country, will be "ſacred to every Britiſh ſoldier, "and embalmed in the recollection "of a grateful poſterity."

CHAP.

CHAP. XV.

Improved condition of the Britiſh Army; junction of the main Force under the Capitan Pacha. Terms offered to Menou, which he refuſes. A Poſt taken at the entrance of Lake Edko. General Hutchinſon diſpatches a Force againſt Roſetta. The Water of Lake Aboukir let into the Bed of Lake Mareotis. Capture of Roſetta, and of the Caſtle of St. Julian. General Hutchinſon proceeds to the interior, leaving the command before Alexandria to General Coote; the Capitan Pacha accompanies General Hutchinſon; Sir Sidney Smith obliged to leave the Army; Death and Character of Murad Bey. Capture of El Aft, and Intelligence gained there. Capture of Rahmanieh. Animoſity of the Turks againſt the French. March of the Army from Rahmanieh toward Cairo; a Convoy of Dgerms taken; Capture of the French Dromedary Corps; improved condition of the Britiſh Forces; Reinforcements arrive. March of the Grand Vizier acroſs the Deſert; State of his Army; their Inſubordination, and great Sufferings; Salahieh ſurrendered to Taher Pacha; the Turks take Tineh; the Grand Vizier arrives at Salahieh; his humane Proclamation; the French under General Beliard march againſt him; but are defeated at El Hanka; the Turks take Damietta and other Places. Interview between General Hutchinſon and the Grand Vizier. Arrival of a Body of Mamalukes in the Britiſh Camp. State of the French; conduct of Reynier and other Generals toward the Commander in Chief; Reynier, Damas, and others arreſted and ſhipped for France; ſome of them captured by the Engliſh; who alſo take five Tranſports, part of Gantheaume's Squadron. Siege of Cairo formed; a ſmall part of the Army from India arrives; progreſs of the Siege; ſurrender of the Place. March of the few Troops who arrived from the Indian Army deſcribed; progreſs of a larger Body under General Baird; they land at Coſſeir, croſs the Deſert to Cairo, and are ordered to Roſetta, but perform no Service. State of the Britiſh Army before Alexandria. Menou makes a new Inundation, which is ſtopped by a Work raiſed by the Engliſh; Reinforcements from England arrive; a portion of the Allied Army marches from Cairo to Alexandria; preparations for the Siege; Troops landed to the Weſt of the City; Skirmiſh on the Eaſt Side; Capture of Fort Marabout; further progreſs of the Siege; Menou requeſts time to propoſe a Capitulation, which is at length effected; outline of the Terms; general Obſervations on the Campaign; Honours and Rewards to the Britiſh Army and Navy. Intelligence of the Evacuation of Egypt ſent to France; Preliminaries of Peace between England and France ſigned; general Outline of them; extravagant joy of the Populace; Lord Cornwallis appointed Plenipotentiary; termination of Hoſtilities.

March. THE glorious victory of the 21ſt, although productive of ſome immediate advantage, was far from ſecuring the poſſeſſion of Egypt to the conquerors. Confirmed ſucceſs alone could give courage to the timid natives, who feared the vengeful fury of the French, and could have recollected, without Menou's

admonition, the horrors they had previouſly endured. Even the 500 Turks who had joined the Britiſh army remained in the rear during the action, but when the danger was over, they paraded on a ſmall hill in front with great oſtentation. Before the engagement was intirely terminated, 200 Bedouin Arabs on horſeback croſſed the ancient bed of Lake Mareotis, expreſſing great joy at the defeat of the French, whoſe dead bodies they were very anxious to rifle, but were prevented. On the 25th, however, the Capitan Pacha, with five ſail of the line, and about 5000 Turks and Albanians, joined the army, which received him with due reſpect; his preſence encouraged ſeveral of the natives to deſert from the French ſervice; they were liberally welcomed, and the victory of the 21ſt ſtimulated the people in general to exert themſelves in ſupplying the Britiſh camp, where abundance of freſh proviſion of all kind was ſpeedily obtained.

The fortification of the Britiſh poſition was purſued with unremitting activity, and the duties of the troops were very ſevere, ſtrong out-poſts being maintained, and the men ſleeping with their accoutrements on, for fear of ſurpriſe, and turning out at three o'clock in the morning. During the day they were occupied in conveying proviſions from the depot, and dragging, without the aid of horſes, guns, ammunition, wood, and other neceſſaries to the camp. Two days after the battle Sir Sidney Smith, with a flag of truce, demanded admiſſion into Alexandria, but being refuſed, tranſmitted a letter, propoſing that the French ſhould evacuate Egypt, and return to France without being conſidered priſoners of war, but that their ſhipping, artillery, &c. ſhould be ſurrendered to the Engliſh. The general, in his anſwer, expreſſed great ſurpriſe that an offer, ſo diſreſpectful to the army of the Eaſt, and himſelf, ſhould be made, ſince circumſtances by no means warranted the propoſal, and the French were determined to defend Egypt to the laſt extremity. At the ſame period Lord Keith diſpatched Capt. Beavor, of the navy, with ſome ſailors and marines, to occupy the caravanſery, of which the French had made a poſt, and which commanded the entrance into Lake Edko; he met with no oppoſition except a few ſhots as the boats approached, the enemy retreating with precipitation, after having thrown the two guns off the battlements. The guarding of this poſt, important to the premeditated movements of the army, was confided to 300 Turks, under Muſtapha Aga, who came with the Capitan Pacha. The government of the French in this place had begun in cruelty by the wanton maſſacre of 150 unreſiſting individuals, and continued in the moſt unrelenting oppreſſion; and the people ſhewed their joy and gratitude to their deliverers by giving every information, and affording every ſupply in their power.

When General Hutchinſon ſucceeded to the command, he fully appreciated the difficulty of his ſituation, in which to advance was in the higheſt degree perilous, to retreat infamous, and to remain impoſſible. As a firſt attempt, he ſent a ſmall April 2.

body

body of his own force, in conjunction with 4000 Turks, under Colonel Spencer, to attempt the capture of Roſetta, which would open the Nile to the Britiſh army, and facilitate their further ſupply. Learning, however, that the French had employed a conſiderable detachment in that quarter, the general alſo diſpatched the Queen's regiment as a reinforcement, which raiſed the number of Britiſh troops on that ſervice to about 1000, and ſubſequently ſeveral other bodies were added.

April 6.

General Hutchinſon having determined to carry on the active operations of the army on the Roſetta ſide, and to render the poſition then occupied by the troops under his command merely defenſive, conceived it neceſſary to let the waters of Lake Aboukir into the bed of the Marcotis; a meaſure which would ſecure his left from being turned, while gun-boats might get in, and annoy the enemy. It had been previouſly aſcertained that the level of Lake Marcotis was nearly ten feet lower than that of Aboukir, and conſequently, that by cutting through the canal of Alexandria, which was the only ſeparation between the two lakes, the water muſt flow in very copiouſly. Accordingly on the 12th, a working party began to cut through the canal; and on the 13th, the water impetuouſly ruſhed in through ſeven channels made for the purpoſe, to the great ſatisfaction of the whole army. The violence of the irruption united four cuts of the ſeven, and as the gap was too wide for a bridge, the communication was ſupported by boats ſtationed near the opening, in which the Arabs, coming with proviſions, were ferried over.

When this act of neceſſary deſtruction was performed with reluctance by the Britiſh General, the ſucceſs of Colonel Spencer was not yet known; he had executed the duty allotted to him without impediment; having proceeded on the 7th of April to Edko, unoppoſed by the enemy, but haraſſed by his Turkiſh allies, whom it was not poſſible to reſtrain from firing ball in the air as an amuſement. The following day he purſued his march through the burning deſert, and arrived at the place of his deſtination. The French, to the number of 800, were drawn up in front of Aboumandour, a very high ſand hill above the Nile, to the ſouthward of Roſetta, on which was an old tower; but as Colonel Spencer approached, the greater part paſſed acroſs the Nile in dgerms ready for the purpoſe, and the remainder retreated towards El Hamed: that body which had croſſed the river, drew up on the bank, and remained ſo poſted, until two guns were brought up, and fired at them, which killed and wounded ſeveral men. Colonel Spencer then detached the Queen's and five hundred arnauts to occupy Roſetta, and blockade fort St. Julien, while he proceeded with the main body to El Hamed, a remarkably ſtrong poſition, the right being on the lake, the left on the Nile, and in front, the higheſt banks of an Egyptian canal, which is dry at all times except during the overflowing of the river.

The next operation of the army was the reduction of the caſtle of St. Julien, for the defence of

which the French had taken many judicious precautions, and had for its protection fifteen pieces of cannon, and four armed dgerms anchored under the walls. The neceſſity of procuring heavy artillery from the depot three miles diſtant delayed the ſiege till the 16th of April, when the Britiſh troops opened their batteries, and were well ſupported by the Turkiſh gun-boats, and by a battery under the immediate direction of the Capitan Pacha. On the April 19. fourth day the French, reduced to extremity by the deſtruction of their dgerms, and awed by the increaſing power of the beſieger's works, capitulated on the ſame terms as had been granted to their countrymen at Aboukir. The Capitan Pacha, whoſe troops were eager to ſtorm, was ſomewhat offended that this treaty had been concluded without conſulting him, but was pacified by the prudent and ſatisfactory explanations of Lord Dalhouſie, who commanded the combined force by authority from Colonel Spencer. The garriſon who laid down their arms, conſiſted of 268 men, of whom 160 were able ſoldiers, the reſidue invalids: forty-one had been killed and wounded during the ſiege. The Engliſh loſt two men killed, and one lieutenant, named Deriſley, who was ſhot in the night through miſtake by one of his own centinels. The ſurrender of this caſtle ſecured the command of the Nile, and removed much uneaſineſs.

The facility with which theſe ſucceſſes were obtained having encouraged General Hutchinſon to preſs his operations againſt the interior, he quitted the poſition before Alexandria, leaving that ſtation to the command of General Coote, who, with about 6000 troops, was obliged to ſupply with vigilance his deficiency in force, and, without hope of gaining the laurels of enterprize, to ſubmit to difficulties which would be augmented by ſubſequent drafts from his already inadequate body. April 24.

The Britiſh force, of which the general took command at El Hamed, amounted to 300 cavalry, 4000 infantry, and 112 artillery, but ſtill, as before, deficient in horſes. The Capitan Pacha with his troops determined to accompany this army, and was encouraged in the reſolution, by the reaſonable hope that his influence would occaſion a great acceſſion of force; but one evil, not unaccompanied with diſgrace, was the immediate reſult; the brave Sir Sidney Smith, whoſe valour and conduct can never be too much extolled, was obnoxious to the Turkiſh commander, on account, it is ſuppoſed, of that honourable behaviour on his part which occaſioned ſo much evil to the Grand Vizier at Heliopolis; and he was now, on the poſitive requiſition of the Capitan Pacha, obliged to quit the army, and retire to his own veſſel. The hope that bodies of the natives would join was not altogether realized, nor intirely fruſtrated. One great ſource of expectation was dried up by the death of Murad Bey. Driven to extremity by Deſaix, this man had concluded peace with the French, whom he had, till the laſt moment of his life, the addreſs

to

to perſuade that he was cordially attached to their intereſts; but the laws of policy and nature equally made him repugnant to their rule, and having ſecretly obtained the Grand Signor's firman, and the Capitan Pacha's guaranty of protection, he ſolemnly promiſed that whenever the combined army approached Cairo he would join it, but obſerved that he durſt not incur the exterminating anger of the French till a ſufficient force ſhould have arrived for his ſecurity. In the midſt of theſe projects he fell a victim to the plague, which made great havock this year, 60,000 perſons having periſhed in Upper Egypt, and 40,000 in Cairo. The character of Murad Bey has been elaborately and forcibly deſcribed as a compound of virtue and vice, joined to great native talents, undaunted courage, extraordinary perſonal ſtrength, and untaught eloquence. Nature ſeemed to have formed him to rule men, while for want of education he had not learnt to govern himſelf. Hence his life was formed of contrarieties, ſometimes exhibiting traits of greatneſs almoſt as engaging as virtue, at others ſpecimens of meanneſs, ſufficient to demonſtrate that without virtue no one can be truly great.

April 22.

The flow of water from the Lake of Aboukir having brought that of Mareotis to its proper level, and cut off the French from all communication with the interior, except through the deſert, the combined army proceeded on their march. Their firſt attempt was againſt El Aft, where the French General Le Grange was poſted in a regularly intrenched camp with 3331 men, including artillery, ſappers, and miners, but excluſive of 600 choice cavalry. On the approach of his opponents, however, he retired from this poſition in the night towards Rahmanieh, nor was any thing gained by purſuit except thirteen dgerms laden with rice and ſtores, and five Frenchmen, who were killed by the Albanians. At El Aft the exact force of the enemy became known to the Britiſh General by the accident of a ſoldier finding a paper, which, not being able to read, he gave to his commanding officer, and which proved to be a detailed return of the French army. By the ſame means was alſo diſcovered a letter from General Beliard, complaining of the miſeries of his ſituation at Cairo, where the plague had deſtroyed 158 ſoldiers in ſix days, and where, in conſequence of the loſs of his wife and three ſervants, he had been obliged to burn all his plunder. At El Aft too a promiſed reinforcement of cavalry arrived for the Ottoman army, but, to the great diſappointment of all parties, they proved to be Syrians, almoſt naked, many without arms, miſerably mounted, and totally undiſciplined.

May 6, & 7.

On the 9th the allied army proceeded againſt the fort of Rahmanieh, where the enemy, reinforced from Alexandria to near 5000, were alſo in a ſtrong poſition, although they had not placed themſelves to the utmoſt advantage. In their attempt to alter their miſtake, a ſkirmiſh of great length, and conſiderable vigour, though of little effect, enſued, in which the Turks behaved

May 9.

haved with great bravery, although their defective diſcipline often rendered their valour unavailing. Night alone terminated the deſultory combat, in which however the Engliſh corps on the eaſt bank of the Nile got in the rear of the enemy; and while the men laid down to reſt on the ground, the officers were engaged in vigilant preparation for the duties of the coming day. Some time before dawn the whole party was under arms, but the main body of the French having retired in the night, the commandant of the fort ſent out a flag of truce, and by conſent both of the Britiſh Commander and the Capitan Pacha ſurrendered at diſcretion, reſerving only the private property of individuals; the number of priſoners was 110. In the ſkirmiſh of the preceding day rather more than twenty men were killed and wounded on each ſide. In the harbour the French had left eighty dgerms, but had ſunk all the gunboats, overturned the artillery on the batteries into the river, deſtroyed the ammunition, and done all the miſchief poſſible. The wreck of property left was a ſufficient evidence of an unexpected retreat. In the fort, into which Britiſh officers were admitted, were found large magazines of biſcuit, aqua dente, and flour, which could not be ſpoilt in ſo ſhort a time. The Capitan Pacha was extremely angry at finding things in this ſtate, and almoſt regretted that a capitulation had been granted to the garriſon. In fact the Turks of every claſs were highly exaſperated at the treatment received from the enemy, and although in

May 10.

ſome particulars they conſented to adopt the notions of mercy and humanity enforced by the Britiſh Commander, at others they reſiſted, and to one of his remonſtrances anſwered only by indignant ſhouts of Jaffa! Jaffa! alluding to the maſſacre committed by Bonaparte at that place.

The interference was however in general attended with the deſired effect; for on the day of the ſurrender of Rahmanieh, fifty French dragoons of the 22d regiment, the beſt and heavieſt in Egypt, fell in with a party of Bedouin Arabs, who ſhot a ſerjeant, and wounded an aid-de-camp, and five privates, and would have maſſacred the whole party, but Lieutenant Drake with thirty Engliſh dragoons fortunately coming up accepted their ſurrender, and brought them to head quarters.

At Rahmanieh it was debated at ſome length whether the army ſhould advance to Cairo, or return to Alexandria; but General Hutchinſon decided on the former meaſure as moſt conducive to the public good, and moſt conſiſtent with the protection due to the Grand Vizier, who was known already to have advanced from Jaffa. The plague raging at Rahmanieh, and in its vicinity, great pains were taken to prevent the army from going to places where they might riſque taking the infection, but the Turks would not be reſtrained, their ſtupidity and their avarice led them to rifle even the hoſpitals, and a garriſon of them was therefore left at the fort.

The march of the army was through a fine corn country already ripe; neither commands nor reproaches could reſtrain

May 11.

reſtrain the exceſſes of the Turkiſh ſoldiery, but the poor trembling villagers, who had never before experienced from military bodies, whether of friends or enemies, any thing but the moſt grievous outrages, and contumelious inſolence, were ſurpriſed to ſee the Britiſh columns following the Turks in perfect order, doing no injury to their perſons or property, but even rewarding thoſe who, in compliance with their moderate requeſts, ſupplied them with water. On the fourth day of this march, which was much retarded by the prevalence of the wind, called Kamſin, or Sirocco, the army met a convoy of ſeventy dgerms, with proviſions, ammunition, and cloathing for the French troops, and about 5000l. in money, which having come down the Nile from Cairo, had paſſed through the canal of Menouf, and the commanders being ignorant of the capture, were proceeding to Rahmanieh. The dgerms were eſcorted by about two hundred men of the twenty-fifth demi-brigade, whom the advanced guard of the Turks attacked. The French got out of their boats, and formed on ſhore, keeping up a ſmart fire of muſketry upon the Turks, to whom, conſcious of the fate which awaited them if they fell into their hands, they were determined not to ſubmit. However, after a ſhort reſiſtance, a reconnoitring party of the eleventh light dragoons fortunately came up, to whom the French joyfully ſurrendered. All thoſe who had been killed or wounded had their heads cut off by the Turks and Arabs.

May 14.

On the 17th intelligence was received from

May 17.

ſome Arabs that a conſiderable body of French was advancing to the ſpot where the boats of the Capitan Pacha were lying, and General Doyle, with a detachment of 250 dragoons, went in purſuit of them, followed by his brigade of infantry, with two field pieces, while General Cradock with a brigade moved along the banks of the Nile. Colonel Abercromby and Major Wilſon, attended by a few Arabs, galloped on in queſt of the enemy, and at the diſtance of about ſeven miles came up with them. They conſiſted of 200 of the dromedary corps, ſixty-nine artillerymen, 330 infantry, with one piece of cannon, and a ſtand of colours, and eſcorted a train of 460 camels. They left Alexandria on the 13th, but finding moſt of the villages abandoned, and totally deſtitute of proviſion, the chief of brigade, Cavalier, determined to puſh for Cairo; not ſuſpecting that General Hutchinſon had yet left Rahmanieh, and was on his way for that place, when he perceived the flotilla of the allies on the Nile. Theſe diſappointments had obliged the French to penetrate into the deſert, where they were now encountered. They were ſo ſtrong, and drawn up in ſuch excellent order, that the Arabs could have no hopes of ſucceſs in an attack, nor could ſo feeble a force as the cavalry under General Doyle expect to prevail, unleſs they ſhould be joined by the infantry which was yet at a great diſtance. Major Wilſon, both for the ſake of gaining time, and of the chance, however remote, of inducing the French to ſurrender, approached them with a flag of truce, and required,

quired, that, in order to avoid unneceſſary bloodſhed, they ſhould yield at once. Cavalier at firſt refuſed with indignation, but the troops having heard ſome expreſſions which imported that they might return to France, the commanding officer was obliged to renew the conference, and finally, the whole body agreed to lay down their arms, on condition of being conveyed to their own country with their private property. The Britiſh infantry came up juſt after the ſurrender, but both they and the cavalry had ſuffered ſo much from exceſſive heat, and the ſpeed of their march, that they could not have continued a purſuit, had the convoy attempted a further retreat. The French had been followed, ever ſince they had left El Och, by a body of ſeven or eight hundred Arabs on horſeback, who annoyed them exceſſively, and prevented their ſending out reconnoitring parties, as theſe, once ſeparated from the main body, would ſoon have fallen a ſacrifice to their inveterate animoſity. The regiment of dromedaries had been a very uſeful corps to the French. It was compoſed of men, ſelected from the whole army, who, mounted on theſe very ſwift animals, were employed in purſuing the Arabs, and overtaking them where it would have been impoſſible for any other troops. Tribes of Arabs retiring into the deepeſt parts of the deſert, where they thought themſelves ſecure, were ſoon diſperſed by them, and their numerous flocks of ſheep, ſometimes as many as two or three thouſand, became the prey of the captors, among whom the property was afterwards divided. By theſe means ſeveral individuals of this corps had accumulated to the amount of forty or fifty thouſand livres (1600 or 2000 guineas) with which they were glad to return to France. This corps did not charge on the backs of their beaſts, but uſed them for ſwift conveyance to the ſcene of action, where they diſmounted; and when attacked by a ſuperior force, made the dromedaries lie down, and placed themſelves behind; the animal thus ſerving as a parapet to his rider.

This tranſaction placed in the hands of the Britiſh army a great number of camels, part of which being private property, were paid for by the captors; the acquiſition was, in all reſpects, important, as it deprived the enemy of a great ſupport, and inſured to the Engliſh facility of carriage both for their baggage and water. In all particulars their condition was now conſiderably meliorated. The dragoons were, by degrees, eligibly mounted on horſes taken from the enemy, or purchaſed as occaſion offered, and theſe occaſions multiplied in proportion to the ſucceſs of the army. The dgerms, as already has been ſaid, were alſo a moſt eſſential reſource.

June 10. A fleet of twenty ſtore-ſhips and victuallers from England had alſo arrived in the Bay of Aboukir, bringing many neceſſaries, and a reinforcement of 1066 rank and file.

Hitherto the Britiſh army has been conſidered as acting nearly alone, for the body of Turks under the Capitan Pacha, although they performed ſome ſervice, could not be eſtimated according to their numbers;

numbers; the whole was not conſidered more beneficial to the general cauſe than 1500 regular troops would have been. Yet ſince the army left El Hamed, nearly 1000 of the enemy had been captured with a loſs to the Engliſh of only four killed, and eighteen wounded. At this period, however, more effectual aſſiſtance was to be received from the natives.

The Grand Vizier had been ſome time in motion, and intelligence was now received of his near approach, and of ſome ſignal ſucceſſes which attended his progreſs, of which it is neceſſary to give an account. The encampment at Jaffa, the ſcene of tumult, inſubordination, diſeaſe, and diſtreſs, was broken up on the 25th of February, when the Grand Vizier and his tumultuary army, amounting to about 12,000 men, began their march acroſs the deſert to Cairo. They were in their progreſs occaſionally reinforced by detachments of Albanians ſent from Conſtantinople, and other troops, and ſometimes weakened by great deſertions, in one of which all the camels were carried away. The forces, ill ſupplied, were frequently mutinous for want of food, and always intractable from general habit, and the plague attended, a continual ſcourge during their progreſs, and awaited them at every town and village to which they made their approach. Until the 9th of March their advance was very inconſiderable, but at that time they were relieved by treaſure and ſupplies from the ſeat of government, and encouraged by a reinforcement from Dgezzar Pacha. At the end of a month from their quitting Jaffa, the army was only at Gaza, but near this place they received information of the landing and firſt ſucceſſes of the Engliſh; and about the ſame period, the troops better ſupplied, became healthy, and the plague ceaſed its ravages among them. On the 25th of March, an Arab, who had left Salahieh, brought intelligence that only four hundred French were left there, General Reynier having marched with the reſidue of his force to aſſiſt Menou, but the army could not yet make any effective progreſs, owing to the rains, and ſwell of the waters. It was not till the 29th of March that the Grand Vizier was again enabled to proceed, and on the 30th he reached El Ariſh, where he rejoined a large diviſion of cavalry which he had ſent to precede him under Taher Pacha. The Arabs, encouraged by an authority which they deemed lawful, joined in conſiderable numbers, but ſtill the tumults to which an undiſciplined body is ſubject diſtracted and embroiled the camp, and they were expoſed to great diſtreſs in conſequence of a heavy gale which drove from the ſhore the tranſports in which the proviſions were embarked. To ſuch extremity had this miſery ariſen, that for four days the horſes were without food; many of them as well as camels periſhed, after eating their halters, their litter, and whatever elſe was within their reach. They were ſcantily relieved by the iſſue of a ſmall portion of biſcuit duſt, and damaged rice, which the famiſhed troops themſelves could ill afford. This diſtreſs was increaſed by the reappearance of the plague, which aroſe from the infatuated negligence

gence of Turkiſh commanders, who actually encamped on the burying ground of El Ariſh, where that diſeaſe had lately prevailed. The Vizier was obliged to ſend to Gaza, a diſtance of fifty miles, where he obtained a ſcanty ſupply of barley, but the party who eſcorted it had been attacked in their way by the Bedouin Arabs, and it was not till the 10th of April that he was effectually relieved and encouraged by the arrival of ſome ſhips from Conſtantinople, which brought a ſupply of grain, and a reinforcement of 800 Arnants.

Mindful of the intelligence received from the Arab reſpecting Salahieh, the Grand Vizier had diſpatched a body of troops under Taher Pacha; but the French having previouſly determined to abandon the fort on the firſt approach of an enemy, in order to concentrate as many of their troops as poſſible at Cairo, the Turks took poſſeſſion on the 9th of April without oppoſition, and on the 12th the Grand Vizier was cheered by the news. In the midſt of the diſtreſs to which the camp had been reduced, the ſurviving camels had been driven off to the mountains by deſerters; as the loſs could not eaſily be repaired, ſeveral days elapſed from the removal of the famine, before the Grand Vizier could renew his march, and then it was only with a part of his force. In his route he had the ſatisfaction to learn that a detachment of his cavalry had gained unreſiſted poſſeſſion of Tineh, where the French had left two pieces of cannon, and ſome ſtores, and that other parties of his troops were arrived at Belbeis and Korin. On the 27th, after a fatiguing and diſtreſſing march, attended with difficulties of every deſcription, the army had quite paſſed the deſert, and found repoſe and plenty at Salahieh. Before they quitted this place the enemy had made as much havock as they could, burning and deſtroying a conſiderable part of the interior of the work and detached buildings, ſpiking the guns, and throwing a great number of ſhells into a well.

April 19.

From Salahieh, the Vizier proceeded on the 7th of May toward Belbeis, having previouſly diſpatched 3000 men under Ibrahim Pacha to reduce Damietta. No particular incident marked this progreſs, but as he approached, the Vizier ſent out a ſtrong reconnoitring party of 1200 men to ſcour the country in the direction of Cairo, and to collect intelligence. To this troop he promiſed handſome rewards for priſoners brought in unhurt, but if they were put to death, or maltreated, no recompence was to be allowed. In the ſervice of more civilized nations ſuch an Edict would have been deemed uſeleſs, but in an Ottoman commander it was a great ſacrifice to humanity.

As the Vizier's army drew near Cairo, and the combined Engliſh and Turkiſh force advanced on the other ſide, it became probable that the French would make ſome attempt againſt one party before it ſhould be ſupported by the other, and as there was every reaſon to ſuppoſe the effort muſt be directed againſt the Grand Vizier, General Hutchinſon, who had now frequent and eaſy communication with him, ſent to requeſt that he would rather

ther fall back than incur the danger of ſuch an event, but the Vizier, who was not deficient in bravery, refuſed to follow this advice, and in fact gave many good reaſons drawn from the ſtate of his army, and the nature of his proſpects, for rejecting it. The French, apprehenſive of an inſurrection at Cairo in favour of the Turkiſh government, conſidered themſelves obliged to make the attempt, which the Britiſh General had foreſeen, and accordingly, General Beliard, the commander in that city, at the head of 4,600 infantry, with 900 cavalry, including the troops which had quitted Rahmanieh with Le Grange and twenty-four pieces of cannon, marched from Cairo with great celerity on the 15th of May, expecting to ſurpriſe the Turks, and gain the advantage of an unexpected attack. Contrary to his hopes, his firſt movement was reported in the camp by ſome of the reconnoitring party, or by the natives, and the Grand Vizier, having conſulted the Britiſh Officers who were with him, ſent forward in the evening Taher Pacha, with 3000 cavalry, and three pieces of artillery, inſtructing him to aſſail the enemy in the night, if a favourable opportunity occurred, or, at all events, to haraſs and impede their march. Taher Pacha fell in with them about three leagues from Belbeis, but being perceived, both parties halted during the night. Early in the morning, Taher Pacha having been reinforced by 1500 additional cavalry, commenced an attack; and in a ſhort time Mahomed Pacha came to his ſupport with 5000 infantry and five pieces of cannon. The French took poſt in a wood of date trees, where, for three hours, they maintained a ſharp fire; but on the Grand Vizier's arriving with the main body, General Beliard, for fear of being ſurrounded, was obliged to move into the plain, and on account of the number of Turkiſh horſemen, concentrate his force, forming two hollow ſquares of infantry on the wings, with a column of cavalry in the centre. Thus he attempted to advance; but wherever he appeared the Turks opened out, and aſſembled again on his flanks; and at length, a body of their cavalry ſtriking into the deſert, General Beliard, alarmed leſt that detachment might be ſent to puſh into Cairo, a manœuvre which the year before, at the battle of Heliopolis, had ſucceeded ſo well, retreated with precipitation, yet preſerving order. The action continued ſeven hours, with little intermiſſion, and the French retiring, were purſued and haraſſed by the Turks, till they reached El Hauka, a diſtance of ſeven miles from the ſpot where the action began. Diſpirited and dejected they returned to Cairo with the loſs of 300 men killed and wounded, while the Grand Vizier, with the loſs only of 150 men, remained triumphant at Heliopolis. The combat was in itſelf of little conſequence, but in a relative view it was of the higheſt importance; it fruſtrated the ſcheme of the French General, and deprived him of importance in the eyes of the inhabitants of Cairo, while it reinſtated the honour which the Vizier was ſuppoſed to have loſt on that very ſpot two years before, and a French army put to flight by a force intirely Turkiſh, (for the Britiſh miſſion in the Vizier's

May 16.

zier's army, conſiſted only of 29 individuals) was a circumſtance moſt propitious to the credit and intereſts of the Ottoman empire. Even during the battle, bodies of Arabs had joined their efforts againſt the French, ſhewing, at leaſt, that they preferred their old maſters to their more recent oppreſſors. Soon after his victory, the Grand Vizier had the further ſatisfaction to learn that Ibrahim Pacha had obtained poſſeſſion of Damietta, without reſiſtance, the enemy having, on his approach, evacuated the fort of Leſbeh, after deſtroying every thing in their power, and retreated to Bourlos. This place too was abandoned, and the united garriſons, making nearly 700 men, not being able to join Le Grange's diviſion, which had retreated to Cairo, embarked in ſeveral ſmall veſſels, with the intention of reaching Alexandria. Upward of 300 of theſe were taken by the Britiſh and Turkiſh cruizers, and 89 Italians deſerted, and gave themſelves up to the Britiſh Commander at Roſetta.

General Hutchinſon being by victory at El Hanka relieved from his fears reſpecting the fate of the Grand Vizier, meaſures were taken for a meeting between them, to concert plans of joint operation, and the Capitan Pacha, who was the political rival of the Grand Vizier, was to be of the party. A deputation from the Britiſh camp having made arrangements for the interview, the Grand Vizier moved his poſition from El Hanka to Meſhtoul, diſtant about four miles, and ſubſequently to Ben-el-Hazer, where the deſired conference took place, with every circumſtance indicative of friendſhip and mutual confidence. The plan was here formed for a joint attack on Cairo, and on the fifth day Gen. Hutchinſon retired to his own camp at Algam. From this place he now removed to a new encampment, near the village of Miſhlee, where he had the ſatisfaction to ſee his force augmented by the arrival of Oſmyn Bey Tambourgi, the ſucceſſor of Murad Bey, with 1200 Mamelukes.

May 24.

May 28.

June 1.

Thus by the ſucceſsful operations of the two armies, the French were deprived of all power in Egypt, and ſhut up in a few ſtrong places, which they conſidered themſelves bound to defend to the laſt extremity. Their defeats and diſaſters may be aſcribed to two cauſes exiſting among themſelves; the miſconduct of Menou, and the factious diſpoſition of his ſubordinate Generals. The riſe of their diſputes has already been ſhewn, and perhaps Reynier and his party were right in adviſing the General to oppoſe with his whole army the Britiſh troops on their landing; but the council which precipitated the action on the 21ſt of March, is open to much more cenſure, and it is almoſt evident that in the courſe of it the public intereſt ſuffered greatly by the deſire which Reynier felt to embarraſs and diſgrace the chief whom he hated. Although this General knew that it was not Menou's intention that he ſhould accompany his troops to Alexandria, he not only appeared there, but continually preſſed on the Commander in Chief, advice which might be good in itſelf, but which was always given in terms of dictation, and accompanied with reproaches

reproaches for paſt and prognoſtications of future diſaſters. Menou, ſurrounded with danger and harraſſed with ſuſpicion, ſeemed to think that he had made abundant proviſion againſt every contingency, and received the unfavourable reports which continually reached him with incredulity, or conſidered the loſs of poſts and ſurrender of forces, as produced by the party of anti-coloniſts, who wiſhed, at all events, to evacuate Egypt and return to France. At length, on the loſs of Rahmanieh, which inſulated Alexandria from the reſt of Egypt, it was reported to him that the troops, mixed with the murmurs againſt him, expreſſions which led him to believe that Reynier excited their diſſatisfaction, in order, by violence, to ſupplant him in the command; and under the influence of this ſuſpicion, he cauſed Reynier, May 14. with Gen. Damas, Daure, principal commiſſary, Boyer, adjutant commandant, and ſeveral other officers to be arreſted, and put on board two veſſels, the Lodi and the Union, to be conveyed to France. Before he left the port, Reynier addreſſed to Menou a letter full of intemperate inſult; the Lodi, in which he was embarked, was chaced by ſome Engliſh veſſels, but eſcaped by ſuperior ſailing; the other veſſel, in which were Damas, Daure, and Boyer, was taken, and a conſiderable ſpoil fell into the hands of the captors, including about 6000l. in money, the property of General Kleber.

Nor was this the only naval ſucceſs which cheered the Britiſh Commanders in Egypt. June 7. Five ſail of tranſports were taken; they had formed a part of Gantheaume's ſquadron, but in them were neither troops nor ſtores; they had a ſupply of mathematical and aſtronomical inſtruments for the philoſophers, a troop of comedians, a packet of toys and trifles, and ſome artiſts and tradeſmen. From ſome of the priſoners, however, the Engliſh learnt the ſtate of the ſquadron, which had occaſioned in them ſome apprehenſion, and kept alive ſome hopes of the enemy. The troops on board were ſtated to be about 4000, but the expectation of landing them was very feeble, owing to the ſuperiority and vigilance of Lord Keith. The French Admiral had once projected to put them on ſhore at Derna, with a ſcanty ſupply of bread and water; and leave it to fortune to enable them to reach Alexandria, but this deſperate plan had alſo been prevented by fear of the Britiſh fleet.

In the conferences which General Hutchinſon had with the Grand Vizier, his Excellency certified in writing that unleſs the ſiege of Cairo were undertaken, he could not hope to keep his forces together, eſpecially as a large body of Arabs had joined him merely in the expectation of ſharing the plunder of the city. The Britiſh General, in conſequence, made preparations for the ſiege, drawing from Major General Coote, who remained before Alexandria, the 28th and 42d regiments, 120 artillerymen, and 60 mounted dragoons; this body marched under Brigadier General Oakes, June 4. reducing General Coote's force to 5000 men, of whom not above 3000 were capable of duty, the reſidue being ill with the prevailing diſorders, ophthalmia and the flux.

General Hutchinson having instructed the Grand Vizier to make corresponding movements with his own, quitted his encampment at Mishlee, and proceeding to the southward of the point of the Delta took up ground near the village of Burlos. In that position the whole force destined to act against Cairo was consolidated; a commodious and easy communication was established between the British army and that of the Grand Vizier, encamped at Charlahan, on the opposite bank of the Nile, by a bridge of pontoons. The Capitan Pacha's troops were in front of the combined army, and the Mamelukes in the rear. In this situation, Colonel Stewart's corps attached to the Vizier's army was joined by 200 men under Col. Lloyd, who had marched from Suez on the 7th, and were the forerunners of the long-expected reinforcement from India. This circumstance was soon known by the French, who, daily expecting to hear of our being strongly reinforced from the East, were much discouraged and disheartened.

June 4.

June 10.

Gen. Hutchinson still advancing, reached the village of Saael, and subsequently placed his army in a position but just out of the reach of shot from the enemy's works. Here he was joined by the 28th and 42d regiments, who had marched in ten days from the camp before Alexandria. The Vizier also moved forward along the right bank of the Nile to a parallel position, and the bridge of pontoons was established a little way below both armies at the village of Demanhour.

June 16.

On the 21st General Hutchinson made another movement, and invested the town of Gizeh, while the Vizier following his motions, encamped near the enemy's advanced works on the opposite side of the Nile. In the evening some slight skirmishes took place on both banks, in which the Mamelukes were eminently distinguished. The French troops in Cairo were now in a most distressing situation. They were surrounded on all sides by a superior force, which expected soon to be augmented, and was in undisturbed possession of the navigation of the Nile; they were cut off from all communication with the interior, without any hopes of relief; in a populous city, of which the inhabitants were mostly their enemies; and within extensive works which were weak, in bad condition, and required for their defence the incessant exertions of a large garrison.

June 21.

Under these circumstances General Belliard, although he had previously refused to treat for a surrender when exhorted in a private and friendly manner by Gen. Hutchinson, now saw himself constrained to send a flag of truce to the British advanced posts, in consequence of which a conference was opened, and terms arranged for the surrender of the city. The parties to the conference were General Hope on the part of the English, Isaac Bey on the part of the Capitan Pacha, Mahommed Pacha for the Vizier, and Osman Bey for the Mamelukes; and on the part of the French General Donzelot and Colonel Tarayre, Chef de Brigade. Captain Taylor officiated as Secretary. On the 26th definitive articles were agreed to.

June 22.

June 23.

to. The French had demanded, in addition to the terms, two millions of livres from the Turks, for the payment of their own debts in Cairo, and as the balance of revenue due to them from Egypt; but this claim General Hope positively refused to discuss, and the Turkish deputies represented, that, on the contrary, they must demand from them a greater sum for the ships seized in Alexandria, at the infraction of the Convention of El Arish, and for the purses advanced to General Kleber, on the faith of that treaty. The next day the capitulation was signed, in virtue of which the French were allowed seventeen days for their final evacuation of Cairo and its dependencies; they were then to march by the left bank of the Nile to Rosetta, with their arms, baggage, field artillery, and ammunition, there to be embarked within fifty days at the latest, from the date of the ratification of the treaty, and conveyed at the expence of the allied powers to one of the French ports in the Mediterranean, by the most direct and expeditious route.

In conformity with this treaty, the British troops were put in possession of some outposts, and after a proper period, the allied forces were admitted to the citadel, the French evacuating Cairo and Boulac, and retiring to the island of Rodha, and town of Gizeh. The total number of the garrison which marched out was 13,754, of whom 760 were natives; but the works of the town, thirteen miles in circumference, required a much larger force for protection. The troops of the Capitan Pacha, on entering the city, behaved with the utmost regularity, but those of the Grand Vizier could not be restrained from committing some excesses, and are supposed to have levied contributions from the shopkeepers, under pretence of protecting them in case of a general plunder.

June 28.

July 9.

The few troops from India, who joined the combined army, formed the only portion of that force which took any part in the campaign. They had set out from Suez on the 7th of June, with a scanty allowance of bad water to each man, which he was directed carefully to husband, as no more could be obtained till they should reach the springs of El Hanka, a distance of fifty miles. This precaution was not duly attended to, and in a march of three days, through a burning desert, they suffered the greatest misery through thirst, fatigue, and the painful reflection of the rays of the sun from the sand. The baggage was cut off from the backs of the fainting camels, and the wearied soldiers threw away their knapsacks, and every other incumbrance. With inexpressible joy they reached the springs of El Hanka in the evening of the 9th, and soon repaired to the grand army, where their presence was less important as an acquisition, than as a promise of further assistance, if necessary.

The project of transferring a considerable body of troops from India to Egypt was well conceived, and forwarded with the greatest industry, the Marquis Wellesley himself superintending and animating the progress of the operation. The forces did not all come from the same part of the country, but every presidency furnished its

ſhare, and they were intended to amount to 10,000. The few who arrived before Cairo had ſailed earlier than the main body, with Rear Admiral Blanquet, from the coaſt of Malabar. The greater force having met at Bombay, its place of rendezvous, on the 27th of March, proceeded under the command of General Baird, in veſſels protected and governed by Sir Home Popham, acroſs the Arabian Sea to Jedda, and thence by an intricate, dangerous, and undeſcribed navigation, along the Red Sea, making their general rendezvous at Coſſeir, which ſome of them reached on the 21ſt of May. The troops which left India together, could not, from the difficulties of the navigation, arrive together, and they would have preferred landing at Suez, but were prevented by the monſoon. At Coſſeir therefore, the troops continued to arrive daily from different parts, and on the 21ſt of June began their march acroſs the Deſert. Their progreſs was attended with the uſual difficulties, dangers, and neceſſities, but the ſepoys received a gratification which no other foreign troops had enjoyed in ſeeing their own religion practiſed in every town at which they arrived. They reached Kenneh the 13th of July, and paſſing thence to Girgeh, embarked on the Nile in the beginning of Auguſt, and on the 7th of that month arrived at Cairo, and were encamped on the iſland of Rodha. In this poſition they awaited the orders of Gen. Hutchinſon, which having received, they again embarked on the Nile, and came to Roſetta on the 31ſt of Auguſt, when the campaign was ended. When they reached the laſt place of their deſtination their total number was 5409, of whom about 3600 were fit for immediate ſervice, but their exiſtence could hardly have been preſerved during their long progreſs, had not the natives of every claſs, even the wild Arabs, behaved towards them with the utmoſt kindneſs and attention. The Grand Vizier ſent to the firſt party abundant preſents of cattle and poultry immediately on their arrival at Suez, and the Mamelukes were equally anxious for their ſuſtenance in the neighbourhood of Cairo.

It remains now to relate the events which had taken place before Alexandria ſince the departure of General Hutchinſon. The principal attention of Gen. Coote was for a time directed toward the inundation of lake Mareotis, in which gun-boats were launched for the protection of the Britiſh poſition, and the extent of the inundation was ſurveyed by Sir Sidney Smith and Lieut. Colonel Duncan. The ſpade and pickaxe were actively employed in ſecuring the Britiſh camp againſt an attack, and additional redoubts and batteries were raiſed with equal judgment and effect, and the General eſtabliſhed a poſt of two hundred infantry, twenty cavalry, and two field-pieces on the canal of Alexandria, near Bedah, for the purpoſe of maintaining an uninterrupted communication with Rahmanieh, Demanhour, and the interior. Diſeaſe was however very prevalent in the camp, and the want of remittances in money from England, occaſioning a great arrear of pay, the market was ill ſupplied, although by neceſſary conſequence, the articles which were produced became

became cheap in proportion to the ſcarcity of purchaſers. In theſe particulars the troops at Alexandria were in no worſe ſituation than thoſe at Cairo, but the new miniſtry juſtly anxious for the ſucceſs of the Egyptian expedition, uſed ſuch exertions, that money and every kind of ſupply were rapidly received, and reinforcements continued to arrive with encouraging frequency, while all apprehenſion on account of Gantheaume was diſſipated by the ſucceſsful vigilance of Lord Keith and Sir Richard Bickerton.

Since the battle of the 21ſt of March, Menou had refuſed all correſpondence with the Britiſh army by land, under pretence that arts had been uſed to occaſion deſertion among his troops, and therefore all communications were made at ſea, by flags of truce paſſing between the Britiſh cruizers and the Pharos. In order to contract his front, he let the water out of the new inundation into the canal of Alexandria, and by a ſecond cut from thence into the plain, whence it flowed in front of General Coote's left into the low ſwampy ground between the two poſitions. The next day June 24. a ſtrong working party of Britiſh troops began to oppoſe a dam to the inundation, which with indefatigable labour they brought to ſuch a conſiſtency as to defy all the efforts of the enemy; it was in length 300 feet, in breadth more than thirty, and in height ſeven, and its rear was protected by a ſmall redoubt with two twenty-four pounders.

July 5 to 19. Early in the month of July conſiderable additional reinforcements were received from England, and General Coote, anxious to diſtinguiſh himſelf by ſome active efforts for the reduction of Alexandria, proceeded in the Port Mahon brig of war to the weſtward of the town, and by reconnoitring ſatisfied himſelf of the narrowneſs of the neck of land between the ſea and the inundation, and of the facility of occupying it with a corps of 4 or 5000 men. New arrivals 14 to 18. from England ſoon increaſed his force to 9000; and it was known too that the allied army had left its encampment at Embabeh on the 15th, the Britiſh troops being commanded by Major General Moore, who had recovered from his wound, General Cradock being left ill at Gizeh, and the Commander in Chief at Cairo. The Turks were led by the Capitan Pacha, the Grand Vizier who remained in command at Cairo having augmented his ranks by 2000 Albanians. They eſcorted the French garriſon of Cairo, who, according to the capitulation, were embarked at Roſetta, carrying with them the body of their beloved and honoured General, Kleber. At the end of July General Hutchinſon arrived at Roſetta; being ſtill extremely indiſpoſed, he went on board Lord Keith's ſhip, but he returned on the 15th of Auguſt to ſuperintend the ſiege of Alexandria.

On the 3d of Auguſt Auguſt. the laſt detachment of European force employed in this campaign reached Aboukir, conſiſting of the Chaſſeurs Britanniques, and regiment of Watteville, and amounting to 1600 men, with

with 120 artillery-men from Gibraltar. With the increaſe of his dangers, Menou increaſed his ſuſpicions and ſuperfluous precautions to ſuch a degree, that he even refuſed to allow M. Eſteve, his own paymaſter general, and particular friend, to come in by land, although his only buſineſs was to get his accounts ſettled and ſigned before his return to France.

Aug. 7.

Aug. 10. Several Turkiſh gun-boats were now brought into the inundation preparatory to the ſiege. They were very large, having two maſts, and a ſhort mizen, and ſquare rigged, and carrying a heavy twenty-four-pounder at the bow, and a twelve pounder on each quarter; they were alſo extremely flat bottomed, drawing but little water, and very ſerviceable boats. The laſt portion of the garriſon of Cairo having embarked on the 11th, general orders were iſſued, ſtating that the diviſion of troops to be employed on the Weſt of Alexandria was to be under the immediate command of Major General Coote. It conſiſted of the brigade of guards, under Lord Cavan; the firſt brigade of the line, under Major General Ludlow; and the ſecond brigade, under Major General Finch, making about 4000 rank and file, with a certain proportion of artillery, engineers, &c. The flotilla of gun-boats, conſiſting of twenty-four, alſo ſailed up the inundation, and anchored in a line abreaſt of that of the French, a poſition which rendered their boats uſeleſs, and gave the beſiegers the intire command of the inundation. The reſerve, under Major General Moore, marched into the camp before Alexandria on the ſame day; but no regular plan of encampment was to take place till Major General Coote's corps had ſailed to the weſtward, which, owing to adverſe winds, did not take place till the evening of the 16th. Theſe troops, embarked in nearly 400 boats of different dimenſions and denominations, ſailed up the inundation with a favourable breeze; but the wind changing during the night, more than half of them drifted conſiderably to leeward. At ten o'clock the next morning as they were puſhing for a part of the ſhore nearly oppoſite to the place where the enemy's gun-boats were anchored, General Coote, obſerving a body of between three and four hundred men with two pieces of flying artillery near the intended landing ſpot, directed Major General Finch to make a diverſion with his brigade upon that point, and keep them in check, while he ſhould proceed about two miles further to the weſtward with the reſt of the troops, and land them, which he did without any oppoſition. The nature of the ground on that peninſula is ſomewhat ſingular. A ſteep ridge of quarries of a hard flinty kind of ſtone, about half a mile broad, riſes from the edge of the inundation, and ſtretches along it from Weſt to Eaſt, at the foot of which a ſandy plain commences, and reaches to the ſea. The peninſula itſelf, where General Coote landed, is about two miles in breadth, but nearer Alexandria it is much narrower.

Aug. 12, 13.

17th.

The firſt operation of the army was to dig wells, and they had the

the ſatisfaction, by ſinking four or five feet deep, to find abundance of good water. To impede the ſiege, the French ſet fire to two of their gun-boats, and let them drift among thoſe of their adverſaries, but they blew up without effect.

While theſe tranſactions were taking place to the weſtward, General Hutchinſon made an attack along the enemy's whole front, as a diverſion in favour of General Coote. Two hills, one of ſand, and the other covered with verdure, were reſpectively occupied by General Moore and General Cradock. From the ſand hill General Moore was enabled to reconnoitre the works, but could not retain the poſition, as it lay completely expoſed to the croſs fire of the enemy, and afforded no ſhelter. Seeing this hill abandoned, the French, who had retired from the green hill without reſiſtance, detached 500 men with two pieces of artillery to regain it from General Cradock; but two hundred men of the 30th regiment, under Lieutenant Colonel Lockhart, repulſed them in confuſion, and with the loſs of 100 killed and wounded, and ten priſoners; the Engliſh had twenty-eight men killed and wounded.

Aug. 18. General Coote having advanced two miles, took up a poſition to cover the ſiege of Fort Marabout; two batteries were eſtabliſhed by unremitting exertion, and provided with three twenty-four-pounders. The bombardment was carried on ſo effectually, that in two days the tower fell with a tremendous craſh; orders were given to ſtorm in the night, but the Britiſh General, deſirous to ſpare the effuſion of blood, again ſummoned the French commandant, 20th. who, ſeeing further reſiſtance hopeleſs, ſurrendered the fort, yielding up 160 priſoners, with ten pieces of cannon.

In the ſame period General Hutchinſon finiſhed his firſt parallel, and raiſed batteries on the green hill againſt the right of the enemy.

General Coote, ſtill anxious to prevent the Aug. 22. French from fortifying the iſthmus, advanced from Marabout againſt a corps of 1200 men under General Eppler, whoſe line ran in a high ridge of ſand hills immediately in the rear of the canal which originally joined the ſea and Lake Mareotis. His right was defended with four pieces of cannon; and two batteries, with iron eighteen pounders in them, protected the left. In the commanding heights above his line were placed ſeveral field pieces, and the front of the poſition was not more than two hundred yards. Although the Britiſh General was prevented by inevitable delays from ſurpriſing the enemy, this ſtrong poſition was attacked with great ſpirit and ſucceſs, the Engliſh puſhing on till within 1400 yards of Alexandria, when, as the Fort de Bains, the firſt advanced work, was not to be aſſaulted, ſince the poſt could not be maintained without heavy artillery, and none was up with the army, General Coote took up his poſition, although within range of ſhot, that a ſupport to his approaches might always be ready. This enterpriſe was admirably aſſiſted by the gun-boats on the inunda-

tion; the French retired with such precipitation as to leave behind their tents and baggage; their loss was 200 men killed, wounded, and prisoners; that of the British three killed and forty wounded.

By this success the army gained a station from which they could command the busy and interesting view of Alexandria, its shipping and quay, but they could only obtain water by sending for it to a distance of four miles.

23d. General Hutchinson informed of the bold position occupied by General Coote, detached to his aid 1500 men under Colonel Spencer, and, to prevent the enemy from making an attack before the troops were in security, he executed an ingenious feint, by which the French continued for some time before day-light directing all their attention to the east side of the town, and firing with great fury against the supposed assailants of their works, when in fact nothing had been attempted.

Several days after this elapsed in the silent forwarding of the works of the besiegers, and in efforts of the enemy to strengthen themselves, one of which consisted in the sinking of several vessels before the harbour of Alexandria; some skirmishes took place between companies of Arabs serving the interests of the opposite parties, and a small body of British troops surprised, and killed or captured a division of one hundred Frenchmen near the redoubt des Bains, while the cavalry were enabled to charge on the plain almost close to the walls.

Aug. 26. The works on every side being at length so far advanced as to render further resistance rather a monument of obstinacy than a proof of courage, General Menou sent by an Aid-de-Camp a letter, requesting an armistice for three days, in which he might draw up articles of capitulation, to which the British Commander readily assented.

29th. At the expiration of this term, however, the besieged general requested a delay of thirty-six hours, which General Hutchinson peremptorily refused, but was prevailed on to allow time till the next day at two o'clock.

30th. The proposals then received were in many respects inadmissible, but the alterations directed by General Hutchinson being assented to, the capitulation was signed, and ratified by Lord Keith.

By virtue of this compact, the French, in forty-eight hours after it was executed, delivered up the forts of Alexandria, with their ammunition and provisions; but every individual constituting a part of the French army, or attached to it by any relation, was allowed to preserve his private property; all the French and auxiliary troops were to be embarked at Alexandria or Aboukir for France within a limited time; not to be considered as prisoners, but to receive all the honours of war, and carry away their arms and baggage, with ten pieces of cannon, and they were to be conveyed to a French port in the Mediterranean.

The vessels in the harbour, consisting of one ship of sixty-four guns, one of fifty-two, one of fifty, one of forty-six, and two of twenty-six, and 200 sail of merchantmen were given up to the allies,

allies, and equally ſhared; the moiety which fell to the Engliſh being ſubdivided between the army and navy.

The members of the Inſtitute were allowed to carry with them all the inſtruments of art and ſcience which they brought from France; but the Arabian manuſcripts, ſtatues, and other collections which had been made for the republic, were to be conſidered as public property, and ſubject to the diſpoſal of the generals of the combined army. In conſequence of this arrangement many valuable antiquities, and curious manuſcripts, collected by the French, became Britiſh property, and have been ſince preſerved in the proper repoſitories.

The garriſon which marched out of Alexandria in conſequence of this capitulation, conſiſted of 10,528 military, and 685 perſons belonging to the civil department; among the military 396 were Copts, Syrians, and Greeks, and 1627 ſick and invalids. The town was defended by three hundred and twelve pieces of cannon, chiefly braſs, and ſeventy-ſeven were found in the ſhips of war, many of which had been put on board latterly. In the powder magazines were left 14,102 filled gun cartridges, and 195,218 pounds of powder in barrels.

Such was the termination of the campaign in Egypt, a campaign highly glorious to the Britiſh arms, and eminently gratifying to the Britiſh nation. Honours were liberally beſtowed on the army and navy collectively, and on the individuals moſt particularly diſtinguiſhed, in teſtimony of admiration and gratitude both from the Engliſh and Ottoman government *. Yet it has been aſſerted that theſe burſts of applauſe were occaſioned rather by the novelty of ſeeing ſucceſs attached to a Britiſh expedition, than by the difficulty or importance of the ſervice, or the ſkill or valour diſ-

* Theſe honours are enumerated in the following order:—
A monument to the memory of Lieutenant General Sir Ralph Abercromby, K. B. a peerage to his widow, and a penſion of two thouſand pounds per annum. The thanks of both Houſes of Parliament to the army and navy for their conduct in the firſt three actions, and repeated on the final ſucceſs of the expedition. A circular letter from his Royal Highneſs the Commander in Chief. Major General Hutchinſon firſt inveſted with the Order of the Bath, together with the rank of Lieutenant General in the Mediterranean, and ſubſequently created a Britiſh Peer, with a penſion of two thouſand pounds per annum. Major General Coote, ſecond in command, inveſted with the Order of the Bath. Major General Cradock inveſted with the Order of the Bath. Admiral Lord Keith, K. B. created a Britiſh Peer. Each regiment allowed to carry in its own colours the emblem of the Sphinx, and to have the word Egypt inſcribed. To perpetuate the ſignal ſervices rendered by the Egyptian army to the Ottoman empire, the Grand Signior eſtabliſhed an Order of Knighthood, which he named the Order of the Creſcent. In the firſt claſs are Lieutenant General Lord Hutchinſon, K. B. Major General Sir Eyre Coote, K. B. Admiral Lord Keith, K. B. Rear Admiral Sir Richard Bickerton, Bart. Major General Baird, and the Earl of Elgin. The ſtar worn on the breaſt is ſuperbly irradiated with diamonds, and the centre conſiſts of a ruby, on which are a creſcent, and a ſmall ſtar in diamonds; the ribbon is a deep orange. In the ſecond claſs are the other General Officers and Naval Officers of equal rank. And gold medals of different ſizes have been given to all the Officers of the army, according to their reſpective ranks. Theſe medals have on one ſide a creſcent and ſtar, and on the reverſe the Sultan's name with the date of the year.

played. Poſterity will not probably concur in a judgment ſo harſh. The renown and ſkill of the army to which the Engliſh were oppoſed will in the firſt place be conſidered, and although the employment of that army was on ſome occaſions injudicious through ignorance in the commander in chief, and faction in the ſubordinate generals, yet, in the field, every individual felt inſpired with his accuſtomed love of renown, and had all the benefits of acquired knowledge; and in the field they were defeated by the Engliſh, and that in large parties, as well as in ſmall, and notwithſtanding their great ſuperiority in local knowledge, in ſeaſoning, in cavalry, and frequently in numbers. The campaign in Egypt ſhews the Britiſh troops ſurmounting every difficulty of military ſervice; effecting a landing in an unknown country, in the face of a well diſciplined enemy; engaged in battles under every poſſible circumſtance; imparting diſcipline to irregular allies, and courage to auxiliaries uſed to conſider their opponents invincible; conducting ſieges, and performing tedious marches, accommodating themſelves to every ſpecies of character, and making themſelves beloved for humanity and juſtice, no leſs than reſpected for valour and conduct; patient and indefatigable in diſappointment, in ſickneſs, and in want, yet equally mild, benevolent, and modeſt in the moment of ſucceſs, and the day of triumph. Whoever ſhall duly conſider theſe circumſtances, and add to them the reflections which muſt naturally ariſe from the ſcene, ſo peculiar to fame and glory, in which the troops were engaged, muſt be deemed rather faſtidious than juſt if he heſitates to allow that the expedition to Egypt forms a glorious feature in the character of Britain, and an intereſting paſſage in the annals of man.

One of the articles in the capitulation of Alexandria allowed Menou to ſend directly to Toulon a veſſel with intelligence of the event, and its arrival, in all probability haſtened the concluſion of a preliminary treaty of Peace between Great Britain and France. The negotiations had been carried on during the whole ſummer with various hopes, and interrupted by different impediments; but on the 1ſt of October all difficulties were ſurmounted, and Lord Hawkeſbury on behalf of the Britiſh, and Lewis William Otto on behalf of the French government, ſigned the preliminaries, and the event was immediately announced to the commercial world by a meſſage from the ſecretary of ſtate, and to the public at large in the Gazette. The treaty obliged Great Britain to reſtore to the republic and its allies all poſſeſſions and colonies occupied or conquered during the war, except the Iſland of Trinidad, and the Dutch poſſeſſions in Ceylon. The Cape of Good Hope to be a free port, and Malta to be reſtored to the order; but for the purpoſe of ſecuring its independence it was to be placed under the guaranty and protection of a third power to be agreed on in the definitive treaty. Egypt was to be reſtored to the Porte; the poſſeſſions of the Queen of Portugal to remain intire, the French to evacuate Naples and the Roman States, and the Engliſh Porto Ferrajo,

rajo, and all iſlands and ports which they occupied in the Mediterranean, or in the Adriatic; the French were to acknowledge the republic of the ſeven Iſles, and all ſequeſtrations laid in either country on the ſubjects of the other power were to be removed.

Such were the principal articles in this treaty, on which any obſervations in this place would only anticipate the debates and publications which it will be neceſſary to notice in a ſubſequent volume. The preliminaries being ratified at Paris, General Lauriſton was employed to convey them to London. On his arrival the moſt violent joy was manifeſted by the populace; his horſes being taken from his carriage, he was drawn by the rabble through many of the principal ſtreets; a general illumination took place, attended with the uſual demonſtrations of reſentment againſt thoſe who refuſed to concur in the general exhibitions of ſatisfaction.

Oct. 10.

The Marquis Cornwallis was appointed miniſter plenipotentiary on behalf of Great Britain to attend a congreſs, which it was underſtood would aſſemble at Amiens for the purpoſe of arranging a definitive treaty with all the nations againſt which England had been engaged; but the ſyſtem of Peace beginning already to be acted on, hoſtilities ceaſed on ſhore, and captures were diſcontinued at ſea, and before the end of the year the intercourſe of Great Britain with France, Holland, and Flanders was reſtored to its uſual channel by means of the poſt.

CHRONICLE

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CHRONICLE.

JANUARY.

1st. BY acts of the respective legislatures, the union of Great Britain and Ireland commenced with the new century, and his Majesty held a grand council at St. James's Palace: present, their R. H. H. the Prince of Wales, the Dukes of York, Clarence and Kent; the Archbishop of Canterbury; the Lord Chancellor, the Bishop of London; the Duke of Portland; Marquis of Salisbury; Earls Camden, Chatham, Leicester, Westmoreland, Cardigan, Spencer, Gower, Macartney, and Chesterfield; Lords Falmouth, Glenbervie, Auckland, Grenville, Cathcart, Walsingham, and Hawkesbury; the Master of the Rolls; Sir William Hamilton, and Sir S. Cotterel; Messr. Pitt, Dundas, Windham, Steele, W. Dundas, T. Grenville, J. Villiers, Ryder, Fawkner, and Grenville, who were, agreeably to the act of union, sworn in of his Majesty's most honourable privy council. At a quarter past three they broke up, and on a signal given from the gardens of the palace, the park guns fired; they were answered by those of the tower, in honour of this memorable event. The bells of the churches were rung; the Royal Union standard was hoisted at the Tower, the Union flag at St. Martin's steeple, the Union jack on the parade in front of the Horse Guards, and a new standard in the court yard at St. James's.

A proclamation was issued, declaring his Majesty's pleasure, that his royal stile and titles shall be expressed in Latin by these words, GEORGIUS TERTIUS, *Dei Gratia, Britanniarum Rex, Fidei Defensor:* and in English; GEORGE *the* THIRD, *by the Grace of God of the united Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith:* that the arms or ensigns armorial of the said united kingdom shall be quarterly; first and fourth, England; second, Scotland; third, Ireland; that there shall be borne therewith on an escutcheon of pretence, the arms of his Majesty's dominions in Germany, ensigned with the electoral bonnet. That the standard of the united kingdom shall be the same quartering as before declared: that the union flag shall be azure, the crosses saltires of St. Andrew and St. Patrick, quarterly per saltire, counter charged argent and gules; the latter fimbriated of the second; surmounted by the cross of St. George

of the third, fimbriated as the ſaltire: that the dies for money, and for ſtamp-duties, ſhall continue in their preſent form till further proclamation.

Another proclamation, directed alterations to be made in the book of common prayer. In the title page, inſtead "of the church of England;" it is to be read "of the united church of England and Ireland;" the prayer for the high court of parliament, the form of ordaining and conſecrating of biſhops, prieſts, and deacons; and a few other paſſages in the different prayers and ſervices are conformably changed.

Another proclamation, directed the obſervance of a general faſt throughout England and Ireland on the 13th of February; and by another proclamation, it was to be obſerved in Scotland on the 12th.

The new great ſeal was ſhewn to his Majeſty and the privy council. The Lord Chancellor preſented the purſe, which had been altered; and ſpecimens of dies for a new coinage were alſo exhibited.

The arms on the royal carriages were altered; the *fleurs de lis* being omitted, and in their ſtead the electoral cap introduced; the ſhamrock is alſo repreſented in the different orders.

8th. *Dublin Caſtle, Jan.* 1.—In celebration of the union, the guns of the ſalute battery in the Phœnix park were fired, and the royal ſtandard of the united kingdom was diſplayed on Bedford tower.

Council Chamber, Jan. 5.—His Majeſty's royal letters of the 27th December, 1800, were read, declaring that the ſeveral members ſworn and admitted of his Majeſty's privy council of Ireland, ſhould, after the union, continue to be members of the council for that part of the united kingdom called Ireland.

10th. The ſtandard of the united kingdom is thus marſhalled:

1ſt. In four great quarters are, On the dexter ſide, in a field *gules*, three lions paſſant guardant in pale *or* for England.

2d. *Azure* a harp *or* ſtringed *argent* for Ireland.

On the ſiniſter ſide; 3d. Field *or* lion rampant, within a double treſſure, flowered, counter flowered with fleurs de lis, *gules* for Scotland.

4th. Field *gules* two lions paſſant guardant *or* for Brunſwick, his Majeſty's paternal coat.

In baſe *gules*, a horſe current argent for Hanover.

The ſhield *gules*, ſemé of hearts *or* ſurmounted with an electoral cap proper.

Theſe are to be the arms in all official ſeals; in all which the Engliſh roſe, the Scotch thiſtle, and the Iriſh ſhamrock are conjoined, ſpringing from one ſtem.

The union flag is compoſed of the three orders of St. George, St. Andrew, and St. Patrick.

The ſeveral ornaments of his Majeſty's ſtate, in parliament and elſewhere, are to be the badges above referred to.

12th. On the coroner's inqueſt held on the body of Mr. Theophilus Smith, who a few days ſince ſhot himſelf in Stafford gaol, the following evidence was given: The principal turnkey depoſed that ſome time ago, Smith, having ſcalded his leg, was removed to the infirmary in the gaol. The gaoler directed, that if Mrs. Smith

came to see him, she should not stay more than a quarter of an hour, and that witness should not leave them alone; about eleven o'clock or a little before on the ensuing morning, Mrs. Smith, accompanied by her child and Miss Kent, went into the gaol, and witness went with them into the infirmary; the deceased said he had something to say to Mrs. Smith, and asked witness to walk into the passage, which he did, and was very soon followed by Miss Kent. In two or three minutes, Mr. Smith also came out, and went into a cell, where he remained a short time, and then came back, kissed his daughter, walked very fast along the passage into the infirmary, and shut the door; witness followed him slowly. As soon as the door was shut two pistols went off in immediate succession; witness going into the infirmary found Smith lying on the floor; Mrs. Smith was coming towards the door, saying, "I am shot! I am shot!" Witness seeing the pistols on the floor, said, "I hope you did not procure these instruments?" she answered, "No indeed, I did not as I am a dying woman!"—It also appeared on the evidence of another witness, that Smith desired his wife to procure him a brace of pistols, about ten weeks since, which she refused.—The jury returned a verdict, *felo de se*, and the body was buried in a public road.

14th. The Old Bailey sessions commenced before the Judges Lawrence, Thompson, and Graham, the Recorder, Lord Mayor, and the usual officers of the court.

15th. A general court of proprietors of India stock confirmed a resolution of the court of directors, granting to the Marquis of Wellesley an annuity of 5000*l.* for 20 years, to commence 1st September, 1798, the day on which the treaty with the Soubah of the Decan was concluded.

The Marquis of Wellesley, with the concurrence of the East India company, has established an university at Calcutta, on an extensive scale and regulated on the most useful principles. It will contain professors for the ancient languages, with the Persian, Hindoo, &c. and for every branch of science and literature. The professors are to be obliged to read lectures in their respective departments.

17th. A proclamation was issued laying an embargo on all Russian, Danish, and Swedish ships and vessels in the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, together with all persons and effects on board.

19th. Her Majesty's birth-day was celebrated; at one o'clock, her Majesty held a court at St. James's palace, when the ode for the new year was performed in the anti-chamber adjoining the drawing room, and a congratulatory oration delivered by his Grace the Archbishop of Canterbury. On this occasion a new crimson velvet canopy and throne were put up in the great council chamber, the royal arms of the union being beautifully embroidered and decorated with diamonds.

THE KING'S PLUME OR AIGRETTE.—This magnificent plume which was worn by his Majesty, is a present from the grand Signior, and arrived from Constantinople in the course of the preceding week. It was an ornament of extraordi-

nary beauty and novelty. Riſing from the hat, to which it is affixed, the firſt part is a knot of brilliants, compoſed in a ſtyle of elegant ſimplicity. This ſerves as a root or baſis from which the principal ſtems and ſupporters of the ornament, conſiſting of ſprigs of laurel, and ſpiral branches of diamond, ſpring up. A little above the knot is a ſuperb creſcent of brilliants, remarkable for their ſize and the fineneſs of their quality. Out of it riſe five ſpiral branches of the ſame materials, and between each a ſprig of laurel compoſed of diamonds, reaching to the ſame height as the ſpires; from the top of each branch is ſuſpended a ſtring of ſix diamonds as large as a pea; the faſhion of India cut drops, and beneath the creſcent, ſtrings of diamonds, ſimilar in quality and conſtruction, and of the ſame number as thoſe above, hang down from each of the exterior ſtems. On each ſide of the creſcent are two flags, repreſenting the colours of England and Turkey. The Engliſh flag on each ſide is in front, and the Turkiſh appears in the back ground. The colours are repreſented by pink and plain diamonds; the ſtandards are confirmed by a knot of ſmall pink brilliants. Over the flags and on the centre is the imperial crown of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland executed in ſmall brilliants. From the back of the ornament ſprings up a bunch of heron's feathers. They are perfectly ſtraight, not quite ſo broad as the ordinary feathers of a cock's tail, and about twelve inches long. The colour is black, which is eſteemed the moſt rare, and is peculiarly adapted to the diſplay of the brilliants, for which, when viewed in ſome directions, they appear as a ground. From thence it appears, that this ornament, an unique in magnificence, is a compoſition of parts of a very different nature, compriſing the plume, the cheling, and the bouquet. In this ſtructure the part immediately connected with the creſcent is the bouquet, or, as this ſplendid article is called in Turkey, the ottoman; and the creſcent is deſigned as a baſket in which its beauties are arranged and unfolded. The bunch of heron's feathers alone is eſtimated at 1000*l.* owing not ſo much to the ſcarcity of that bird, as to the circumſtance of its having only two ſuch feathers in its plumage. The plume contains about a hundred of them.

19th. The Union Club met for the firſt time at Cumberland Houſe. The deſign of this ſociety is to ſerve as a point for the conſolidation of the leading intereſts of both countries.

22d. At a ſitting of the royal ſociety, ſome valuable books, magnificently bound, were preſented to the ſociety from the national inſtitute of France. A letter of compliment accompanied this preſent, ſigned Bonaparte, preſident of the national inſtitute, and firſt conſul of France; and on the letter was a finely executed vignette, repreſenting liberty ſailing on the open ocean in a ſcollop ſhell, with the following motto: 'Liberté de Mer.' Sir Joſeph Banks read the letter, and put the queſtion, that a letter of thanks be returned to Bonaparte, which was unanimouſly carried.

A maniac was taken into cuſtody at Buckingham Houſe, for attempting forcibly to enter the palace.

On

On being asked his business, he said, he had written a note on Wednesday morning to the Princesses, promising to accompany them to the play that evening, and he came to know why he had received no answer. His name is Palmer Hurst. It appeared on his examination, that he formerly possessed a considerable property at Walton-upon-Thames. He was committed to Tothill-fields Bridewell to be taken particular care of.

Extraordinary birth.—At Norton Lees, the wife of a blacksmith named George Pindar, was delivered of two boys and a girl, all likely to do well. The mother, who is not 19 years of age, is fast recovering.

23d. At the Old Bailey the Recorder passed sentence of death on Thomas Coffee for stealing bank notes; William Cross, James Riley, Robert Nutts, and Joseph Roberts, for highway robberies; Andrew Branning for a burglary; James Wooldridge for uttering counterfeit bank notes; John Christopher for a burglary; Thomas Pevett, and Joseph Kemp, for sheep-stealing; and John Robinson for a burglary. — Twenty-seven are to be transported for seven years; four were ordered to be imprisoned twelve months; twenty for six months; four for three months; and others to be publickly whipped and discharged. Judgment on James Leach, Charles Houghton, and Benjamin Pooley, was postponed until next sessions.

26th. The following official particulars of the explosion on board the Theseus, are extracted from the letter of the commanding officer to Sir Sidney Smith, dated in Syria Bay, the 15th of May, 1800.

'It is with extreme concern I have to acquaint you, that yesterday morning, at half past nine o'clock, twenty 36-pound shells, and fifty 18-pound shells, had been got up and prepared for service, by Captain Miller's order, the ship then alone off Cesaria; when in an instant, owing to an accident that we have not been able to discover, the whole was on fire, and a most dreadful explosion took place: the ship was immediately in flames in the main rigging and mizen-top, in the cockpit, the tiers, several places about the main-deck, and various parts of the ship; the danger was very imminent, and required an uncommon exertion of every one to get under so collected a body of fire as made its appearance, and I have the happiness to add, that our exertions were crowned with success, the fire got under, and the ship most miraculously preserved: and here I feel myself called upon to declare how much obliged I am to all the officers and ship's company; but more particularly to Lieutenant Summers, Mr. Atkinson, master, and the officers and men, whose assistance on this occasion was truly great, and enabled us to get the better of so great a calamity. Our loss from the explosion, I lament to say, has been very great, and Captain Miller, I am sorry to add, is of the number killed, which amounts to 26, drowned 10, and 45 wounded. The whole of the poop and after part of the quarter deck is entirely blown to pieces, and all the beams destroyed; eight of the main-deck beams also broke, which fell down and jammed the

tiller; all the wardrobe, bulk-heads, and windows, entirely blown in pieces, and the ſhip left a perfect wreck; in ſhort, a greater ſcene of horror and devaſtation could not be produced; and we are all truly grateful to God Almighty for his moſt ſignal preſervation in ſaving us from a danger ſo very great and alarming.'

26th. The caſe of the journeymen taylors, who have ſo long ſtood out for an increaſe of wages from 25 to 30 ſhillings per week, came on to be heard before Alderman Brook Watſon, (as *locum tenens* for the Lord Mayor), the Recorder, Sir William Anderſon, and three other Aldermen. Mr. Gurney was heard on behalf of the journeymen, and the Common Serjeant for the maſters. The court examined three of the principal taylors on behalf of the maſters, and three of the principal workmen on behalf of the journeymen. The maſters all ſwore that they conſidered 25s. a week, a fair, juſt, and reaſonable allowance, conſidering all the circumſtances of the times, and that the trade had increaſed ſince 1795, as alſo the number of workmen. The three workmen, on the contrary, depoſed, that they could not live in comfort, and ſupport their families decently, under 30s. a week: they gave an account of their houſes of call, and their general ſyſtem of proceeding. Every houſe of call had three books, on which the workmen were rated, according to the length of their reſidence in London; and thoſe who were on the laſt or third book could not procure employment until all thoſe on the preceding books were ſerved. Each member paid 2d. a week at his particular houſe of call for this privilege; which ſum went to create a fund for the ſupport of the ſick and infirm, and no others. Thoſe who ſtruck, and would not work under 30s. were called *flints*: they were alſo called the *honourable men*, and would not work on the ſame board with thoſe who ſhould take leſs than 30s. and who were called *dungs*. The Recorder gave judgment; that the journeymen ſhould be allowed 27s. a week, and double that ſum, or 54s. in caſe of a general mourning.

27th. A dreadful fire broke out in a factory of Meſſ. Littlewood and Kirby in *Mancheſter*. The factory was ſix ſtories high; the firſt three were uſed for ſpinning cotton, the fourth for ſpinning flax, and the fifth and ſixth for cotton. From the ground to the fourth ſtory were regular ſtairs, but thence to the fifth and ſixth the people employed were obliged to aſcend by ſtep-ladders, through trap-doors. About ſix in the evening, while all the factory was at work, one of the men took a candle into the dreſſing room, or ſome other place where there was a great quantity of flax, and by accident ſet fire to a ſmall quantity; the flames immediately communicated to the other flax in the room, and though he, and another man threw themſelves upon it, and tried every method they could to extinguiſh it, their endeavours were fruitleſs, and they were obliged to make the beſt of their way out. One of the men ran up the firſt ſtep-ladder to alarm the people in the fifth ſtory; but there being a great noiſe in the factory, occaſioned by the machinery, he had ſcarcely made them underſtand him, before the flames were at his back, and he was obliged

to

to jump down and run through them. He was followed by about 6 or 7 out of this room, who alſo got through the flames. Some threw themſelves out of the windows, where they met with inſtant death, in conſequence of the great height from which they fell. Only one man, who made this attempt, and who had the precaution to take ſome light ſubſtance in his arms, which in ſome meaſure broke his fall, ſurvived; but he is badly hurt. Eleven people, who were in the upper ſtory, were burnt to death. No leſs than 28 dead bodies have been found under the ruins, and more are expected to be diſcovered. The remains of ſome of theſe poor creatures have been found, but there is not more than one that can be recognized. Beſides the number that have periſhed, ſeven were taken to the infirmary ſeverely burnt and wounded.

28th. At the Public office, Bow-ſtreet, Jane Sellwood and T. Pallett were committed on charges of ſtealing dogs and killing them for their ſkins. In a back room of their houſe in St. George's fields were found the carcaſſes of thirty dogs, which had been recently killed and ſkinned, and beneath the floors of the ſeveral rooms were the bodies of numerous dogs in a ſtate of putridity. Next day, S. Merryfield, alias Sadler, was committed on ſimilar charges.

The rotation at Bow-ſtreet Police office has been thus altered; Sir W. Addington has retired on a penſion; Mr. Ford takes the lead, and Mr. Graham is removed from Hatton Garden. Days of ſitting; Monday and Thurſday, Mr. Ford; Tueſday and Friday, Mr. Bond; Wedneſday and Saturday, Mr. Graham.

Mr. Waddington for engroſſing hops, was adjudged to pay a fine of 500*l.* to be impriſoned for one month, and till ſuch fine ſhall be paid.

29th. Another large factory at Mancheſter, belonging to Mr. Salſbury, was burnt down, and there was great difficulty in ſaving the people at work. One poor woman fell a victim to the flames.

31ſt. The ſale of fine wheaten bread is prohibited from this day; and brown bread will conſequently be generally uſed.

The deplorable ſituation of the French priſoners of war in this country has been for ſome time known. To efface any unfavourable impreſſion which may have thus been made againſt the Engliſh government in this country or on the continent of Europe, a long correſpondence on the ſubject has been publiſhed by miniſtry; from which it appears that the chief Conſul refuſes to ſupply the priſoners with clothes, although we have paid for the cloathing all our countrymen, priſoners in France.

Some workmen digging in the front of Major Manſel's houſe at Coſgrove, near Stony Stratford, in Northamptonſhire, found, one foot and a half under ground, an urn, containing 60 ſilver denarii, very old, but in good preſervation. A few weeks before they dug up a human ſkeleton near the ſame place.

Lately, between two and three hundred pieces of ancient ſilver coin were diſcovered in a tan-yard in Stafford, about a yard below the ſurface of the ground. They were contained in a ſmall jug, and are

in excellent preſervation. They appear to have been coined during the reigns of Etheldred, Canute, and Hardiknute, and have lain there, it is ſuppoſed, full 700 years.

Reſpecting the loſs of the Dromedary ſtore-ſhip, of 24 guns, near Trinidad, an American paper of the 5th December gives the following detail:—In conſequence of an intimation communicated to General Greene, commanding at Grenada, that fourteen privateers, with a conſiderable number of troops, had ſailed from Guadaloupe, as was ſuppoſed againſt Trinidad, the Dromedary was ordered to take on board the ſecond Weſt India regiment, to intercept them. In three days they made the gulph of Parca, and entered the Bocas di Elnevos, forming part of the iſland of Trinidad; but the ſucceeding night a gale of wind came on, by which the ſhip was diſmaſted, and ſhortly after reduced to a mere wreck. In this ſituation the captain put four ladies and ſome children, under charge of the ſecond lieutenant, into the cutter; and although the ſea ran tremendouſly high, they providentially reached Trinidad: another officer was diſpatched in the jolly boat, and, after rowing all night, made the land, about twenty-eight miles diſtant. The governor ſent off twelve or thirteen ſmall veſſels to the wreck, and ſucceeded in ſaving the lives of all on board. The captain and officers have been tried at Martinique for the loſs of the veſſel, and honourably acquitted.

The manufactory of Sir Matthew Boulton and Co. at Soho, near Birmingham, was lately broke into by five men, whoſe object was to plunder the mint. Sir Matthew, having been informed of the deſign by his watchmen, had ſtationed twenty conſtables to receive them; the thieves were ſuffered to take ſome marked gold, when the conſtables ruſhed on them, and, after a deſperate conflict, ſecured four; the fifth, though ſeverely wounded, made his eſcape, and is ſuppoſed to have carried with him about 150 guineas.

Population and Wealth of Great Britain.—Mr. Grellier ſtates the whole number of acres in England and Wales to be 46,916,000; and in Scotland, 26,000,000. Mr. Beeke endeavours to prove that in the whole extent of England and Wales there are really no more than 38,500,000; and that Scotland, with its adjacent iſlands, contains about 21,000,000 acres. Mr. Grellier computes the inhabitants of Great Britain, at 7,000,000. Mr. Beeke, that the population of England and Wales is not much leſs than 11,000,000, and that it is on the increaſe. Mr. Grellier ſtates the income at 130,570,000. Mr. Beeke eſtimates it at 218,000,000*l.* Mr. Grellier values the whole capital of the country at 1,298,607,000*l.* Mr. Beeke ſtates it 2,300,000,200*l.* And of our foreign poſſeſſions 100,000,000*l.*

A phyſician of New Bedford, has communicated to the public the ſucceſsful reſult of two experiments in curing the *locked jaw* by means of *electricity*. Previous to the application of the electrical fluid, recourſe had been had to bleeding, cathartics, and antiſpaſmodics, the warm bath, and opium applied internally and externally, without the leaſt effect on either caſe. But a ſmall receiver being filled and diſcharged

diſcharged through the jaws of the perſons affected, they flew open inſtantaneouſly. In one caſe the complaint was entirely removed by three ſhocks, in the other by an occaſional ſhock for a few days. Both the patients were ſtrong and healthy perſons, the one a man and the other a woman, and the mode of treating them had been ſimilar.

Mr. Jefferſon was elected preſident of the United States of America. The election was conducted with great warmth. The ballot was renewed thirty-one times during three ſucceſſive days. The thirty-ſecond time decided it in favour of Mr. Jefferſon; Mr. Burr, the next higheſt on the liſt, is to be vice-preſident. The election was declared by a ſalute of 16 guns from the battery at Waſhington.

The Peterſburg court gazette, of 30th December laſt, contained the following article:

"It is ſaid that his Majeſty the Emperor, perceiving that the European powers cannot come to an accommodation, and wiſhing to put an end to a war which has raged eleven years, has conceived the idea of appointing a place to which he will invite the other potentates, to engage, together with himſelf in ſingle combat, in liſts which ſhall be marked out; for which purpoſe they ſhall bring with them, to act as their eſquires, umpires, and heralds, their moſt enlightened miniſters, and able generals; as Thugut, Pitt, and Bernſtorff. He will bring on his part Counts Pahlen and Kutuſoff."

On this article, the editor of the Hamburg newſpaper, after inſerting it by order of the Ruſſian miniſter there, adds the following obſervation, written by Kotzebue, the celebrated dramatiſt, and dictated to him verbatim by the Emperor Paul:

"It is not known whether this rumour is to be depended upon; mean while it does not ſeem to be altogether without foundation, as it bears the mark of what has often been imputed to him."

Died.—2d January, at Berne, of the wounds he received from the French ſoldiers many months ſince, on their irruption into Switzerland, Jean Gaſpar Lavater, the celebrated phyſiognomiſt. He had loſt the uſe of ſpeech, and even his underſtanding, for 24 hours before his deceaſe. The death of his ſiſter-in-law, to whoſe houſe he had cauſed himſelf to be carried in his laſt moments, ſeems to have accelerated his own. A few days before his end he dictated verſes, which were read in the preſence of his pariſhioners. He was an humble country clergyman, of good education, a warm fancy, and a natural acuteneſs of diſcernment. His perſpicuity of intellect was aſſociated with weakneſs of ſenſibility and imagination. He was accidentally led to turn his attention to the expreſſion of human ſentiment and character in the varied conformation of the countenance, head, and other parts of the frame, in the complexion, in the habitual motions and attitudes, in the temperament of health, &c. He perceived, that in all theſe not only tranſient paſſion, but even the more permanent qualities of character, are often very diſtinctly expreſſed. He carried his obſervations, in this way, much farther than any other perſon. Succeſs inflamed his imagination; and he became an enthuſiaſt in the ſtudy of phyſiognomy.

The

The opinions relative to it, which he propagated, were a medley of acute obſervation, ingenious conjecture, and wild reverie. They were divulged by him in converſation, and in a multitude of fragments, which he and his diſciples ſoon aſſembled into volumes. Novelty, myſtery, and the dreams of enthuſiaſm, have inexpreſſible charms for the multitude: every one was eager to learn to read his neighbour's heart in his face. In Switzerland, in Germany, in France, even in Britain, many people became paſſionate admirers of the phyſiognomical ſcience of Lavater. His books, publiſhed in the German language, were multiplied by many editions. They were tranſlated into French, and all the pretenders to wit, taſte, and faſhion, among the lively women of that country, ſoon became diſtractedly fond of it. Two well-executed tranſlations naturalized the ſame books in the Engliſh language: this naturalization was requiſite to ſhew us the fallacy of his pretenſions, and, notwithſtanding the labours of Dr. H. Hunter and Mr. Holcroft, the writings of Lavater have been treated, in England, with great diſregard. In Germany, the phyſiognomical travels, or phyſiognomical Quixote, of the celebrated Muſæus the preceptor of Kotzebue, was written in ridicule of the dreams and purſuits of Lavater and his phyſiognomical diſciples: and, though to an Engliſhman its humour may not appear very happy, nor its wit admirably lively and pointed, yet its effect was, in Germany, powerful to the confuſion of Lavateriſm; and it raiſed its author, at once, to a ſplendid literary reputation. But, even after the firſt charm had been diſſolved, Lavater ſtill retained many diſciples. He continued to cultivate phyſiognomy, and was ſtill eagerly viſited by travellers paſſing near the place of his reſidence. By ſome of his adverſaries he was idly and unjuſtly accuſed as an inſidious jeſuit, who, under pretenſions about phyſiognomy, purſued ſome vaſt and miſchievous deſigns. His theological opinions took a colour from his phyſiognomical ones; and he became the abhorrence of the orthodox. His private life was ſimple, and even devoutly pious. His wife had become, as well as himſelf, a great phyſiognomiſt. He was always an early riſer, and uſed never to take his breakfaſt till he had, in his own mind, earned it by the performance of ſome literary taſk. He was, at the dawn of the French revolution, not at all adverſe to it. Even when it began to penetrate into Switzerland, he did not paſſionately declare againſt it; but, when he ſaw his native country become a prey to the exceſſes of jacobiniſm, his indignation was earneſtly rouſed, and he wrote ſome eloquent pieces againſt the oppreſſions of the French. He favoured the momentary counter-revolution. He was cruelly attacked and wounded by the French ſoldiers when that counter-revolution was ſuppreſſed. His death was in conſequence of thoſe wounds.

11th, At Somerton, in his 102d year, Joſeph Brain. He was a very hearty old man, had not loſt a tooth, could read the ſmalleſt print without ſpectacles, and walk from one end of the town to the other with the help of two ſticks.

26th, at Irvine, aged 101, Robert Smith, weaver. He wrought

at his trade till within three weeks of his death; was uſed to travel three miles every Sunday to church, and could read the print of a common pocket bible without the aſſiſtance of glaſſes. He lived very temperately, and was endowed with uncommon good health. About twelve months ago he travelled from Ayr to Irvine, a diſtance of twelve Engliſh miles, in the ſpace of three hours.

At Edinburgh, the Rev. Dr. Hugh Blair, profeſſor of rhetoric and Belles Lettres in that Univerſity, and one of the miniſters of the high church in that city, honorary member of the highland ſociety of London. He was born at Edinburgh, in April 1718, at the houſe of his father who was a Preſbyterian clergyman of reputation. His more ancient deſcent was from the family of Blair, one of the moſt reſpectable in Scotland. To the univerſity of his native city the doctor was indebted for his liberal education, where he alſo took up his degree of M. A. and entered into orders in 1742. It was not till he entered on the ſtudy of theology, that his genius began to expand. From that period his advances towards perfection, both as a writer and an orator, became very rapid, and when licenſed as a preacher of the preſbyterian church of Scotland, his diſcourſes from the pulpit were reckoned to excel all that had been hitherto heard in Scotland. In 1742, he was preſented to the benefice of Colleſſie, in Fifeſhire. From Colleſſie he was ſhortly tranſlated to be miniſter of Cannongate, in the city of Edinburgh, from thence he was ſucceſſively advanced to other eccleſiaſtical charges in the city, till in the year 1758, he was appointed firſt miniſter of the high church; the firſt clerical ſituation in the kingdom. At this period, he was complimented with the degree of D. D. of the univerſity of St. Andrew's, and in 1761, he became a profeſſor in the univerſity, and delivered *lectures upon the principles of literary compoſition.* Dr. Blair's undertaking was patronized by every lover of taſte and ſcience, and by ſuch general approbation added to the zealous endeavours of the well-known Henry Home Lord Kaimes, and David Hume, the hiſtorian, his Majeſty endowed a profeſſorſhip of rhetoric and Belles Lettres in the univerſity of Edinburgh, creating Dr. Blair firſt profeſſor. During twenty years he continued every winter the delivery of theſe lectures; when he reſigned and became profeſſor emeritus. While continuing to diſcharge the duties of his miniſterial capacity and profeſſor of the univerſity, the doctor alſo appeared in the character of an author. His firſt publication being, "A Critical Diſſertation on the Poems of Oſſian." In 1777, he publiſhed a volume of ſermons, which had been ſo much admired when delivered from the pulpit. The MSS. was ſent to Mr. Strahan, bookſeller, in London, who ſent one of the ſermons for Dr. Johnſon's opinion, who declared he had read it with more than approbation:— "To ſay it is good, is to ſay too little." The ſale of the book was very rapid, and, her Majeſty, on hearing one of the ſermons read by the late Earl of Mansfield, the patron of ſcottiſh genius, ſettled a penſion of 200*l.* *per annum* on the author, to which an addition of 100*l.* a year was made on his retiring

tiring from the lectureſhip of the univerſity. Four more volumes were publiſhed, and theſe well-known ſermons have been tranſlated into the French, Dutch, German, Hungarian, and Italian languages. In 1783, being far advanced in years, Dr. Blair retired from the exerciſe of public duties, his ſalary however was continued for life. At this epoch, he arranged his lectures for publication, which have been read with the ſame avidity as his ſermons, and tranſlated into the before-mentioned languages. In 1796, was publiſhed, "The Compaſſionate Beneficence of the Deity," a ſermon, preached before the ſociety inſtituted for the benefit of the ſons of the clergy, of the eſtabliſhed church of Scotland. As a private character, Dr. Blair was no leſs deſerving admiration; his manners were unaſſuming and his preferments the reward of virtue and literary attainments.

FEBRUARY.

2d. The houſehold, or brown bread, commenced ſelling excluſively; the aſſize of which is as follows:

Avoirdupois weight.	*lb.*	*oz.*	*dr.*	*To be ſold for.* *s.*	*d.*
The penny loaf to weigh	0	3	9		
The two-penny loaf	0	7	3		
The three-penny loaf	0	10	13		
The peck loaf -	17	6	0	6	5
The half-peck loaf	8	11	0	3	2½
The quartern loaf	4	5	8	1	7¼
The half-quartern loaf	2	2	12	0	9¾

No bread is to be ſold until it has been baked twenty-four hours at leaſt. The wheaten loaf muſt be marked with a large roman W. and every mixed loaf M. And it is further ordered that ſixpenny loaves are not to be made.

3d. A ſingular occurrence happened at *Chipping Sedbury*. A woman, named Hannah Palmer, wrote to a perſon at Briſtol, that ſhe had ſomething important to diſcloſe, and informed him that her father had died on the 24th of December laſt; and that, on the 26th following, ſhe dragged the body down the ſtairs, placed it on a wheelbarrow, and conveyed it in the night to the garden behind the houſe, where ſhe dug a grave, and buried it with her own hands. Information of the tranſaction was immediately given to the proper officers of the town, who ſent to the coroner. The body was taken up, and examined by two ſurgeons, who gave their opinion the deceaſed died a natural death; after a cool, patient, and impartial inveſtigation, which occupied upwards of ten hours, the jury returned a verdict, that the deceaſed died by the viſitation of God.

A lad aged about 14, only ſon of a merchant at *Minehead*, took a gun, with an intent to ſhoot blackbirds in a field adjoining the town; to his parents' ſurpriſe, he did not return that evening; next morning ſearch was made for him, and about a quarter of a mile from the houſe he was found dead. It is ſuppoſed that as he was going over a hedge, the gun accidentally went off and lodged its contents in his ſtomach. —Verdict, *accidental death*.

4th. The Lord Mayor held a court of common council at Guildhall; when Mr. Deputy Birch, moved an addreſs to the King, congratulating him on the union of the two kingdoms.

The motion was ſeconded by Mr. Deputy Leekey, and oppoſed by Mr. Waithman, who moved the

the previous queſtion, which Mr. Philips ſeconded; after ſome little debate the previous queſtion was put, and on a diviſion there appeared for it, 1 alderman, 33 commoners, 2 tellers—36. Againſt it, 7 aldermen, 48 commoners, 2 tellers—57. Majority 21. The original queſtion being put, was carried in the affirmative.

The court then appointed a committee to prepare the addreſs, aſſiſted by the law officers; it was agreed to, and ordered to be preſented to his Majeſty, ſitting on the throne, by the whole court. (It was preſented the 12th.)

9th. Mr. Abraham Newland, from the bank of England, read the following paper to the ſtock exchange:

"The governors of the bank are deſired to give public notice, that, although the preſent Chancellor of the Exchequer is about to retire from office, it is not his intention to reſign until the new adminiſtration is formed, and qualified to execute its public duties; and that he will raiſe the ſupplies for the current year at the time he intended, as if ſuch event had not taken place."

11th. Mr. Waddington received the judgment of the court of King's Bench, on his ſecond conviction of foreſtalling hops in the county of Kent, namely, a fine of 500*l.* and three months impriſonment.

Lady Pomfret exhibited articles of the peace againſt the earl. Her affidavit ſtated, that ſhe was married in 1793, and was allowed 2000*l.* per ann. pin-money, which ſum was ſecured upon part of her property, namely, 112,000*l.* in the three per cents.; that his lordſhip, to obtain poſſeſſion of this money, and to force her to give up her annuity, had uſed her extremely ill; and that in conſequence of threats of perſonal violence, ſhe had, in 1797, been obliged to execute a deed which affected her property to a large amount; that ſhe had inſtituted a ſuit in the eccleſiaſtical court againſt the earl for adultery and cruelty, had been obliged to leave his houſe and reſide with her relations, and now prayed the protection of the court. The next day the earl appeared in court, and gave recognizance, himſelf to the amount of 5000*l.* and two ſureties of 2500*l.* each, to keep the peace towards his wife, and to appear on the laſt day of hilary term 1802, to anſwer to the complaint preferred againſt him.

13th. Came on the election for a member to ſerve in parliament for Old Sarum, when John Horne Tooke, eſq. was elected in the room of Sir George Yonge, who accepted the chiltern hundreds. This circumſtance has turned the public attention to the queſtion of the eligibility of a perſon having been in holy orders to ſit in parliament.

A veſſel valuably freighted, belonging to Oxford, was laſt week upſet in the Thames, at Boveney Point, between Maidenhead and Windſor, by a ſudden guſt of wind, which at the ſame time agitated the water to ſuch extent, that a wave paſſed over the bow, and contributed to ſink her, notwithſtanding thirteen horſes were at the line and five men on board.

16th. A girl fifteen years of age was, a few days ſince, committed to Bodmin goal, charged by the Coroner's inqueſt with the murder

murder of her brother, a boy ten years old. They went from the neighbourhood of Helſtone into the country, begging; but on their return home, quarrelled about the diviſion of what they had collected, when, in the heat of anger, the girl twiſted a ſmall piece of ſtring round the boy's neck and ſtrangled him.

18th. Sir Charles Davers, at his late audit, had ſix quarts of punch ſerved up in a turnip ſcooped out for the purpoſe, and which meaſured in circumference one yard ſeven inches; the exterior was ornamented with ſeveral agricultural devices, and bore an inſcription in gilt letters, "God ſpeed the plough and give us plenty." The turnip when entire weighed 26 pounds.

His Majeſty was taken ill, the royal family were to have gone to the concert of ancient muſic. They did not go, and it was ſuppoſed that a few days remaining in the houſe would remove the cold and the accompanying fever. In the early part of the indiſpoſition, his Majeſty is ſaid to have had a conſiderable degree of drowſineſs—the cold and the fever in their progreſs put an end to that inclination. His Majeſty, however, was well enough, on Tueſday the 24th, to ſign the commiſſion for giving the royal aſſent to the brown bread bill. In the forenoon, the Lord Chancellor had an audience of the King, for the purpoſe of receiving his Majeſty's ſignature. During the afternoon and night the fever continued. His Majeſty's indiſpoſition having continued for ſeveral days, bulletins were regularly iſſued for the ſatisfaction of an anxious public.

23d. The Dublin mail brought the following communication reſpecting the reſignation of the Marquis Cornwallis:

DUBLIN, *Feb.* 18.

"It has been ſignified from the firſt authority in this kingdom, that the diſagreement in his Majeſty's council, reſpecting the affairs of Ireland, as ſtated in the London prints, had occaſioned the ſeceſſion of the miniſtry which has taken place; in conſequence of which the Marquis Cornwallis purpoſes to embark for England immediately after the celebration of her Majeſty's birth-night, in Dublin caſtle, the 26th of this month.

26th. The ſeſſion ended at the Old Bailey; when John Naſh, John Branning, James Barnes, William Clark, Hugh Tully, John Saunders, John Cole, and William Brown, alias Chalkley, ſeverally received ſentence of death; 25 were ordered to be tranſported; 15 to be impriſoned in Newgate; 7 at Clerkenwell; 11 publickly whipped; 8 privately; and 1 to be fined one ſhilling.

28th. The brig William of Sunderland, was taken by a privateer of 14 guns, off Bridlington. All the crew except three were taken out, and five Frenchmen put on board. The three Engliſhmen found means to choak the pumps with aſhes, and made the Frenchmen believe the ſhip was ſinking. They were willing to run for any port rather than go to the bottom, and brought the brig back to Sunderland roads on Sunday morning, with a ſignal for help, which they of courſe ſoon received. The Frenchmen were landed that evening, and have ſince been ſent to Durham gaol.

Louis

Louis XVIII. has at length obtained permiſſion of the King of Pruſſia to fix his reſidence at Warſaw, as a private individual, under the title of Count of Lille, and his niece under that of Counteſs de la Meilleray. The French emigrants were permitted to reſide at Konigſberg two months longer.

Some men digging gravel, half a mile above Levington creek, near Ipſwich river, diſcovered an urn, containing ſome hundred coins of Cordrun, Maximus, Poſthumus, and other emperors and empreſſes of that period.

Accounts from Sierra Leone to the 8th Jan. ſtate, that a very formidable inſurrection had prevailed amongſt the negroes and many of the Nova Scotians, and which would probably have proved fatal in the colony, but for the opportune arrival of a ſmall corps of troops with a body of Maroons, &c. Order had been perfectly reeſtabliſhed. Two of the inſurgents were killed; and three of the principals executed.

The public-houſes within the bills of mortality are ſaid to amount to 5204, of which 943 are in Surry; the average annual conſumption of ale and porter in theſe houſes is 1,132,147 barrels, which, at 4d per quart, exceeds 2,495,961*l.* Three million gallons of gin and compounds are likewiſe conſumed, coſting nearly 1,000,000*l*; in all about three millions and a half a year. Of this money, three millions are expended by the labouring people only, and eſtimated to amount to about 28*l.* for each family per annum.

The conſumption of the metropolis in fruit and vegetables exceeds one million pounds ſterling, per annum. There are about 10,000 acres under vegetables: 200 acres at Chelſea produce, on a low eſtimate, 200*l.* per acre; 500 acres about Batterſea, &c. 150*l.*; and 1300 in other directions, on the outſkirts of the metropolis, 200*l.* per acre. There are excluſively in Middleſex, 1800 acres of garden ground, chiefly cultivated by the plough; 3,500 acres in Surry; 1,700 in Kent, and 1000 in Eſſex, on the average producing 50l. per acre, and making in the whole 645,000l. a year. The fruit gardens are computed at 400,000l. a year. On many of theſe gardens upwards of ſixty cart loads of dung per acre are laid yearly.

Died, 5th February, in the fleſh-market at Newcaſtle, at the great age of 103, Margaret Robſon, who, except a weakneſs in her eye-ſight, had all her faculties to the laſt, and was never known to be afflicted with ſickneſs till that which terminated her protracted exiſtence.

At Leominſter, in Herefordſhire, Edmund Maſon, by birth a gentleman, and remarkable for being in ſpirit, integrity, diſorder of imagination, and even a ray of intellectual ability, the living repreſentative of the inimitable hero of Cervantes. He was generally known by the appellation of Sir Edmund Maſon. Though perfectly harmleſs, he was conſtantly accoutred in arms. He fancied himſelf the greateſt general of the age; related deeds, achieved by his arm in battle, which no other mortal could equal; believed that kings and emperors had vied in conferring on him every imaginable title and badge of honour. Maſon ſuppoſed, that he had enjoyed

joyed the confidential friendſhip and admiration of the late great Frederick of Pruſſia. From his foreign correſpondence, he told that immenſe remittances were ſent for the ſupport of his dignity; yet he was ever without money, from the difficulty, as he ſaid, of caſhing bills of exchange for millions. He was fond of muſic. He had a favourite horſe, equal, in height of bone and ſcantineſs, to Roſinante, who he thought could outſtrip the ſwifteſt race-horſe on the turf. He was decorous and dignified in manners, cleanly in his perſon, temperate in his diet. In love with the fancied princeſs of ſome undiſcovered iſland, he would not ſuffer one of the fair ſex about him to touch, even his little finger. His bed was a roomy wooden cheſt, from which his muſket was conſtantly levelled. He was in his latter years confined; but the confinement was reconciled to his mind, by the perſuaſion that he reſided in it as the governor of the caſtle. He was the author of the original plan for draining and incloſing the common of Widemarch, near Hereford.

In Guy's hoſpital, London, the once unfortunately celebrated Louiſa, or Lady of the Hay-ſtack; who, about 18 years ago, was found to have taken up her reſidence under that ſhelter, in the pariſh of Bourton, near Briſtol, in a ſtate of melancholy derangement. She then appeared to be under 20 years of age. This very extraordinary woman, whoſe "Tale of Woe" was firſt told to the public by Miſs Hannah More, has naturally ceaſed, for a conſiderable time paſt, to intereſt the general curioſity. During ſeveral days of her abode under the hay-ſtack, (from which ſhe at laſt permitted herſelf to be removed with reluctance,) ſhe was viſited, and irregularly fed, by the country people, till the hand of more happy ſympathy and compaſſion provided her better protection. As her name was unknown, ſhe was immediately diſtinguiſhed by that of Louiſa. It may be gratifying to many on this occaſion, to learn that during a conſiderable interval, in which ſhe afterwards remained in retirement, and before ſhe was admitted as incurable into the aſylum in which ſhe died, ſhe was chiefly ſupported by a voluntary ſubſcription, under the management of Miſs Hannah More and her ſiſters. Thoſe active advocates of humanity, having loſt the pecuniary aſſiſtance of moſt others, continued to ſupply the extra wants and accommodations of the poor ſolitary ſtranger, till her deceaſe. The ſame kind, and much the ſame degree of mental derangement, which the "Tale of Woe" deſcribed, remained with Louiſa to the laſt. In her general conduct ſhe exhibited the various common evidences of the moſt confirmed inſanity; which, in addition to the contraction of her limbs, from her expoſure to cold in the open field, and from her ſubſequent propenſity to remain inactive, rendered her an object of the ſtrongeſt pity. But her inſanity was uniformly remarkable in this, that, however diſordered and childiſh her affections and reſentment, ſhe never could be drawn into any explanation reſpecting her family, her connexions, or her country; however affable and unguarded ſhe might ſometimes appear, the moment any perſon put a queſtion, directly or indirectly,

relative to thoſe topicks, or made any alluſion to them, however diſtant, ſhe always changed countenance, aſſumed an air of ſuſpicion, grew grave, and inflexibly ſilent, or would inſtantly touch on ſome other ſubject. From her *accent*, ſhe was undoubtedly of German origin; but, though ſhe knew little of Engliſh, ſhe avoided converſing in any foreign language. Her manners and occaſional movements indicated ſuperior rank; and her frequent exclamations of *dear papa!* and *dear mamma!* in connexion with ideas of equipage and ornaments, led to that concluſion. Many endeavours were uſed, on the continent, to trace her family, by circulating her deſcription and ſtory in the public prints, but without effect.

A publican named Cooke, of Lowdham, Nottinghamſhire, was lately thrown from an aſs and killed;—he had attained the 102d year of his age, retained his faculties to an unuſual degree, and immediately previous to the accident which proved fatal to him, declared his life to be as good as any other in the country.

MARCH.

4th. The State priſoners, confined in the tower, the houſe of correction in Coldbath-fields, Tothill-fields bridewell, Shrewſbury, and other county gaols, were brought up to the Duke of Portland's office, when moſt of them were liberated on their own recognizance. Among theſe were Lord Cloncurry, Mr. Bonham, &c. One or two refractory perſons refuſing to enter any bail, and inſiſting on unconditional releaſe, were remanded. Thoſe brought from the country were allowed five pounds each to defray the expences of their journey home, and all were treated with the utmoſt civility and attention. Colonel Deſpard, Galloway, Lemaitre, and Hodgſon, who refuſed to enter into recognizance, were committed to Tothill-fields. The liberation was intirely voluntary on the part of government, as the act for ſuſpending the habeas corpus had not expired.

8th. At Wincheſter aſſizes, before Mr. Baron Thompſon and Mr. Juſtice Le Blanc, came on the trial of Lieut. Stapleton, of the 20th regiment, charged with the wilful murder of Enſign Grainger, in a duel. The trial occupied the attention of the court nearly eight hours, when, the jury after retiring for a ſhort time, pronounced a verdict of manſlaughter. The verdict was received with a general clapping of hands by a very crowded court.

An immenſe portion of that ſtupendous eminence the cliff, bordering the ſea, between Brighton and Sandgate, ſuddenly giving way, was precipitated below with great violence, and ſeveral ſmaller fragments have continued falling at different times ſince, ſome ſlight fiſſures and ſeparations of the ſurface being obſerved previous to their deſcent. The earth beneath the cliff ſeems to have ſunk originally, as there is a conſpicuous depreſſion of it in ſome parts, and conſiderable interſections in others. The foot-path to Sandgate, went acroſs the part which fell, and it was a providential circumſtance, that at the time it happened, which was a little after ten o'clock in

the morning, no one happened to be on the ſpot.

9th. On unflooring an old houſe in Capel-court, in order to build a new Stock Exchange, 290*l.* in caſh was found tied up in a ſtocking, ſuppoſed to have belonged to an old man who died in the houſe about two years ſince, literally of want, his parſimony being ſuch as to deny him a ſufficiency of food to ſupport nature.

11th. The bulletin of his Majeſty's phyſicians declared his Majeſty free from fever, and ſeeming only to require the time always neceſſary after ſo ſevere an illneſs for the recovery of his uſual health and ſpirits. His Majeſty dined with his family as uſual. Two horſes he was accuſtomed to ride at Windſor, were brought to town for him to take the air.

12th. The King walked in the gardens of the Queen's palace, and was ſome time engaged in reading diſpatches. The remedy to which, under Providence, the abatement of his fever is attributed, was a bag of hops, placed under his head, which, acting as a ſoporific, produced repoſe after ſeveral opiates had been tried in vain. The thought is aſcribed to Mr. Addington, who derived it from his father.

Several barrels of gunpowder in the ſtores of Meſſrs. M'Intoſh, Inglis, and Wilſon, in the centre of the town of Inverneſs, blew up; ſome houſes were razed to their foundation, others unroofed, and not one eſcaped injury. Fragments of the buildings were driven a great diſtance; three women and two children were buried in the ruins; and two Miſs Fraſers, of Fanellan, unfortunately paſſing, one was killed on the ſpot, and the other ſo deſperately wounded, as to render her death a deſirable event. Many other people were wounded, but not dangerouſly. The ſhock was felt many miles round.

17th. At the Chelmsford aſſizes 118 priſoners were tried, 28 of whom received ſentence of death.

When Robert Jewell, for burglary, on receiving ſentence, addreſſed the court. He ſaid, he was a farmer's ſon in Norfolk, and was decently educated. Until the age of 35, he led a virtuous and ſober life, fearing God and honouring the King, when he had the misfortune to become acquainted with perſons who were admirers of Paine's writings, which were put into his hands. He often read and conſidered them, and the plauſibility of the aſſertions and arguments overpowering his reaſon, he became a convert, and conſidered the ſcriptures as cunning fables, invented to impoſe on the generality of mankind for the benefit of a few. Having married and become the father of a family, and the hardneſs of the times obliging him to work early and late, he took that courſe of life which had brought him to the gallows. He was under great obligations to the chaplain attending the priſon, for opening his eyes and convincing him of the dangerous tenets he had imbibed, and teaching him the true doctrines of chriſtianity; he thanked God he was ſtopped ſhort in his wicked courſe, before he had committed the crime of murder, and hoped, through the merits of his Saviour, to be ſaved. But he did not deſpiſe life, and if mercy could be extended through the recommendation of his lordſhip, he would continue to

to pray to heaven for his gracious Sovereign, and endeavour again to be a uſeful and loyal ſubject; but if not, he would meet his fate with chriſtian reſignation, humbly truſting in the mercy of God; and begging moſt earneſtly that his children might be taken care of.

Mr. Baron Hotham ſpoke to the priſoner in a humane and affecting manner, and concluded with telling him, that mercy here could not be extended to him, conſiſtent with the due adminiſtration of the law, and that he muſt prepare himſelf to meet that awful moment when he muſt appear before another tribunal, where ſincere repentance and contrition might induce him to hope to meet with that mercy which he could not receive in this world.

A general court was held at the India houſe. The chairman acquainted the court, that the directors having conſidered, with the utmoſt regret, a letter they had received from the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, intimating his intention of relinquiſhing the ſituation of preſident of the board of commiſſioners for the affairs of India, and feeling the ſtrongeſt inclination to give ſome teſtimony of the high ſenſe they entertain of the eſſential benefit the company had derived from the unremitted exertion of that Right Hon. Gentleman's abilities in that ſtation for upward of ſixteen years, in addition to the important ſervices he rendered to the company previous to that period, they had unanimouſly reſolved,

'That he be requeſted to accept, during the exiſtence of the company's preſent limitation of their excluſive trade, of an annuity of two thouſand pounds, to be paid to him, his executors, or aſſigns.' The court unanimouſly confirmed the reſolution of the directors.

A female ſwindler, of the name of Robertſon, reſided lately at Blackheath, where ſhe had the addreſs to defraud various tradeſmen of property to the amount of 20,000*l.* and upwards. This impoſtor had a boarding-ſchool on Croom's-hill two years, during which time ſhe repreſented herſelf as heireſs to ſeveral large eſtates. In May laſt ſhe ſent to Mr. Creaſy, of Greenwich, whom ſhe informed, that her uncle, Alexander Stuart Robertſon, of Faſcally, was dead, and begged he would accompany her to an attorney, to arrange matters preparatory to her taking poſſeſſion. A few days afterwards, Mr. Creaſy lent her 2000*l.* until the ſettlement of her affairs at Faſcally. She took a houſe in the Paragon, which was in an unfiniſhed ſtate; and engaged bricklayers, carpenters, and painters, to finiſh the premiſes in the moſt expenſive ſtyle. While theſe improvements were going forward, Miſs Robertſon ſet up three carriages; and the latter end of June ſet off for Brighton, with four horſes and out-riders. On her return, Miſs Robertſon went to Hatchett's, and deſired him to make her an elegant chariot, with ſilver mouldings, and raiſed coronets of the ſame, by the Queen's birth-day, as her couſin, Mr. Secretary Dundas, intended to introduce her at court. Mr. Oakley, in Bond-ſtreet, was alſo applied to, to furniſh the houſe for 4000*l.* The drawing rooms were painted in water colours, the walls in landſcape. The looking glaſſes came to 1100*l.*; the principal bed 500*l.*

and every other article equally magnificent. During the furniſhing of the houſe, Mr. Oakley requeſted the ſum of 1000*l.* Miſs Robertſon felt hurt, and ſaid, if he had any doubts of having his money when her affairs were ſettled at Faſcally, he might apply to her ſiſter, Lady Paget, or to her couſin, the Biſhop of London; or to Sir Richard Hill. From theſe bold aſſertions, Mr. Oakley proceeded with the order; but, when nearly completed, he waited upon the Biſhop of London and Sir Richard Hill, who ſaid, they had no further knowledge of Miſs Robertſon than by a card, which a perſon of that name had been in the habit of leaving at the houſes of perſons of diſtinction. Upon this diſcovery, in February, Mr. Oakley ſued out a writ, and, with proper officers, his own men, and ſeveral carts, went down to Blackheath, and laid in wait till nine o'clock, (as Miſs Robertſon dined out,) when the carriage came home, but no Miſs Robertſon. From this circumſtance it appeared, that ſhe had received intimation of what was going forward, and would not return. Mr. Oakley, finding he could not take the body, got into the houſe, and diſrobed the manſion of its furniture by ſix o'clock the next morning. At nine in the morning came in an execution, by virtue of which the remainder of the property was ſold by auction on the premiſes.

20th. Intelligence was received of the intire loſs of his Majeſty's ſhip Invincible, of 74 guns, Captain Rennie, which ran aground on the Norfolk coaſt. The ridge of ſand is called the Hamondſburg, or Hippiſburg, and is ſituated about 14 miles from Winterton. The number of lives loſt amounts to upwards of 400, including the captain and the greater part of the officers; 195 only, out of the whole of the crew and paſſengers, having been ſaved from the wreck. Rear-Admiral Totty, who was proceeding in the Invincible to join the North Sea fleet, is happily among the ſurvivors. He arrived in town yeſterday afternoon, and immediately waited on the Lords of the Admiralty.

Of this truly lamentable event the following are particulars:

Extract of a letter from a midſhipman of his Majeſty's late ſhip the Invincible, Yarmouth, March 18.

"Only two days have elapſed ſince I laſt wrote to you, and in that ſhort ſpace the moſt melancholy accident has happened, namely, the total loſs of our ſhip. We ſet ſail from Yarmouth on Monday morning for the Sound, to join the fleet under the command of Admiral Sir Hyde Parker; and, about two o'clock in the afternoon, the ſhip ſtruck on a ſand bank, where ſhe beat moſt violently for upwards of two hours, when her maſts were cut away, and ſhe immediately got into deep water. Her anchor was then caſt, and we all thought ourſelves ſafe; for, notwithſtanding ſhe leaked conſiderably, the water gained but little upon us. Our ſignals of diſtreſs were heard and anſwered by a cutter, which immediately bore down to Yarmouth, to give intelligence of our diſtreſs; and we therefore hoped, with the aſſiſtance that ſhould arrive, to be able to ſave the ſhip, as well as ourſelves; but God ordained it otherwiſe. The rudder being unfortunately gone, the ſhip became unmanageable, and, in the evening, ſhe

ſhe again drove on the bank, when we all gave ourſelves up for loſt. Through God's providence, however, a fiſhing-ſmack, at this awful juncture, hove in ſight; and the admiral, myſelf, and two or three more, ſucceeded in getting on board of her; but the reſt, in endeavouring to do the ſame, loſt all the boats they were able to get overboard. In this melancholy condition ſhe remained till the following morning, when, ſhocking to relate, ſhe entirely ſunk; we being all the time ſpectators of the diſtreſsful ſcene, without any poſſible means of affording the ſufferers the leaſt aſſiſtance, as any attempt to that effect would only have involved ourſelves in the general calamity. By God's providence, however, the ſhip's launch, full of men, at length got clear of the wreck, and by her aſſiſtance we were enabled to ſave ſome others. In the whole, about 195 are ſaved. The greater part of the officers, including the captain, have unfortunately periſhed."

The Invincible firſt ſtruck upon the fatal bank between two and three in the afternoon. In this ſituation ſhe remained near three hours, when the mizen-maſt went by the board, and the main-maſt was immediately after cut away. The ſhip, to the infinite joy of the crew, then dropped from about three and a half, into 17 fathom water, where, however, unfortunately loſing her rudder, ſhe ſoon became unmanageable, and was again driven upon the bank. A fiſhing-ſmack now approached the wreck; on which two boats, belonging to the Invincible, were ordered out. On board one of theſe, the admiral, the purſer, four midſhipmen, three of the admiral's ſervants, and ſix or eight ſeamen, reached the fiſhing-ſmack in ſafety, as did alſo the other boat, full of people. Both of them immediately returned to the ſhip, but, on re-approaching the ſmack, one was forced away, and every perſon on board would inevitably have periſhed, had not a collier, which happened to be paſſing at this critical moment, happily picked them all up. This veſſel afterwards afforded every aſſiſtance that humanity urged, or that ſhe was capable of giving, and was the means of ſaving the lives of many of the crew. The fiſhing-ſmack, with the admiral on board, being unable to afford the leaſt aſſiſtance to the ſhip, remained at anchor during the whole of Monday night. On the approach of day, the maſter of this veſſel expreſſed an unwillingneſs to go any nearer the wreck; but Admiral Totty, in direct oppoſition to him, cauſed the cable to be cut, and immediately proceeded to the ſhip. Melancholy, however, to relate, while he was doing every thing of which human exertion is capable, to aſſiſt the unhappy people on board, the wreck once more got into deep water, and gradually ſunk, to the infinite diſtreſs of the admiral and the other ſpectators, who were nearly frantic with grief at this tremendous ſcene of human miſery and deſtruction. While the ſhip was thus rapidly going down, the launch was hove out; as many of the crew as ſhe could poſſibly hold, immediately jumped on board, and had only time to clear the poop, when the veſſel, with upwards of 400 ſouls, entirely diſappeared, and went to the bottom. A number of the un-

happy ſufferers attempted to get on board the already over-laden launch, but as no more could be permitted to enter, without the certain loſs of the whole, they were ſtruck away with the oars, and in a few ſeconds became wholly ingulphed in the pitileſs waters. Captain Rennie, after the ſhip had ſunk, attempted to ſwim to the launch, and, after a ſevere exertion, got within reach of the oars, when, exhauſted with fatigue, and unable to make any farther effort, he calmly reſigned himſelf to his fate. Lifting up his hands, as if to implore the bleſſing of Heaven, and immediately after placing them on his face, he went directly down without another ſtruggle. Thus periſhed a brave and meritorious officer, whoſe virtues, as a man, inſured him the eſteem of all who knew him, and whoſe profeſſional character, had he ſurvived, bid fair to render him an ornament to his country. All the other commiſſioned officers of the ſhip, except Lieutenants Tucker and Quaſh, together with all the officers of marines, and moſt of their men, likewiſe went to the bottom. About 70 or 80 of the crew were ſaved by means of the launch, the whole of whom had aſſembled upon the forecaſtle; but all thoſe who remained in the poop were loſt. Among thoſe who thus found a watery grave were ſeveral paſſengers, on their way to join other ſhips belonging to the North Sea fleet. This afflicting diſaſter is attributed ſolely to the ignorance of the pilot: he belonged to Harwich, and was taken on board at Sheerneſs. Inſtead of taking the ſhip through the ordinary channel from Yarmouth, he ſteered her through the narrow paſſage of the Cockle; and when ſhe ran upon the ſands, he inſiſted that the fatal ſpot was not laid down in any chart. In this point, however, he was ſoon confuted by the gunner of one of the ſhips of Admiral Parker's fleet, who was a paſſenger on board the Invincible: this man ſoon convinced the pilot of his error, by ſhewing him the exact ſpot diſtinctly marked. But the pilot is among the numerous ſufferers; and, in common charity, death muſt now be conſidered as having expiated all his faults. When the mizen-maſt went overboard, he alſo fell from the deck, and was never after ſeen. The Lively cutter was for ſeveral hours within ſight of the wreck, but was unable to afford the diſtreſſed people on board the leaſt aſſiſtance. A boat from Winterton was very active. Daniel Brien, and four ſeamen, after being on the foremaſt and foretop yard two days and two nights, in a heavy ſea, without any proviſions, were miraculouſly preſerved by the captain of the brig Briton, of Sunderland, who landed them at Yarmouth. The Invincible was a very old ſhip, having been built ſo far back as the year 1766. She had on board, excluſive of her own guns and ſtores, a large quantity of heavy ordnance, with ſhot and ammunition, for the uſe of the gun-boats and floating batteries in the Baltic.

In the courſe of this month arrived the following account of the loſs of the Kent Eaſt Indiaman.

Bengal, Oct. 8, 1800.

With great concern we announce the capture of the Kent Eaſt Indiaman, yeſterday in the Bay of Bengal, off the Sand Head, by the Conſiance

Confiance French privateer of 26 guns, and 250 men, after an obſtinate engagement of one hour and 45 minutes, in which Captain Rivington of the Kent was unfortunately killed, bravely defending the company's property till the laſt moment of his exiſtence, when he exclaimed, "Do not give up the ſhip!" Mr. Cator, a free merchant, alſo fell covered with wounds. The Kent was in 25 fathom water, and took the Confiance for a pilot ſloop. The crew of the Confiance were all armed with ſabres and piſtols, and had been thrice encouraged with liquor, previouſly to their boarding; after which the fight continued deſperately for 20 minutes. General St. John, and his family were on board the Kent, and appear to have been particularly unfortunate. All his jewels, plate and baggage, had been burnt on board the Queen, *and he was now almoſt deſtined to behold his lovely wife, daughter to the Margravine of Anſpach, and his three charming daughters, victims to the lawleſs exceſſes of a ſavage banditti.* The gallant Captain Pilkington, the general's aid-de-camp, was ſeverely wounded in defending the general's family. The French behaved with a cruelty almoſt unexampled in ſea fights, *giving no quarter, and ſtabbing with their ſabres even the ſick in their hammocks.* Previous to their boarding, the Kent had evidently the advantage; and had the crew been equally armed with offenſive weapons, or had more muſketry, the Confiance would in all probability have paid dearly for the raſhneſs of her attempt. This is the ſame ſhip which was beat off formerly by the Arniſton. Beſides the gallant commander, the names of the perſons killed are Mr. J. Fairly, carpenter; William Bazely, boatſwain's mate. Paſſengers, Meſſrs. James Richard Barwell, writer, Bengal; John Andrew, aſſiſtant ſurgeon, Madras; Anthony Blagrave, writer, Bengal; William Franks, free mariner, ditto; J. W. Fuller, writer, ditto, killed; alſo Robert Moore, cadet, Madras, paſſenger from the Queen. Total, killed 11; wounded 44.—Total 55. The fate of ſome of the paſſengers in the Kent was ſingularly diſtreſſing. They had taken their departure from Europe in the Queen, which was unfortunately burnt at St. Salvador. The Kent happening to be there, Captain Rivington very humanely offered them every accommodation his ſhip could afford, even to the inconvenience of himſelf in the ſhip. They fondly flattered themſelves they had reached their deſtination, and their ſufferings were at an end, being off the mouth of Bengal river, when they were taken as has been already ſtated. In violation of the rights of humanity, as thoſe of war, the commander of the banditti who took them, pillaged them of every article of wearing apparel, and, after having done ſo, put them, including ſix ladies, in an open Arab boat, with no other ſuſtenance than a little bad water and ſome dates: in this dreadful ſtate they continued four days till they reached Calcutta.

The model of a newly invented machine for printing calicoes, linens, and ſtuffs, was lately exhibited at Mancheſter; it is the intention of John Shepherd, of Salford, a journeyman calenderer. The machine conſiſts of two diſtinct

parts, which can be wrought either together or ſeparately. By the firſt any number of colours may be printed, from one to five, at the ſame time, without the intervention of a block or roller, and as expeditiouſly as with a cylindrical machine. By the other method there is an entirely new application of the cylinder to printing whereby from one to three colours may be put on at once with one roller only. By this invention the expence of block cutting and engraving is wholly ſaved. Several gentlemen who have inſpected the machine have expreſſed their admiration of it; and the inventor is indebted to them for very liberal aſſiſtance.

At Friſkney, in Lincolnſhire, ſeveral labourers, calling themſelves bankers, lately aſſembled in a riotous manner, ſetting the civil power at defiance, and committing violent outrages, in which one man was killed, and three wounded. Several of the rioters were apprehended and committed to take their trials for riot and murder. During the tumult one harmleſs individual unfortunately fell a ſacrifice, being accidentally ſhot dead by his neighbour, who made uſe of a gun in his own defence.

At the Hereford aſſizes, Mr. Waddington brought an action againſt Mr. Wheeler, of Burford, for the recovery of 490*l.* being the difference between a forehand bargain of 10 guineas per cwt. at which ſum the defendant had agreed to ſell his hops, and the higheſt market price, to which the plaintiff by ſimilar contracts was enabled to raiſe the article. The judge (Rooke) was of opinion, that the fulfilment of this illegal engagement would have ſubjected the parties to the penalties of foreſtalling, and the jury found a verdict for Mr. Wheeler.

Died. 25th, Paul I. Emperor of all the Ruſſias, &c. at four o'clock in the morning. He was 46 years, and ſix months old; he reigned only four years and four months, as he aſcended the throne Nov. 17, 1796. He was twice married; firſt on Oct. 10, 1773, to Natalia Alexieona, of Heſſe Darmſtadt; he was left a widower on the 26th of April, 1776, and married Oct. 13th, the ſame year, Dorothea, of Wurtemburg Stutgard, born Oct. 25, 1759. By this marriage he had four ſons and five daughters. The ſons are, Alexander, born Dec. 23, 1777, married Oct. 9, 1793, to Maria Louiſa Elizabeth Alexieona, of Baden, born Jan. 4, 1779. 2. Conſtantine, born May 8, 1779, married, Feb. 26, 1796, to Julia Henrietta, of Saxe Cobourg, born Sept. 23, 1781. 3. Nicholas, born July 2, 1795. 4. Michael, born Feb. 8, 1798. The daughters are, 1. Alexandra, born Jan. 7, 1785, married Feb. 20, 1799, to Ferdinand Archduke of Auſtria, died in child-bed March 16, 1801. 2. Helena, born Dec. 24, 1784, married May 19, 1799, to Frederick Louis, Hereditary Prince of Mecklenberg Scheverin. 3. Mary, born Feb. 5, 1786. 4. Catharine, born May 21, 1788; and Anne, born Jan. 7, 1795.—Alexander ſucceeds his father; the oath of fidelity was taken to him, with the uſual formalities, on March 25, the ſame day on which his father died.

In his 67th year, of wounds he received in a hard 28th. fought

fought battle near Alexandria, Sir Ralph Abercromby. His deſcent was from an old, though not opulent Scottiſh family, of the county of Stirling. He was born about 1738. May 23, 1756, obtained a cornetcy in the 2d dragoon guards; and roſe, April 24, 1762, to the rank of a captain in the 3d regiment of horſe. Aſcending through the intermediate gradations of rank, he was appointed, Nov. 3, 1781, to the colonelcy of the 103d infantry. Sept. 28, 1787, he was promoted to the rank of major-general. Nov. 5, 1795, he obtained the command of the 7th regiment of dragoons. Having been nearly 40 years in the army, having ſerved with honour in two wars, and being eſteemed one of the ableſt, cooleſt, and moſt intrepid officers in the whole Britiſh forces, he was employed on the Continent under his Royal Highneſs the Duke of York, in the commencement of the preſent war. In the action on the heights of Cateau, he commanded the advanced guard. At Nimeguen he was wounded. He conducted the march of the guards from Deventer to Oldenſaal, in the retreat of the Britiſh out of Holland, in the winter of 1794-5. In Aug. 1795, he was appointed to ſucceed Sir Charles Grey, as commander in chief of the Britiſh forces in the Weſt Indies. He took Grenada, Demarara and Iſſequibo, St. Lucia, St. Vincent's and Trinidad. In 1797, he returned to Europe, and in reward for ſuch important ſervices was inveſted with the red ribbon, appointed to the command of the regiment of Scotch Greys, intruſted with the governments of the Iſle of Wight, Fort George, and Fort Auguſtus, and raiſed to the rank of lieutenant-general. He held, for a time, the chief command of the forces in Ireland; and ſubſequently in Scotland. His conduct in both appointments gave univerſal ſatisfaction. When the great enterprize againſt Holland was reſolved upon, Sir Ralph Abercromby was called again to command, under his Royal Highneſs the Duke of York, and afterwards ſent with an army to diſpoſſeſs the French of Egypt, where he met his fate. His private character was modeſt, diſintereſted, upright, unſtained by any negligent or licentious vice. He was a good ſon, brother, father, huſband, and friend, as well as an able and heroic general. His remains were conveyed on board Admiral Lord Keith's flag ſhip to Malta, attended by Colonel Sir John Dyer, to be there interred in the Commandery of the Grand Maſter, with the higheſt military honours.—A monument in St. Paul's has ſince been voted by the Houſe of Commons; over which is to be placed the *Invincible Standard* of Bonaparte. His widow has been created a peereſs; and a penſion of 2000*l.* a year for her and three lives ſettled on the family. The eldeſt ſon is a promiſing young gentleman, and inherits many of his father's diſtinguiſhed virtues. He is at the Scotch bar, and has lately been married to a daughter of Mr. Dundas. The father of the late gallant Sir Ralph Abercromby is ſtill living, aged upwards of 90.

APRIL.

APRIL.

3d. At a general court of proprietors of Eaſt India ſtock, the chairman ſtated, that the court of directors had taken into conſideration the matter referred to them at the laſt general court, reſpecting the remuneration to be given by the company to Commodore Sir Sidney Smith, for his gallant conduct before Acre, in conducting the defence of that place for 62 days, and repulſing General Bonaparte; and that they had reſolved to recommend to the general court, that Sir Sidney Smith be preſented with the ſum of 3000*l.* as a reward for his diſtinguiſhed ſervices on that occaſion. This being ſubmitted to the general court, paſſed unanimouſly.

4th. Miſs Robertſon's creditors have lodged detainers againſt her, and ſhe remains at Huntingdon, where ſhe was taken into cuſtody. When Mr. Martyr, the carpenter, arrived at the inn at which ſhe was apprehended, he was at once informed, that two ladies, of the deſcription of Miſs Sharpe and Miſs Robertſon, were in the houſe: their names were unknown. He ſet the officers on the watch, and went up ſtairs to the apartment of the two ladies. Miſs S. was in the ſitting-room, but at firſt denied that Miſs R. was in her company. Mr. Martyr and the officer aſked her to open a door that led to a contiguous bed-chamber. It was locked; and ſhe ſaid ſhe had not the key. One of the officers, with his foot, burſt the door open. Miſs R. was diſcovered ſtanding on the floor, in a flannel night gown. Though it was late in the morning, ſhe had but juſt ſtarted out of bed. Her perſon was immediately identified, and ſhe was conducted to the gaol, where ſhe was left in a ſtate of extreme wretchedneſs: her money being entirely exhauſted, ſhe was without means to procure any comfort. She was obliged to make a fourth in a room in which ſhe found three other women: had not one of them admitted her, in compaſſion, to ſhare her bed, ſhe muſt have ſlept on the floor. She is now in very ill health; and Miſs S. who, though not in neceſſary confinement, ſtill attends her, has written to ſolicit Mr. Martyr for money for Miſs R.'s immediate ſubſiſtence. Her debts amount to 15,000*l.* ſterling. Although Mr. Creaſy be ſo greatly a loſer, and though it be impoſſible to ſuſpect him of connivance in the fraud, yet moſt of the other creditors are not a little angry with him, as having ſet the firſt example of truſting her. The artifices ſhe uſed, to impoſe on ſo many perſons to ſuch an amount, were aſtoniſhing. Her firſt attorney was a gentleman of ſufficient ſagacity. After ſome time, ſhe withdrew her affairs out of his hands, and employed another. She had, in diſguiſe, made her eſcape, with Miſs S. to Penzance, in Cornwall; there ſhe reſided for about a week, under the name of Madame Douglas, from the north of England: her companion aſſuming that of Miſs Sydenham: but they avoided ſociety, went out only in the evening, wore very thick veils, betrayed the fears of guilt, and were overheard by the chambermaid to make frequent mention, in a converſation of the names of Oakley and Creaſy. Their real characters were quickly ſuſpected,

pected, and information was ſent to Blackheath. From Penzance the two ladies went for Huntingdon, where they were overtaken and ſeized.

7th. Extract of a letter from Lifford, Ireland. The buſineſs is over. Several applications to put off the trial of Napper Tandy were refuſed by the court, and ſeveral arguments, in point of law, were overruled; on which Mr. Tandy's counſel threw up their briefs. Mr. Tandy then addreſſed the court in a ſhort ſpeech, avowing every thing ſet forth in the indictment; and ſaid, his heart diſdained a falſhood. Judge Chamberlaine begged he would weigh the conſequence of ſuch a declaration; that ſentence of death muſt inſtantly follow. Mr. Tandy anſwered, he was not afraid to meet death in any ſhape: he knew well the awful ſentence of the law—he was ready to receive it with the reſignation of a Chriſtian, and with the firmneſs and fortitude of a man. The judge then paſſed ſentence, which is to take place the fourth of next month.

18th. Between three and four in the afternoon, the corning-mill at Waltham Abbey blew up, with a great exploſion, which was felt all round the neighbourhood, and beyond Harlow, in Eſſex. Eight men were blown to pieces into the adjoining meadow, and four horſes, much mangled, were left near the mill-wheels: fragments of a ninth man were not found on the third day. This fatal accident is aſcribed to the overheating of one of the gudgeons of the mill, and had very nearly happened about a fortnight before. Three of the men have left families, and others only widows. One of theſe unfortunate men was the ſubſtitute for another, who had a narrow eſcape from a former exploſion, and on this occaſion had obtained leave of abſence. The mill was worked for the laſt time, previous to a complete repair. The magazine of dry powder was not 200 yards diſtant, and 400 tons of powder had been removed from the mill in a boat not long before it blew up. Sixty-two years ago a ſimilar exploſion took place in the ſame building, when one of the men was ſo completely deſtroyed, that only his cloaths were found on Gally-hill.

Dublin, Wedneſday night, 18th. the Limerick mail-coach was attacked by a numerous banditti, about eleven, at Cherry-hill, between Monaſterevan and Kildare. The villains fired on the eſcort and coach, by which one paſſenger (Mr. Bond, of Gardiner-ſtreet) and a horſe were killed, and three horſes wounded; they then carried off the poſt bags, which ſhould have arrived yeſterday from the following towns, viz. Borris-in-Oſſory, Emo, Limerick, Maryborough, Monaſterevan, Nenagh, and Roſcrea. The frequency, ſyſtem, and boldneſs, with which theſe daring enterprizes have lately been perpetrated, occaſion both ſurprize and alarm.

The trial of Sir Henry Browne Hayes, for forcibly carrying off Miſs Pike, the rich Quaker heireſs of Cork, with intent to marry her, came on in Cork on the 13th inſt. at nine o'clock in the morning, and continued till ten at night. The jury brought in a verdict, guilty, but recommended him to mercy. The lady gave a clear

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and full account of the buſineſs, and was not in the leaſt embarraſſed. Sir Henry behaved with ſingular coolneſs and compoſure.

19th. The following prayer compoſed by the archbiſhops and biſhops, by direction of the lords of the privy council, was read in all the London churches.

"O Almighty God we render unto thee our unfeigned thanks and praiſe, that thou haſt vouchſafed to be merciful and gracious to this kingdom, in granting to thy ſervant, our Sovereign, a ſpeedy recovery from his late dangerous ſickneſs. Confirm and eſtabliſh we beſeech thee, O Lord, the work which thou haſt wrought. Make the light of thy countenance to ſhine upon him, and renew in him his perfect ſtrength. Grant that he may long continue a nurſing father to thy church, and thy miniſter for good to all his ſubjects. And when thou haſt lengthened his days on earth, in the enjoyment both of domeſtic happineſs and of public proſperity and peace, crown him, O Lord, with everlaſting glory in his life to come, through Jeſus Chriſt, our Lord and Saviour." Amen.

20th. *Peterſburg.* On the 13th inſtant, the ſenate was honoured with the preſence of his Imperial Majeſty. Several ukaſes have been publiſhed: 1ſt. Confirming the rights of the nobility; 2d. Re-eſtabliſhing the regulations of Catherine the Great, for the encouragement of commerce and induſtry, and confirming the city charter; 3d. An act of indemnity; 4th. Aboliſhing the chancery of inquiſition; 5th. Repealing the prohibition of the exportation of commodities, and providing indemnifications for thoſe who had ſuffered by it.

23d. The ſeſſion ended at the Old Bailey, when Ann Moore, John Lennard, John Weſcott, Thomas Burrill, Thomas Bolt, John Tiffard, Sarah Leſter, Francis Barnes, Ann Nole, Suſannah Gordon, Thomas Hopkins, Robert Griffiths, John Drake, Richard Priſton, William Withers, jun. William Withers, ſen. William Thornburn, James Foſſet, alias Hickman, John Hannikin, James Pearce, and Thomas Wynn, ſeverally received judgment of death; thirty-ſeven were ordered to be tranſported for ſeven years; one fourteen years; twelve to be impriſoned in Newgate; twenty in the houſe of correction at Clerkenwell; ſix to be publickly, ten privately whipped, and one fined one ſhilling.

26th. This night about eight, a mob aſſembled before a houſe in Whych-ſtreet, formerly the queen of Bohemia tavern, (but now ſuppoſed to be unoccupied,) in conſequence of ſome boys, who had been at play in the paſſage, declaring they ſaw ſome perſons through the key-hole employed in cutting up human bodies. The mob, having increaſed, at length broke into the houſe, in which they found ſeveral human bodies partly diſſected, one body of a man which appeared to have been not long dead, with that of an infant not four months old, untouched, and ſeveral tubs with human fleſh, &c. The ſtench was ſo great, that many were glad to return without viewing the diſguſting ſcene, and many who went in were ſeized with ſickneſs. Notwithſtanding it was explained to the mob, that the houſe had been

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for ſome time uſed as an anatomical theatre, they were ſo enraged as to proceed to deſtroy the houſe; but a party of Bow-ſtreet officers arriving, at length ſucceeded in reſtoring the peace, to the great ſatisfaction of the neighbourhood, who had been much alarmed at an idea that the mob would in their rage ſet fire to the houſe. The ſurgeons who were in the houſe made their eſcape by a back way, leaving ſeveral of their inſtruments behind them. This is the houſe in which a committee of the correſponding ſociety was ſeized three years ago. It was formerly a noble palace; and the ſpacious but gloomy and deſolate appearance of the apartments added to the horror of the ſcene.

An examination into the circumſtances has ſince taken place before Mr. Ford. On the original diſcovery of the bodies, the mob, conceiving that ſome horrible murder had been committed, were proceeding to demoliſh the houſe in which they were contained; but the timely arrival of the peace officers prevented them from carrying their deſign into execution. The reſult of the examination ſufficiently pointed out how theſe bodies came to be depoſited in the houſe, it having clearly appeared that they were uſed for the purpoſes of diſſection. By the orders of Mr. Ford a coroner's inqueſt was held on the bodies; and their verdict fully coinciding with what was ſtated on the examination, the mob were ſatisfied with the explanation, and were induced quietly to diſperſe. The bodies were buried in St. Clement's church-yard.

28th. The long exiſting diſpute between the minor canons of St. Paul's, and the inhabitants of the united pariſhes of St. Mary Magdalen and St. Gregory, Watling-ſtreet, was this day decided in the court of exchequer, after a trial at bar of ten hours duration. By this deciſion the minor canons, inſtead of receiving a tythe of 2½d. in the pound upon all the rack rents in the ſaid pariſh (which they have ſubmitted to take for nearly a century paſt,) will now be authoriſed in demanding 2s. 9d. in the pound, increaſing their yearly appropriation from 93l. 16s. 8d. to nearly 1000l. The diſpute has been near eight years in litigation, from which period ſuch part of the inhabitants as have been ill adviſed will now have to pay arrears; which many of their wiſer neighbours have long ſince compounded for, as all might have done, on moderate terms.

29th. Five hundred houſes and a church were burnt down in the city of Rawiz, in South Pruſſia.

Duel.—Colonel Whittam went lately to Drury-lane theatre, with a party of ladies. In the front row of his box, ſat a gentleman with his hat on. The colonel requeſted him, as a matter of accommodation to the ladies, to pull it off; which, however, he refuſed, making uſe of expreſſions which the colonel felt himſelf called upon to notice. High words enſued, cards were exchanged, and the parties met next morning in Hyde-park, when the colonel received a wound in the breaſt; which, however, has been pronounced to be not of a dangerous nature.

A ſimilar meeting lately took place near Fort Monkton, between Lieutenants D—— and H——, of the

the Weſt Norfolk regiment. After ſeveral fruitleſs attempts to reconcile the parties, they fired, and the latter was ſo ſeverely wounded in the groin, that he expired about eleven o'clock the ſame evening.

The following may be reckoned among the *luſus naturæ* of the preſent age:—A cow, the property of Mr. J. Proctor, farmer, of Haltongill, in Littledale, in Craven, calved, on the 12th of March laſt, a fine whye-calf, of a green colour, a ſhade darker than the goſlin-green. It has three common brown ſpots on either ſide, and one on the top of the head, each about an inch broad; and one brown foot. The young animal appears in perfect health, and likely to do well.

Monthly Magazine.

A butcher of Worceſter lately obſerving one of his ewes in a field to exhibit ſymptoms for yeaning, had recourſe to the uſual method of relieving the dam of her burden, which, however, was found impoſſible to effect, without killing the ewe, when a lamb was found within her of the following extraordinary form:—It had two diſtinct heads, one body, two tails, and eight legs; was of the full ſize, and alive previouſly to killing the ewe. On opening it, one heart and two livers were diſcovered.

A great variety of ſeeds and plants indigenous to Prince of Wales's Iſland, have been ſucceſsfully cultivated in Bengal.

A deſcription of Lancaſhire, publiſhed laſt year, gives the following account of the population of Mancheſter in the laſt century. For a long time previous to the year 1717, the population of the town had rather diminiſhed—it then contained about 8000 inhabitants—from that period the increaſe has been rapid, and of late years almoſt unparalleled.—In 1757, the number of inhabitants of Mancheſter and Salford amounted to 19,839 ſouls.—In 1773, an accurate ſurvey gave the following reſult:—Houſes inhabited in Mancheſter, 3402; in Salford, 866; total, 4268.—Male inhabitants, 12,796; female ditto, 14,450; total, 27,246.—Perſons to a houſe, $6\frac{1}{3}$; to a family, $4\frac{3}{4}$.—About the ſame period the whole pariſh (including Mancheſter and Salford) compriſing thirty-one townſhips, in a compaſs of ſixty ſquare miles, contained 42,927 inhabitants.—At Chriſtmas, 1788, the numbers were, in the townſhip of Mancheſter, 5916 houſes; 42,821 perſons:—in the townſhip of Salford, 126 houſes. The number of perſons in both towns was then reckoned at more than 50,000. During the year 1791, the chriſtenings in theſe towns amounted to 2900; the burials to 2286. Theſe numbers, by the uſual mode of calculation, will give from 65 to 70,000 inhabitants.

The annual average of books publiſhed in Germany amounts nearly to 4000. The yearly publications in France are not more than 1500. Thoſe of Britain and Ireland are ſomewhat under 2000. There are in Germany 300 publiſhing bookſellers, and not fewer than 1500 authors.

The number of Jews in Amſterdam is reckoned at 80,000. They have a theatre, at which are performed dramas in the Hebrew language.

MAY.

MAY.

3d. The branch of canal from Buckingham to the grand junction canal was opened this day, with great rejoicings. A barge with the Marquis of Buckingham, Mr. Praed, and Mr. Selby, (gentlemen of the committee) and Mr. Box, the treasurer, accompanied by a large party of ladies and gentlemen, and a band of music, led the way to a procession of twelve barges, laden with coals, slate, and a variety of merchandize: upon their entrance into the bason at Buckingham, they were saluted by the firing of several pieces of cannon. A numerous party were handsomely entertained by the Marquis of Buckingham, at the Cobham Arms Inn, on this occasion; and a liberal supply of beer was given to the populace. This branch of canal, nine miles and a quarter in length, has been completed in about eight months, and will secure to an extensive district of country the most substantial benefits.

4th. A French prisoner, José de Silva of the Diable à quatre, was starved to death in the Mill prison, Plymouth. He had lost by gaming eight days provisions, and, on opening his body, the surgeons declared that he perished for want of sustenance. The agent, Mr. Claverton, had taken and destroyed all their gaming tables, but so inveterate was their attachment to this destructive vice, that they formed new ones on the earth.

5th. *Dublin.* Last week a dreadful conflagration took place in the woods of Ballyarthur, county of Wicklow, the seat of the Rev. James Symes, near Arklow. It raged for some time with the utmost fury, and threatened total destruction to one of the most sublimely beautiful scenes which that country boasts. Fortunately the wind was moderate, and Mr. Symes had an extraordinary number of workmen collected for the purpose of finishing his spring farming work. By their unremitting exertions, in cutting lanes through the wood to prevent the spreading of the fire, and in carrying water from an adjoining pond, the flames were at length with much difficulty and hazard suppressed. It is computed that five acres of wood, have been consumed. This accident was occasioned by the negligence of some hoop-cutters employed in the wood, who had kindled a fire for the purposes of their work, and at dinner hour fell asleep, when the fire communicated to some chips, dry leaves, &c. and before they awoke had nearly inclosed them.

14th. An institution has been founded, under the immediate patronage of his Royal Highness the Duke of York, for rearing up, and educating to the profession of arms, one thousand children, the legal offspring of British soldiers. The ground is purchased for the erection of this national seminary, near Chelsea college. The funds are to be derived from a parliamentary grant, and one halfpenny out of each soldier's daily pay. The whole superintendance is to be under the management of a governor, and a board of visitors.

At Leith, the foundation stone of the new and extensive wet docks was laid by Robert Dundas, of Melville, Esq. deputy grand master of the craft of free and accepted masons

masons in Scotland, in absence of the grand master, the Right Hon. Charles Earl of Dalkeith. The procession consisted of the lord provost, magistrates, and council of the city of Edinburgh, with the magistrates of Leith, in their robes, preceded by the usual insignia of office. Next followed the grand lodge of Scotland, the brethren of the different lodges in and near the city, the master, wardens, and brethren of the Trinity house, Leith, &c. &c. attended with several excellent bands of music, and by a large guard of militia, &c. The procession closed by a great number of the most respectable merchants and inhabitants of Edinburgh, the whole forming a very grand and pleasing spectacle. For many years past the trade of Leith has been greatly on the increase, and it must afford high satisfaction to every friend of the country to contemplate the honourable and successful exertions of our merchants, who have embarked large capitals in extensive commerce, thus adding opulence to the metropolis of Scotland, and placing her in a commercial point of view, far more respectable and eminent than ever was the case before. By the improvement of the harbour, the ships from Hull, and the other northern ports of England, bounded by the Baltic, will find very great and excellent accommodation by rendezvousing at Leith. Indeed the whole of the Baltic trade, whether of England or Scotland, will be materially benefited. The shipping engaged in the West India trade will also be greatly accommodated, as they will be enabled to come into the harbour without unloading part of their cargo, as is now the case, which is attended with much trouble and expence. The plan of that able engineer, Mr. Rennie, has been adopted through the whole of this undertaking, which will eminently benefit the country at large, as it is intended to render the harbour convenient for the admission of even large ships of his Majesty's navy.

18th. At four o'clock, the first stone of a building, to be erected in Capel-court, for the transaction of business in the public funds, was laid by William Hammond, Esq. chairman of the committee of managers, in the presence of the proprietors of the undertaking. A procession was made to the spot; and, the stone being laid, Mr. Hammond, in a short and neat speech, announced the purpose of the building, wished prosperity to the members, and stated, that an engraving on copper was deposited under the stone, with the following inscription:

On the 18th of May, in the year 1801,
and the 41st of the reign of George III.
the first stone of this building,
erected by private subscription,
for the transaction of business in the
public funds, was laid,
in the presence of the proprietors,
and under the direction of
Managers.

William Hammond	Isaac Hensley
William Steer	Robert Sutton
Thomas Roberts	Jo. Bruckshaw
Griffith Jones	John Capel, and
William Grey	John Barnes.

James Peacock, Architect.

At this æra,
being the first year of the union between
Great Britain and Ireland,
the public funded debt had accumulated,
in five successive reigns, to 552,730,924l.
The inviolate faith of the British nation,
and the principles of the Constitution,
sanction and secure the property
embarked in this undertaking.

May

May the bleſſings of that Conſtitution be tranſmitted to the lateſt poſterity!

After the ceremony, the proprietors gave a dinner to the managers at the London Tavern. About 300 gentlemen partook of an elegant entertainment, and the day was ſpent in the utmoſt conviviality.

Bonaparte's invincible ſtandard was brought to Lord Hobart's office, at Whitehall, by Mr. Baldwin, the Britiſh conſul at Egypt. It is ſo much ſhattered and defaced by ſervice, that the inſcriptions recording its various victories can, with difficulty, be traced. 'Le Paſſage de la Piave, Le Paſſage du Tagliamento, Le Paſſage de L'Iſonzo, and La Priſe de Gratz,' are tolerably diſtinct, but ſcarcely any veſtige remains of the affair of the 'Pont de Lodi.' The laurels ſo dearly earned and ſo long worn by this famous brigade, now add to the trophies of the Britiſh troops, by whom it has been completely annihilated.

25th. *Dublin Caſtle.* The Earl of Hardwicke, who embarked at Holyhead, yeſterday evening at eight o'clock, on board his Majeſty's yacht the Dorſet, arrived in this harbour at ſix o'clock this morning. His lordſhip, on his arrival in Dublin, was received by the lord mayor, aldermen, ſheriffs and commons of the city of Dublin. His lordſhip, attended by a ſquadron of dragoons, proceeded to the caſtle, and upon his arrival there at twelve o'clock, was introduced in form to his Excellency the Marquis Cornwallis, who received him ſitting under the canopy of ſtate in the preſence chamber, whence a proceſſion was made, in the uſual ſtate, to the council chamber; the council ſitting, his commiſſion was read, and the oath being adminiſtered to him, his excellency was inveſted with the collar of the moſt illuſtrious order of St. Patrick, and received the ſword of ſtate from the Marquis Cornwallis. His excellency afterwards repaired to the preſence chamber, and received the compliments of the nobility, and other perſons of diſtinction upon his ſafe arrival, and taking upon him the government of Ireland.

28th. Mr. Hodgman, engineer at Folkſtone, made an experiment with his ſub-marine apparatus. He walked into the ſea, attended by a ſmall boat; and remaining 18 minutes under water, traverſed in various directions conſiderably more than a quarter of a mile, and aſcended in about 18 feet water.

29th. At the Old Bailey after the trials were finiſhed, the recorder paſſed ſentence of death on the following priſoners; Richard Wright, John Smith, Thomas Johnſtone, Thomas Green, George Reeves, Thomas Bowman, William M'Connick, Richard Hall, George Martin, Robert Miller, Thomas Jones, Dennis Kennedy, Michael Stewart, John Williams, David White, Sarah Gordon, Mary Farren, and Elizabeth Payne; Mary Hayes was ſentenced to fourteen, and twenty-ſeven to ſeven years tranſportation; three were adjudged to two years, five to one year's impriſonment; and the remaining convicts were ſentenced to ſmaller puniſhments.

27th. *Dublin Caſtle.* This evening about five o'clock, the Marquis Cornwallis, late lord lieutenant of Ireland, left the caſtle in order to embark on board his Ma-

jeſty's yacht the Dorſet on his return to England.

His Excellency the Earl of Hardwicke, lord lieutenant, and the Marquis Cornwallis, went together from the caſtle in the ſtate coach, preceded by the leading coaches in which were the officers of ſtate, to the ſouth wall, where the yacht lay. They were eſcorted by a ſquadron of dragoons, and attended by a great number of the nobility and perſons of diſtinction, the lord mayor, ſheriffs, ſeveral of the aldermen and principal citizens in their carriages, followed by a concourſe of people to the water-ſide; the ſtreets were lined by regiments of infantry on Dublin duty. The Marquis Cornwallis received every demonſtration of reſpect in paſſing through the ſtreets from the people, who teſtified their regard by repeated wiſhes for his welfare, and ſafe return to England.

A ſhark, which meaſured 27½ feet in length, and 16 feet, at leaſt, in circumference, was lately caught, in a fiſhing-ſeines, near the bathing-houſe, at Abbotſbury in Dorſetſhire. His tail, when ſpread, meaſured eight feet; the fins, four feet; and it is ſuppoſed to weigh fifteen tons. It was entangled in the mackrel-ſeines, deſtroyed by the crew of the Greyhound cutter, who fired on it, and afterwards towed to the village of Portland. "His jaws were of that extent, (ſays a letter from Weymouth,) as to admit the fatteſt man you ever ſaw." Fourteen horſes, and near 100 men, were employed to drag the monſter up the bank and on ſhore, where a booth was erected over it. The fiſhermen call it a "Beaumaris-ſhark," and others, the "bottle-noſe ſhark." Before he was quite dead, he appeared mottled as a common dog-fiſh, or ſhark.

A remarkable hog, the property of Mr. J. Carter, of Downer's mill, and fattened by him, when killed, weighed as follows: The head 6ſt. 3lb.; ſleath 11ſt. 4lb.; belly-piece 5ſt. 4lb.; firſt ſide 36ſt. 6lb.; ſecond ſide 41ſt. 6lb.; looſe fat 4ſt. 6lb.—Total 106ſt. 5lb.

One of the largeſt ſteam engines in England, which has been erecting for ſome time paſt in the dock-yard at Portſmouth, has been lately completed and ſet to work. It will pump 20 tons of water in a minute, with a conſumption of only a buſhel and a half of coals per hour.

At the quarter ſeſſions at Warwick, a miſcreant, named Tonks, was ſentenced to be impriſoned three months and publickly whipped, for ill-treating a horſe: a puniſhment that ſeems well calculated to check the offence in future.

Mr. Field Evans of the quag, near Welſh Pool, in Montgomeryſhire, has lately diſcovered on Moel y Gulfa mountain, a vein of burrs, for making mill-ſtones, ſuppoſed to be ſuperior to any yet found in this kingdom, and allowed by the ſociety for the encouragement of arts, manufactures, and commerce, who have likewiſe adjudged to Mr. Evans a ſilver medal of 50l. at his option for the diſcovery and application of the ſame, to be nearly equal to the French burrs.

DIED, at Iſle in the county of Kerry, in her 108th year, Mrs. Margaret Donoghoe, whoſe conſtitution and bodily ſtrength had enabled her to walk three miles to a neighbouring chapel, on every Sunday, for the laſt twenty years.

JUNE.

3d. *Shrewſbury*. About half paſt one yeſterday, the ſhock of an earthquake was felt in this town and neighbourhood, attended with a rumbling noiſe, which laſted a few ſeconds. Its direction is ſuppoſed to have been from ſouth to north, and about two o'clock extended to the city of Cheſter, and was ſenſibly felt in that city and neighbourhood; but no material accident enſued.

A criminal information againſt G. W. Thelluſſon, Eſq. for perjury, was tried at Guildhall.—Mr. R. Coppinger borrowed 1757*l.* from the defendant, and aſſigned the title-deeds of a ſhip as a collateral ſecurity, and under this aſſignment Mr. Thelluſſon, on a queſtion in the admiralty court, ſwore the veſſel was his property. The indictment was founded on the preſumption, that Mr. Coppinger having repaid this ſum of 1757*l.* previous to this oath, the property had reverted to him: but it appearing to the jury, that in all aſſignments of chattel intereſt, it is expreſsly ſtated that there ſhall be a re-aſſignment, and that till that is done, the property is veſted in the mortgagee, and Mr. Coppinger failing to ſubſtantiate any of his allegations of perjury ariſing from the ſtatement of various other accounts with Mr. Thelluſſon, the jury, without heſitation, acquitted him.—An action to recover damages for a malicious proſecution, founded on the foregoing, was next tried. The rectitude of Mr. Thelluſſon's conduct was very clearly eſtabliſhed; and Lord Kenyon characteriſed the proſecution inſtituted by Mr. Coppinger as malicious, and devoid of foundation. Mr. Coppinger conducted his own defence, and at great length addreſſed the jury, who, after a ſhort deliberation, found a verdict for the plaintiff, damages 1000*l.*

11th. Mr. Pooley moved for the judgment of the court of King's bench, againſt a Frenchman who was tried at the ſittings after laſt term for Weſtminſter before Lord Kenyon and a ſpecial jury, for ill-treating Suſannah Archer, one of his female apprentices.

After Lord Kenyon had reported the evidence given at the trial, he obſerved, that that child looked moſt miſerably, and as if ſhe had been ſtarved in her growth. She was extremely little, and emaciated, and did not at all look to be of the age ſhe ſaid ſhe was—15.

The defendant ſaid, he was an unfortunate man; he had no money either to fee counſel or an attorney; and he had been brought up to court at a moment's notice, otherwiſe he might have had ſome reſpectable people to his character.

Lord Kenyon aſked him when he would be able to lay his caſe before the court?

The defendant ſaid, he was entirely a loſt man. He had not ſufficient to ſupply nature ſince he had been in jail, for five months. He had not a ſhilling in the world.

Mr. Serjeant Lens came into court, and Lord Kenyon obſerved to him, that his humanity when this man was tried had induced him to give his aſſiſtance, and aſked him if he was able to lay any thing farther before the court.

The learned ſerjeant replied, that ſince the time of the trial he

had attended to this buſineſs, but he had no fact to lay before the court which could be verified by affidavit, and therefore he muſt leave it to the judgment and mercy of the court.

Lord Kenyon ſaid this was a ſad caſe.

The defendant admitted that through neceſſity and want of buſineſs theſe apprentices, during the laſt three months they were with him, were not fed ſo well as they ought to have been, but they lived as well as he and his family did.

Lord Kenyon ſaid, where children are poor and have no parents to take care of them, the law devolves the power of placing them out in a ſituation in which they may receive that inſtruction at an early period of life, by which they might get their living honeſtly, and has added all the caution it could that it ſhould be done properly. The overſeers are to do it in concurrence with two magiſtrates; and theſe magiſtrates ought not to make this a matter of courſe. It is not enough that their names ſhould be put to the indenture, but they ought to exerciſe their judgment, that proper care be taken of theſe poor creatures, who have no other body to take care of them. There were ſeventeen apprentices placed with this man, who ſtates himſelf to be ſo poor as not to be able to ſubſiſt himſelf. If the magiſtrates had made proper inquiries into the ſituation of this defendant, it is impoſſible they could have placed them with ſuch a man. 'The overſeers ought to viſit theſe places, and ſee they are properly taken care of, not once a year, but frequently. They ſtand in *loco parentum*. They are in the ſituation of parents with reſpect to theſe children, and ſhould take the ſame care that parents would. One does not know what to do with this, it is a grievous offence.'

The defendant aſſured the court that they were as well fed as his own family.

Lord Kenyon.—'Why beat theſe poor wretches when their bodily ſtrength was not able to do as much work as you expected? It appeared from the evidence of the neighbours that great wails appeared upon their backs, and their ſhrieks calling out for mercy were heard in the neighbourhood.'

The defendant ſaid he ſtruck them with moderation.

Lord Kenyon.—'You ſhould not have ſtruck them at all.'

The ſentence of the court was, (in conſideration of his poverty,) 'That he be impriſoned, and kept to hard labour, in the houſe of correction for the county of Middleſex, for twelve calendar months.'

The King *v.* Spence.—In the court of King's Bench the defendant, who is a bookſeller, was brought up to receive judgment upon a conviction for publiſhing a ſeditious libel, called "Spence's Reſtorer of Society," in which he recommends the abolition of all private property in land, and veſting it in pariſhes, for the benefit of the public at large. The report of the trial having been read by Lord Kenyon, the defendant addreſſed the court in a ſpeech, in which he profeſſed he was actuated in writing the libel in queſtion by the ſame philanthropy which diſtinguiſhed the prophets of former times. He warned their lordſhips to regard what hiſtory and poſterity would ſay of them if they

13th.

they treated him with ſeverity. He ſaid, the treatment he received gave him but very little encouragement in labouring for the improvement of ſociety. Such was the ingratitude of mankind, that he was conſidered by the world as a madman and a lunatic, and behaved to in priſon worſe than a common felon. He had, however, done nothing but what his own conſcience juſtified him for doing; and if, notwithſtanding the purity of his intentions, the court ſhould think him an object of puniſhment, the cauſe in which he ſuffered would enable him to bear it with fortitude. The Attorney-General declined preſſing any obſervation againſt the defendant. The court ordered him to be remanded to Newgate, and brought up again on this day ſe'nnight. A perſon came forward as the friend of the defendant, and aſſured the court he was not, as had been unjuſtly repreſented, the head of any ſect or party. It appeared that this man was a crack-brained, half-witted organiſt, and the court accordingly ordered him to be ſilent, and mind his own buſineſs.

The eſtabliſhment of the Military College is to conſiſt of a ſenior and junior department. In the ſenior department will be admitted thirty officers, to be inſtructed in the duties of the general ſtaff of the army, and particularly thoſe which belong to the quarter-maſter general in the field.

The junior department, to be for the inſtruction of thoſe who are, from early life, intended for a military profeſſion, and who will, by this means, be well grounded in a knowledge of ſcience, previous to their attaining the age that enables them to hold commiſſions in the army. This department is to receive 300 ſtudents, from the ages of 14 to 16: of which number 50 may be cadets of the Eaſt India company's ſervice: 100, the ſons of noblemen and gentlemen who may intend them for the ſervice; 100, the ſons of officers actually in the ſervice; and 50, the ſons of officers who have died or been diſabled in the ſervice, and are left in pecuniary diſtreſs. The eſtabliſhment to be governed, as a military body, according to his Majeſty's rules and regulations for the diſcipline of the ſervice, with ſuch additional reſtrictions as may be neceſſary to the conduct of youth, and the objects of the inſtitution.—The commander in chief for the time being to be chief governor of the military college, under whoſe controul the eſtabliſhment will be placed. Each department to be under the command of officers of rank in the army, who will be reſponſible to the reſident lieutenant-governor for the diſcipline, the conduct of the ſtudies, together with the inferior care and economy of their reſpective departments. All elementary tuition will be conducted by profeſſors and maſters, ſubject to the controul of a director of inſtitution. Public examinations will be held of the progreſs made by the ſtudents in their ſtudies.

The ſum which will be required this year, on account of the purchaſe of land, and the conſtruction of buildings for the college, is 30,000*l.* In the year 1802, 25,000*l.* will be required; and in 1803, 12,000*l.* making the total expence for building 67,000*l.* The balance between the annual expenditure and receipts of the eſtabliſhment is

eſtimated at 3300*l.* 8*s.* 4¾*d.* to be defrayed by the public. The expenditure for officers, &c. is reckoned at 20,245*l.* 8*s.* 4¾*d.* the receipts at 16,945*l.*

15th. The annual feſtival of ſheep-ſhearing began at Woburn. Upwards of 500 agriculturiſts were aſſembled; among whom were many noblemen. His Grace of Bedford preſided, aided by Lord Carrington; and the weather proving extremely favourable, the gala went off with the greateſt eclat. The exhibition continued three days.

18th. A monument to Dean Tucker was erected in the ſouth tranſept of Glouceſter Cathedral.

19th. Between the hours of 12 and 1, a moſt beautiful phenomenon was obſerved at Hull, towards the S. W. part of the horizon, reſembling, on being firſt ſeen, an immenſe moon, with a black bar acroſs; it ſeemed then gradually to form itſelf into ſeven ſmall diſtinct moons, or globes of fire, which diſappeared for the ſpace of a few ſeconds. Its re-appearance was equally brilliant, at firſt ſhewing itſelf like what we are told of the face of the moon; afterwards into five circular balls, and laſtly like ſeveral ſmall ſtars, which gradually faded away, leaving the whole atmoſphere beautifully illumined and clear. During the time of its being viſible, a faint blue light fell upon the ſurrounding objects, like that of diſtant torches, but when entirely gone, the appearance was ſerene, like a fine ſummer's morning.

24th. A few days ago an entertainment was given by Mr. W. Smith, of Sunny Bank, near Bolton, to the deſcendants of his father and mother who were within a convenient diſtance. Nine brothers and ſiſters and 210 nephews and nieces attended, making with himſelf (who is a bachelor) a company of 220 perſons. After dinner the whole of this intereſting aſſembly were ſeated on benches in regular order of deſcent, with their numerous progeny, conſiſting of 71 perſons, and the reſt in ſucceſſion, each ſeparate family being collected together. This extraordinary ſight was witneſſed by a vaſt concourſe of people, who were highly pleaſed with the ſcene, and generally ſtruck with the reſpectable appearance of this family meeting.—It is worthy notice, that in ſo extenſive a family, not one individual was prevented attending the meeting by ſickneſs, although the typhus fever has for ſome time been prevalent where a great portion of its members reſide.

25th. About two o'clock the roof of the cathedral church at Norwich was diſcovered to be on fire; the alarm was immediately given, and ſome engines and a vaſt concourſe of people haſtened to the place. There being no pipes in the precinct, and, of courſe, a great difficulty in procuring water, joined with the immenſe height of the building, at firſt threatened it with deſtruction. To ſtop its progreſs, workmen cut chaſms in the roof, and the inhabitants of the town, with great alacrity, carried buckets of water to three engines that could be placed to play on it, which happily ſucceeded in extinguiſhing it about five o'clock. Luckily there was no wind, and the damage was confined to about forty feet of the roof.

Preparations

26th. Preparations have been making at Kew, for ſome days, for the departure of the royal family for Weymouth. His Majeſty daily improves in health, and his complexion is much clearer than it has been for the laſt two years. His hour of riſing is 7 o'clock, from which he ſeldom deviates even a few minutes. The time from 7 till 8 is paſſed in Richmond-gardens, into which his Majeſty walks, to obſerve the progreſs of the workmen in building the new palace. At 8 the royal family ſit down to breakfaſt. About 10 the King rides out on horſeback; and the Queen and Princeſſes make little excurſions in a landau or ſociable. Prince Adolphus always accompanies his Majeſty. His Royal Highneſs reſides in a neat houſe on the Green. The Duke of Kent accompanies the Queen and the Princeſſes. Four o'clock is the eſtabliſhed hour of dining, from which his Majeſty has not varied five minutes ſince their reſidence at Kew. Plain diſhes, as roaſt mutton, lamb, veal, beef, and fowls, generally cold, with ſallads, is the diet of the royal family: made diſhes are never touched. The King's beverage is wine conſiderably diluted with water. In the evening his Majeſty drives a phæton and pair, about ſeven miles round; and the Queen and Princeſſes make little excurſions in the neighbourhood. The new palace at Kew is to be a large ſquare building, with four towers, and a noble court-yard in the centre. The intended height is four ſtories; it is of red brick: the plan entirely gothic, and every part is to be finiſhed agreeably to the deſign given to Mr. Wyatt by his Majeſty.—The King has purchaſed the Duke of Glouceſter's houſe at Weymouth; and conſiderable improvements will be made in it after the preſent ſummer.

30th. Between two and three o'clock in the afternoon was experienced in this metropolis, and its neighbourhood, one of the moſt violent ſtorms of thunder, accompanied with a moſt furious hurricane, and torrents of rain that ever was known. The thunder was very loud, and the light'ning vivid. The wind was moſt tempeſtuous, and the rain fell not in drops, but in whole ſheets. It never was remembered that ſo much rain fell in the ſame ſpace; the ſewers could not carry off the water ſo faſt as it fell. The Strand in ſome places reſembled a canal, and was almoſt navigable from ſide to ſide. The ſtorm continued for half an hour to rage with this violence. The court of common pleas, Weſtminſter, was thrown into the utmoſt confuſion. The wind drove the rain with ſuch violence againſt the ſky-light, that it broke the glaſs; and a torrent of rain deſcending on the wigs and cravats of the council, they inſtantly forſook their ſeats in terror and diſmay. In vain did Lord Alvanley endeavour to rally the flying ſerjeants; all was confuſion till the waters ſubſided, and the heavens became clear: learning then reſumed its ſeat, and law proceeded without fears of a ducking. A ball of electric fire ſtruck the gable end of a houſe in Crabtree-row, Hoxton, which completely unroofed it, and otherwiſe did much damage to the dwelling; but the ſtorm was peculiarly felt in Great Alie-ſtreet, Goodman's-fields; where it occa-

ſioned much damage and terror at three houſes, No. 6, 7, and 8.

This morning two of the York huſſars were ſhot on Bincombe Down, near Weymouth, purſuant to the ſentence of a court martial, for deſertion, and cutting a boat out of the harbour with intent to go into France, but by miſtake they landed at Guernſey, and were ſecured. All the regiments both in camp and barracks were drawn up, viz. the Greys, the Rifle corps, and the Stafford, Berks, and North Devon militia. They came on the ground in a mourning coach, attended by two prieſts: after marching along the front of the line they returned to the centre, where they ſpent about 20 minutes in prayer, and were then ſhot at by a guard of 24 men: they dropped inſtantly, and expired without a groan. They appeared ſenſible of their awful ſituation, and very penitent. The men then wheeled in ſections, and marched by the bodies in ſlow time.

The Marquis of Huntley, officiating as deputy grand maſter of the Freemaſons of Scotland, laid the firſt ſtone of the intended bridge over the Spey, at Fochabers.

A ſingular circumſtance has lately taken place near Mancheſter. A pit that is generally full of water, adjoining the town, emitted ſo very ſtrong a ſmell, that, for fear of creating ſome peſtilential diſorder, it was thought adviſeable to have it cleaned out. On removing the water from it, numbers of bodies of young children were diſcovered there, that had unqueſtionably been thrown in by their unnatural mothers: from the extreme populouſneſs of the town, it is to be feared the offenders will eſcape detection.

A large and ferocious male hawk, which had been for years in the garden of Watſon, of Kirbymoorſide, began early in the ſpring to make himſelf a neſt upon the ground, and being furniſhed with the neceſſary materials, ſoon completed it; in which there were placed ſix duck eggs, on which he ſat until he hatched ſix ducklings. The day after ſeveral perſons viſited the garden, to ſee this extraordinary family; which exaſperated him ſo much, that, in attempting to defend his young brood, he trod on one of them, which occaſioned its death. The remaining five are yet alive, and ſeem likely to be brought up under the protection of this extraordinary nurſe.

The wife of Mr. Leddon, near Bath, was delivered of three boys and a girl, all likely to do well!

An ingenious artiſt of Norwich has invented and made a lock, which is reported to exceed every machine of the kind hitherto conſtructed. Its principle is very ſimple, being unlocked according to literal combinations directed by three indexes, each divided into forty compartments; yet ſo numerous are the changes of which it is ſuſceptible, that a man's life would probably be employed unſucceſsfully in the attempt to unlock it, even ſuppoſing him acquainted with the principle of its formation, but ignorant of its literal poſition.

JULY.

A fire broke out at the ſeat of Captain G. Byng, (commanding 1ſt.

manding his Majeſty's ſhip Galatea,) ſituated on Catdown, near Plymouth; and, owing to the impoſſibility of procuring water, the whole building was in a few hours reduced to aſhes, together with a quantity of furniture.

An experiment took place on the river Thames for the purpoſe of working a barge, or any other heavy craft, againſt tide, by means of a ſteam engine, on a very ſimple conſtruction. The moment the engine was ſet to work, the barge was brought about, anſwering her helm quickly, and then made way againſt a ſtrong current, at the rate of two miles and a half an hour.

2d. During a dreadful thunder ſtorm, one of the pinnacles of Corby ſteeple was beaten into the body of the church.—The houſe of Mr. Hill, at Markſbury, near Bath, was ſtruck by lightning, and in a ſhort time reduced to aſhes. Mrs. Hill, with her infant child, and her ſiſter-in-law, were the only perſons in the houſe; and, alarmed at the ſtorm, had bolted the doors, and cloſed the window-ſhutters, and got near the chimney, down which ſome ſtones ſhortly fell, accompanied by ſparks of fire, and a ſtrong ſulphureous ſmell. The ſiſter-in-law, who ſtood with her back to the fire-place, was ſtruck dead, although the only marks of injury that afterwards appeared were ſome livid ſpots on the back of her neck and ſhoulders. Mrs. Hill, who ſat cloſe by her, ran with her infant into an adjoining room, and fainted. The houſe became in a few minutes involved in flames, and, although the fire was immediately diſcovered, yet ſo much time elapſed in forcing open the doors, &c. that it was with extreme danger and difficulty that Mrs. Hill and her child could be extricated.

3d. The body of a woman was drawn out of the ſerpentine river, by a Newfoundland-dog. A letter was found in her pocket, which ſtated her to be a French emigrant; that ſhe had reſided in Wimpole-ſtreet, and had ſuffered various and ſevere afflictions. The Marquis of Hertford, who, with many others, was drawn to the ſpot, ordered the body to be taken to the humane ſociety recovery houſe, near the magazine; where every means of reſuſcitation were tried, but without ſucceſs.

4th. The honourable Butler Danvers, and Captain Edwards, of the light dragoons, attended by their ſeconds, Captain Halliday, of Berkley-ſquare, and John Fernes, Eſq. with Meſſrs. Duke and Heaviſide, ſurgeons, met to decide an affair of honour, near the three mile ſtone, Uxbridge road; after having exchanged a brace of piſtols without effect, the interpoſition of their ſeconds effected a reconciliation.

The number of priſoners under confinement in the metropolis, who have given notice in the gazette, of their intentions to take the benefit of the recent act of parliament for their liberation is as follows:—69 in Newgate, 146 in the King's Bench, 177 in the Fleet, 31 in the Poultry, 19 in the Marſhalſea, 9 in Tothill-fields, Bridewell, 31 in the new jail, Southwark, 41 in Gilt-ſpur-ſtreet Compter, and 19 in Ludgate.

9th. At the Old Bailey, the Recorder paſſed ſentence of death upon the following priſoners, who

who had been capitally convicted in the courſe of the ſeſſion, namely, John Hill, and Thomas Thomas, for forgery; John Smith, alias Henry Stiles, for horſe-ſtealing; T. Houghton, for ſtealing privately from the perſon; John Jones, W. Lyons, W. Williams, and James Walton, for ſtealing to a certain amount in dwelling-houſes; and Catharine Ford and Mary Pigott, for the like offence.

10th. The canal to Paddington was opened for trade, with a grand proceſſion, along the Paddington line to Bull's bridge, at Uxbridge. Exactly at nine, the committee, with their friends, in two pleaſure-boats, ſet ſail, with colours and ſtreamers flying, each veſſel being towed by two horſes. At twelve o'clock the company were met at Bull's-bridge by the city ſhallop, (having on board the ſub-committee of the thames navigation,) and ſeveral pleaſure-boats, with large parties of ladies. On meeting, a ſalute was fired, and then the proceſſion returned in the following order:

1. The committee, and their friends, in two barges, with the Buckinghamſhire band of muſic.
2. The city ſhallop.
3. Seven pleaſure-boats.

At half-paſt five the cavalcade reached the great dock. This was announced by the firing of cannon on Weſtbourn-green-bridge, and a volley of muſketry from the town. After three huzzas, the company landed, and walked in proceſſion to the Yorkſhire Stingo, preceded by the Buckinghamſhire band, playing "God ſave the King." At half-paſt ſix, the company ſat down to dinner, and ſpent the evening with conviviality. Blue and purple ribbands were worn by the ladies, gentlemen, and men employed in the concern, on which were written, "The Marquis of Buckingham, and ſucceſs to the Grand Junction canal!" Great praiſe is due to the committee for the expedition which they have uſed ſince laſt ſpring in completing the canal. A long range of warehouſes are nearly finiſhed for the reception of goods. This day eight laden barges arrived. A public road, 100 feet wide, was finiſhed on Monday laſt to the quay, which is but a few paces from the Edgeware-road. The day proved as propitious as the undertaking is likely to prove a proſperous one. The number of perſons preſent could not be leſs than 20,000. For ſeveral miles the banks of the canal were lined with people. Several ſtages were erected for accommodation, and a long ſtring of carriages appeared on the public walk.

14th. Haycraft *v.* Creaſy.—This was an action brought againſt Mr. Creaſy, currier, for 485*l.* 9*s.* 4*d.* the amount of goods which, on the miſrepreſentation of Mr. C. the plaintiff had credited Miſs Robertſon, late of Blackheath. On the part of the plaintiff, the ſtricteſt caution appeared to have been uſed before the order was executed; but it was entirely ſatisfied by the declaration of the defendant. The defence ſet up was, that Mr. C. had been her dupe; that he had founded his favourable report of her on no better foundation than her own aſſertion; and that there were many others (ſeveral of whom he produced) of as extreme credulity as himſelf.—Lord Kenyon, in his charge, confined himſelf to the ſimple

ſimple fact of the goods having been furniſhed in conſequence of the repreſentation of the defendant, to whom he imputed nothing criminal. He laid it down, "that the defendant ſhould have ſaid ſuch circumſtances came to his knowledge reſpecting the lady who was the ſubject of the inquiry, as induced him to believe ſhe was a perſon of fortune." But having thought proper to deſcribe her as a perſon, whom he knew might be ſafely truſted, he was of opinion that no part of the defence repelled the action, and that in *foro conſcientiæ*, the plaintiff was entitled to a verdict. The jury found accordingly.

18th. *Workingham.* About two o'clock this morning, a ſtar of uncommon magnitude was obſerved in the eaſt ſome diſtance above the horizon. It was remarkably brilliant, and bore the appearance of a cluſter of ſix or ſeven ſtars in conjunction, pointed all round, emitting a variety of extraordinarily vivid flaſhes of luſtre. An appearance in the window, like the reflection of the moon, cauſed the perſon who firſt ſaw it to ariſe, and awaken his family, ſix in number, to behold it, who all viewed it with awful aſtoniſhment. The ſame phænomena were diſtinctly ſeen at Hinckley.

19th. As two boats, filled with pleaſure parties, paſſed cloſe to each other, at Putney-bridge, a waterman belonging to one of them, inſtead of ſhipping his oar, kept it extended, ſeemingly with the intention of doing miſchief. The conſequence was, that it ſtruck a gentleman in the other boat in the neck, and inſtantly precipitated him to the bottom. The aggreſſor rowed off laughing at the circumſtance. Every exertion, however, was uſed, by a number of boats which inſtantly repaired to the ſpot for ſaving the gentleman, but unfortunately without effect, as the body never roſe.

22d. This morning at an early hour, immenſe crowds from the metropolis and the adjacent parts made their appearance in Hyde-park, to witneſs the review of thoſe volunteer and aſſociated corps, in London and its environs, who ſo patriotically enrolled, equipped, and diſciplined themſelves, at their own expence, for the defence and ſafety of their country. The different corps, to the number of 4734, had been drawn up for a conſiderable time, when, at ten, his Royal Highneſs the Commander in Chief appeared on the ground, accompanied by his brother the Duke of Kent, Lord Harrington, Lord Cathcart, and ſeveral other general officers, aids-du-camp, &c. In leſs than half an hour afterwards, arrived his Royal Highneſs the Prince of Wales, eſcorted by the Weſtminſter cavalry. The various corps then went through their exerciſes and evolutions, with a degree of preciſion which muſt reflect the higheſt honour on their attention to military diſcipline. The vollies were in general very regular; and, from the very excellent appearance of the men, the elegance of the uniforms, the fine order of the arms, and the aſſemblage of beauty, which gave luſtre to the ſpectacle, the *coup d'œil* was, upon the whole, extremely magnificent.

24th. *Conſtantinople.* Lord Elgin, the Engliſh Plenipotentiary, has had an extraordinary audience of the Grand Signior, in which

which his highneſs made him a preſent of a ſuperb aigrette of diamonds, a horſe richly capariſoned, and ſeveral very rich pelices. Several of the French priſoners who had been confined in the caſtles of the Black ſea have paſſed through this place on their way homeward. It is ſaid, that all the other French priſoners are immediately to be ſet at liberty.

25th. Mr. Vanſittart, one of the ſecretaries of the treaſury, waited on the lord mayor from the chancellor of the exchequer, to repreſent that his Majeſty's miniſters had ſtrong grounds to think that the French would attempt an immediate deſcent on this iſland; that many ſeafaring men, whoſe ſervices at this criſis would be invaluable, had taken refuge in the city to avoid being preſſed; and to requeſt that the lord mayor would permit a preſs-gang under any circumſtances of modification which the city magiſtrates could ſuggeſt. The lord mayor ſaid he could not give an anſwer till he took the opinion of his brother magiſtrates; and for this purpoſe he ſummoned a court of aldermen to meet early next forenoon, prior to the court of common council. The court in conſideration of the impending danger, and the handſome manner in which the application had been made, conſented the lord mayor ſhould back the warrants for a month, upon the expreſs condition that a peace officer ſhould attend every party, and that freemen and houſeholders ſhould not be taken away without the conſent of the lord mayor.

28th. The following account of the eſcape of the priſoners from the jail of Newgate, in Dublin, on the 18th, perhaps can only, if at all, be paralleled by the hiſtory of Jack Shepherd's eſcape from the London Newgate, and may be relied on as authentic:—On the ground floor in the inner yard, twenty-eight priſoners were confined in four cells, to each of which there is an iron door leading to the upper apartments, at the foot of which there is alſo an iron door. On the 15th, about twelve o'clock, the priſoners perceiving that their cells were inſpected by the turnkeys, conceived it to be a good time to effect their eſcape before the next inſpection; and accordingly on that day, while they had the liberty of the yard, they agreed on their plan, which the want of a rope to deſcend by from the roof prevented the execution of on that night; but the next day one of their wives having contrived to convey them a rope, on that night they made the neceſſary breaches, which they effected between ſeven and nine o'clock, having been locked up at ſix. Their plan was to break a communication between the cells, and thence to the ſtairs, which they effected with no other inſtruments than one piece of iron about ſix inches long and their knives: with theſe they made their way through the thick walls that ſupport the arches of the cells. On aſcending the ſtairs, they were ſtopped by a door at the foot of the upper flight: this difficulty, however, they ſoon overcame, as a wall built in place of the hand railing is but four inches thick: they next had to encounter an iron grate in the chimney of an upper room, but by breaking the wall at the end of the grate they got above it. Having thus opened a paſſage

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to the roof, their next object was to get rid of the heavy irons with which ſome of them were bolted: they therefore waited till the next night. On their return to their cells, they ſtopped the breaches with ſtones, and the next day the deputy-gaoler having an information that one of the priſoners had requeſted of a woman to bring him a rope for the purpoſe of eſcaping, he loaded him with irons, which, however, he contrived to file off, and eſcaped with the reſt. About one o'clock on Saturday morning, ſixteen of them got on the roof of the ſeſſion-houſe, at the end of which, next to Green-ſtreet, they raiſed the lead, and faſtened a rope to one of the rafters, by which they deſcended to the waſte ground between the ſeſſion-houſe and the ſheriff's priſon. The laſt of the ſixteen, named Traynor, alias Murphy, diſtinctly heard the only centinel in view (who was planted above one hundred yards from the place they deſcended) regularly challenge every man as he walked away; they anſwering "a friend," were ſuffered to paſs into Green-ſtreet; but on Murphy's getting to the ground, the centinel, who by this time had approached the ſpot, after challenging, perceived the rope, and exclaimed, "You came down by that rope?" which the other acknowledged and ſurrendered.

31ſt. A ſevere thunder-ſtorm happened in the neighbourhood of Abberford. At Parlington, the ſeat of Sir Thomas Gaſcoigne, the ſervants, on ſitting down to dinner in the hall, were alarmed by the cry of "water! water!" They inſtantly went out, and found themſelves ſurrounded with a flood. The ſtables were filled as high up as the mangers, and every place wore the appearance of inſtant deſtruction. This ſudden deluge is ſuppoſed to have been occaſioned by the burſting of a thunder-cloud. The water, in its rapid courſe, did much damage. The diviſion-walls (of conſiderable thickneſs) of three paddocks, ſituated at the end of each other, were entirely waſhed down, and the ſtones, ſome of which were upwards of 200 cwt. ſcattered about the grounds. At Abberford, many of the houſes were filled with water, to the depth of three or four feet above the cellars. At Milford, the water was two or three feet on the turnpike road. The whole had the appearance of a general deluge, and greatly alarmed the inhabitants.

The run-away ſlaves in New Providence have lately become exceedingly formidable to their maſters, under the conduct of a chief, who was known by the name of King Cæſar! After many dangers, King Cæſar has been killed. His death was celebrated as an occaſion of general joy. He had been a prince in Africa, and was obeyed as ſuch by his fellows in New Providence.

The ſtatue of Suworow, in marble, has been placed in the imperial gardens, at Peterſburgh, in the preſence of the Emperor, the royal family, and ſeveral regiments of life-guards; it was accompanied by muſic. Prince Conſtantine made a ſpeech upon the occaſion.

A new mode of mounting window-ſaſhes has been lately invented, and found a general adoption in America. It diſcards the troubleſome apparatus of lines, weights, and pullies. It merely conſiſts

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of this:—three or four holes are bored in each ſide of the aſcending faſh, into which common bottle corks are inſerted, leaving a projection of one ſixteenth of an inch beyond the ſurface. This ſimple contrivance is found to anſwer every purpoſe, as the elaſticity of the cork is of itſelf ſufficient to keep up the faſh at any required height.

India.—A native ſchool-maſter, accompanied by twenty-one boys, his ſcholars, was paſſing a branch of the Palla river, not far from Wallajabad; at the time of their having reached the bank of the river, its bed was nearly dry, and they conſequently expected to paſs it without the ſmalleſt danger: the late heavy rains, however, had accumulated into a large and extenſive body of water, above the paſs, which ſuddenly breaking through its embankment, ruſhed impetuouſly down, and overwhelmed the unſuſpecting travellers with immediate deſtruction. Two boys, with their maſter, alone reached the oppoſite bank of the river, but one of them ſo much exhauſted, that he died in a few minutes after he had touched the ſhore. The poor ſchool-maſter ſtood upon the bank, and gazed upon his dying pupils, in all the agonies of deſpair,—"and who," ſaid he, "ſhall tell this dreadful tale to the fathers and to the mothers of theſe children—I never can."—After this pathetic exclamation, he ſtood ſome few moments, exhibiting a ſpeechleſs figure of oppreſſive grief, then plunged into the flood, and inſtantly periſhed. The ſurviving boy ſoon recovered, and carried the afflicting tale to the houſe of the ſchool-maſter; when his wife, with that deſperation which ſometimes marks the otherwiſe mild character of the Aſiatic, threw herſelf into a deep well, and was drowned before aſſiſtance could be given.

Not leſs than one hundred and twenty-one incloſure bills have paſſed during the late ſeſſion of parliament; the greateſt number paſſed in any former ſeſſion was eighty-ſeven.

The late ſecret committee of the houſe of commons, having diſcovered many imperfections in the corn trade, and particularly in the corn-market of London, have recommended the following regulations,—conceiving that the London market muſt affect all the corn-markets in the kingdom. That the preſent corn-market of London be enlarged, and a regular clerk appointed under the corporation, and a regiſter kept of the proceedings. That factors ſhall not be allowed to deal on their own account, but be placed on the footing of brokers in other trades carried on in the city of London, by obliging them them to give bonds to the ſame effect. That, to prevent jobbing, no corn ſhould be ſold a ſecond time, before the payment on the firſt ſale; and that the factors ſhould exhibit *all* their ſamples at the ſame time, on opening of the market at a fixed hour. The committee alſo recommend, that effectual meaſures ſhould be adopted early in the next ſeſſion of parliament, for enlarging and opening the corn-market in London, either by removing it to the weſt-ſide of Tower-hill, near the river, or by extending the Exchange in Mark-lane, by the purchaſe and pulling down of ſome of the warehouſes and premiſes ſurrounding it; for

for appointing a proper clerk, to be reſponſible to the corporation; and for eſtabliſhing a correct public regiſter of tranſactions therein, and regular hours for opening and cloſing the ſame.

A three-ſhear wether ſheep was lately exhibited to a great concourſe of people in York market, which was eſteemed the greateſt phenomenon of the kind ever ſeen, both for ſymmetry and fatneſs. The above extraordinary animal, when alive, weighed 21 ſt. when killed and dreſſed, the fore quarters weighed 49lb. each; and the full weight of the four quarters was 182lb. He was fed by Mr. Kirby, of Catton, was remarkably ſmall boned, and was thought, by the beſt judges, to have carried more mutton for his bone than any ſheep ever produced in this county.

A ſtone was taken out of the bladder of a female patient at the infirmary in Leiceſter, who died of the diſeaſe (having applied too late to undergo the operation) of the enormous weight of 27 ounces. The above ſtone is ſuppoſed to be the largeſt ever found in the human bladder.

A mare, the property of Mr. W. Laynon, of St. Buryan, in Cornwall, foaled lately a fine filley, with only one eye, and that in the middle of her forehead, and without noſtrils. In other reſpects it was perfect, came at its proper time, and lived two days.

Died—Aged 99, Mrs. J. Drew. She retained her rational faculties to the laſt, and, till within a few days of her deceaſe, was regularly moving about with a baſket of ſmall wares for ſale; during the winter ſeaſon ſhe was a carrier or retailer of almanacks for the Printer of the Exeter and Plymouth Gazette.

At Cynllwyd, near Llanwrſt, aged 105, Elizabeth Rogers, leaving children, grand children, and great grand children to the number of 140.

AUGUST.

1ſt. As the Marquis of Abercorn was driving the Marchioneſs and Lady Catharine Hamilton in a curricle, near Stanmore, the horſes took fright, and ſet off at full ſpeed; in the attempt to pull them up, the reins ſnapped. The Marquis, embarraſſed by the ſhrieks of the ladies, and unſteady in his ſeat, jumped into the road, and broke his right thigh and left leg. The ladies kept their ſeats until the coachman, who was outrider, ſaw a convenient place, when, by forcing the horſes towards the ditch, he contrived to have them thrown out upon the bank without injury. The horſes again ſet off. The curate of Edgware coming along the road, made an attempt to ſtop them, but unfortunately loſt the cap of his knee by a blow of the pole. A ſurgeon ſet the Marquis's limb upon the ſpot.

At Maidſtone aſſizes, on Thurſday laſt, James and John Auſtin, brothers, were put to the bar on a charge of robbing the mail, containing the Haſtings bag, in January, 1800; and the bye mails of Rye, and ſeveral contiguous towns, on the 16th of March laſt, from both of which they obtained a large booty, notes to a great amount having been paid previous to the diſcovery of thoſe by whom the robbery had been perpetrated.

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The manner in which the diſcovery was brought about, was by tracing ſome of the notes which had been ſtolen to the poſſeſſion of James Auſtin, and by ſhewing that they could not have been obtained by him in a way conſiſtent with honeſty. This preſumptive evidence received ſtrong corroboration from the circumſtances that occurred at the time of the apprehenſion of the priſoners, as diſcloſed on the trial. It appeared that Mr. Holdſworth, the city marſhal, with proper aſſiſtants, apprehended the priſoners, and on coming down ſtairs from the lodgings where they were, a bundle of notes was found, which the priſoner James had taken occaſion to let fall in his deſcent. It was proved that this bundle of notes conſiſted of the paper of different country banks, which had been ſtolen from the mails, and thus there was no doubt of the connection of this priſoner with the robbery. After all the various proofs of theſe facts had been minutely gone through, the jury brought in a verdict, acquitting the priſoner John, but finding James guilty. The judge immediately pronounced ſentence of death on the priſoner, adjudging him to be hanged in chains near the place where the robbery was committed. At firſt he was obſtinate in denying his guilt; but after paſſing of the ſentence, he confeſſed he was concerned in the robbery, though he was not the perſon who ſtopped the horſe. He at the ſame time confeſſed having ſtolen many letters and parcels, while he was poſt-boy at Lamberhurſt, in Kent.

5th. As a party of ladies and gentlemen were amuſing themſelves in a wherry on the Thames, near Shepperton, a ſalmon leaped from the river, and fell into the boat. In the ſtruggle to ſeize the fiſh the wherry was precipitated down the ſtream, and was at length overturned; but, the place was fortunately ſo ſhallow, that none of the parties were drowned, though they were immerſed head over ears in the water. Mr. Smith, who ſaw the accident, induced the party to accompany him to his hoſpitable manſion, where a change of clothes was procured for the unfortunate party; but the lady of Mr. Maintone, who was far advanced in pregnancy, was ſeized with violent convulſions, in conſequence of the fright, and expired before morning.

The workmen employed in repairing the cathedral church of Glaſgow, found under a ſtone oppoſite the pulpit of the outer church, part of a human leg, encircled by a chain about thirty inches long, weighing about eleven drops of fine gold, with circular rings, one of which was twiſted, and the other wedged, and alternately ſoldered into each other. The bone was much blacker than the other human bones found in the ſame place, and the ſtone, which bore date 1599, was inſcribed apparently with old Saxon characters, but not legible.

Two children of Mr. Lawleſs, of Street-end, near Can- 9th. terbury, the one a boy about three years old, and the other a girl aged five years, were left by their mother in bed. During her abſence they took a bottle, containing about a pint of geneva, from a ſhelf, and drank it between them. Upon their mother's return, the girl was in a ſtate of ſtupefaction, and the boy ſhewing all the ſymptoms

toms of noisy intoxication. Every means to recover them proved ineffectual, as the girl died in the afternoon, and the boy on Wednesday morning.

A copy of the following letter has been generally circulated among the clergy:

Whitehall, Aug. 17.

My Lord,

The correct and satisfactory information which his Majesty's government obtained from the clergy, relative to the state of the last year's crops of grain, induces me to solicit the assistance and good offices of your lordship, and other prelates of our church, in procuring in like manner, and through the same respectable channel, a statement of the number of acres of wheat, barley, oats, potatoes, turnips, rape, pease and beans, since the last harvest, in the several parishes in England and Wales.

In order to abridge as much as possible the trouble which this request will impose on such of the clergy in your diocese as shall be prevailed on to undertake it, I inclose, in a separate cover, returns, with columns ready to be filled up with the number of acres sown with each particular species of grain, and other crops therein specified.

It has occurred to his Majesty's confidential servants, that if they could be furnished, through the favour and assistance of the clergy, with an annual return of the description I have mentioned, it would be a circumstance highly beneficial to the public interests, as it would form the best criterion whereby to judge of the effects which the provisions of parliament, both in regard to inclosures and other matters, produce on the agriculture of this country.

I have the honour to be, &c.

PELHAM.

17th. A few days ago, a gentleman driving his phaeton, in which were three of his children, upon the Steine at Brighthelmstone, the reins suddenly broke, and the horses took fright, and galloped full speed towards the sea. The gentleman took one of his children in his arms, and, getting over the back of the carriage, escaped with it unhurt. The horses continued their pace, and had actually got to within a few yards of the Cliff, when Sir John Lade, who was riding by at the time, seeing the imminent danger to which the children were exposed, with equal intrepidity and presence of mind, drove his own horse with great force against the carriage horses, succeeded in turning them round, and thus rescued the children from certain destruction. Sir John's horse was materially hurt by the violence of the shock.

21st. *Fonthill.* A brief account of this day's sale will give a competent idea of the whole. There never was, perhaps, in the world, a collection of finer, or more superb furniture, in proportion to its quantity. The books, and a very few of the best paintings only, were retained. The distinguished elegance of this noted seat, the natural beauty of the grounds, the art and expence so profusely lavished on their improvement; a spacious family mansion, in the best style of modern architecture, replenished with an excess of the most voluptuous accommodation, naturally attracted, as may well be conceived, all the fashion far and near. From

Saliſbury, Andover, Bath, Weymouth, &c. all the ſubordinate towns, the villas, and even the hamlets, in their reſpective vicinities, the roads ſwarmed with the young and gay; and before noon every chamber in the houſe, as well as all the adjacent grounds, were crowded with genteel people; the court and ſtable yard with carriages, and all the gates, doors, and paſſages, with lacqueys and beggars. The auction was in the great hall, where an organ, 26 feet high, and 15 feet wide, is placed. This very maſterly inſtrument, built and finiſhed in ſuch ſuperlative taſte, that it is ſaid to have coſt near 2000*l.* played till the buſineſs of the day commenced. Every article diſpoſed of might, both for value and magnificence, ſuit any palace in Europe. Not a ſtool or tripod, or ſpring blind or window curtain, was ſold for ſo little as a guinea. Some marble ſlabs went at more than 100 guineas each. A buſt of old Homer was knocked down at 27 guineas, that of Virgil at 19. A young lady had inadvertently placed herſelf by a fine ſtatue of the *Venus de Medicis*. When this delicate and beautiful article was put up, a wag archly aſked which of the two was meant? The auctioneer modeſtly replied, the one was above all price; and he was authorized only to diſpoſe of the other. Every thing in the room, fitted *à la Turque*, ſold immenſely high. The richneſs of the hangings, all ſilk or ſatin, of ſuperlative quality, the brilliant French plates of glaſs which decorated and enlivened every ſide of the room, the ſofas formed in the moſt ſumptuous ſtyle of Oriental magnificence, the chairs and ſtools, all gilt with burniſhed gold, attracted every eye; and it was laughable to ſee even Wiltſhire farmers furniſhing their parlours with the gorgeous accumulation of inordinate fortune, and effeminate taſte: Some articles, however, ſold much under value. The organ went for no more than 290*l.* it was purchaſed by the Rev. Mr. Ogle, brother-in-law to Mr. Sheridan.

23d. A boat, croſſing from Limehouſe-hole to Deptford, with a gentleman, his wife, and child, was run down by a lighter with ſuch rapidity as to cauſe it to bulge; and, before aſſiſtance could be procured, they were all drowned except the waterman, who kept himſelf above water till a boat arrived to his relief.

27th. The famous and admired weeping willow planted by Pope, is at length felled to the ground; it has been long decaying, yet the axe ſtill lingered, but at length the fatal ſtroke was given. It came from Spain, incloſing a preſent to the late lady Suffolk, who came over with George II. and Queen Caroline, and was a favourite of both, particularly ſo of the King. Mr. Pope was in company when the covering was taken off the preſent: he obſerved the pieces of ſticks appeared as if there was ſome vegetation, and added, 'Perhaps they may produce ſomething we have not in England.'—Under this idea he planted it in his garden, and it produced the willow tree that has given birth to ſo many others.

31ſt. *St. Peterſburg.*—From a liſt publiſhed here by the Synod, it appears, that in the courſe of laſt year there died, in Ruſſia, 216 perſons who had reached their 100th

year; 133 who were from 101 to 110 years old; 26 from 111 to 119 years; 9 who were 120; 1 of 125; and 2 of 130 years old: and that, including theſe perſons, there died 2250 who were 90 years of age.

The total number of all the new publications, publiſhed in London during the year 1800, was 693. The coſt, eſtimated in boards, amounted to 230*l.* 5*s.*

One of the largeſt tigers ever ſeen in Bengal has been taken near Benares. He had, it appears, infeſted that part for a conſiderable time, and became the terror of the city. The Nabob having offered a reward, he was caught by the following ſtratagem: he was led to aſcend a plank, nearly balanced; which, turning when he was paſt the centre, let him fall upon ſharp ſtakes prepared below.

At the Eaſter aſſizes at Shrewſbury, a man charged with ſheep ſtealing affected to be dumb, and conſequently unable to plead to the indictment. He was remanded to priſon, and at the late ſeſſions again arraigned. He perſiſted in ſilence, when a jury was empannelled to enquire into the cauſe, and finding that he was mute only with a view of evading trial, he was put to the bar, found guilty of the offence imputed to him, and left by the judges for execution. After conviction, he implored for mercy, declaring, that he had been adviſed to feign dumbneſs as the means of eſcaping puniſhment.

At the aſſizes at Maidſtone, there was a cauſe which, from its novelty, excited an uncommon degree of attention; ſuch a circumſtance has not occurred for half a century: it was a trial of a writ of right, in which Sir John Honeywood was defendant againſt Lord Gwydir, to recover a piece of land. The jury conſiſted of ſixteen Knights. After a long diſcuſſion, a verdict was given in favour of Sir John Honeywood.

A deputation of the Cherokees lately attended the Miniſters of the Anglo-American Government at Waſhington. Aſſurances of amity were mutually renewed between the two nations. There was once reaſon to fear that the aboriginal Americans might be exterminated ſooner than civilized; but ſince they began to learn the uſe of the plough and of the ſpinning-wheel, it ſeems probable that the race may be continued and multiplied; and that they may, in the courſe of time, riſe to an equality with the conquerors of their country in knowledge, induſtry, and refinement of manners.

The Emperor of Ruſſia has iſſued a very ſtrict Ukaſe againſt houſes where unlawful games are played; which his Imperial Majeſty very properly ſtiles "receptacles of vice, where infamous plunderers meditate in cold blood the deſtruction of whole families, and, by a ſingle caſt, wreſt from the hands of inexperienced youth the inheritance of their anceſtors, acquired, perhaps, by centuries of ſervice and labour."

The French government have taken much pains to meliorate the wool of their native ſheep by the introduction of Spaniſh rams. They have ſucceeded in producing a valuable mixed breed. Ewes have, within this year, been trebled in their value, and rams are at nearly eight-fold their laſt year's prices: the latter go ſo far as thirty louis.

The reports of the apprehenſion and execution of the Sultaun Shah, prove unfounded. This extraordinary man was a wandering Fakeer, and taking advantage of the extraordinary credulity of the people, in the year 1799, declared himſelf to be Golaum Kaader, who had been ſome years dead: he pretended, however, that when he (Golaum) was ordered for execution, his partizans effected his eſcape, by putting another perſon into the cage in which he was confined, and who ſuffered in his ſtead. He added, that he had reſided many years at Mecca, where he had devoted himſelf entirely to religious worſhip, until he had received orders from the Prophet to return, in order to recover Hindoſtan from the Mahrattas, and eſtabliſh his religion throughout their various diſtricts. This impoſtor having gained a number of adherents, took the field againſt the Mahrattas, but was defeated on the banks of the Caullee Muddel, and compelled to fly into the country of the Seicks, leaving four hundred of his people in the field of battle. For upwards of twelve months he remained in perfect obſcurity; but towards the cloſe of the laſt year he again appeared between Lahor and Condahar, at the head of a conſiderable body of enthuſiaſts, and had ſo far ingratiated himſelf with ſome of the diſaffected Zemindars, as to receive from them the neceſſary ſupplies of grain, &c. for the ſubſiſtence of his followers. Theſe he diſpoſed of in ſeveral ſtrong holds; and his power was rapidly acquiring conſiſtence and deciſion, when one of his poſts was attacked by a party of Seicks, who put the entire garriſon to the ſword. To revenge their fall, the *ſoi diſant* Golaum aſſembled his forces, and gave battle to the Seick army under Meiza Kabajee; but he was beaten, and compelled to fly towards Moulton; where, at the date of the late diſpatches, he was throwing up fortifications on the banks of the Attock. Zemaun Shah had, however, ſent a ſtrong corps againſt him; and the next accounts will probably announce his deſtruction.

The Surrey Iron Rail-way, an Act for the erection of which has lately received the Royal Aſſent, promiſes to be one of the moſt uſeful public works that have of late been undertaken for the improvement of the county. Theſe iron roads are excellent ſubſtitutes for canals, and, in ſome inſtances, ſuperior to them. They are executed at one third of the expence, and by not obſtructing the natural flow of rivers, all the evils with which canals are at times accompanied, are avoided. One horſe, on an iron rail-way, will do the work of ten, and the ſpeed with which carriage is performed, exceeds all other modes of conveyance. This iron rail-way, commencing at Wandſworth, will, in all probability, be extended to Portſmouth, by which, at all times of the year, and, in the ſevereſt froſts, when canals are locked up in ice, ſtores might be, in one day, conveyed from Woolwich-warren to our fleets at Spithead—a thing which it has been long in contemplation to effect.

The Grand Surrey Canal Bill has alſo lately received the ſanction of Parliament. Perhaps a more important undertaking of this nature was never before attempted in theſe kingdoms. By a cut from the River

River Thames at Vauxhall, to Deptford, it penetrates the ſouth part of the metropolis; collateral cuts extend to Rotherhithe, Peckham, Horſemonger-lane, and Blackman-ſtreet. The Royal Dock-yards and Victualling-office at Deptford, will alſo have the advantage of communications with this grand canal. The upper part of the canal, nearly in a ſouth-eaſt direction from Kennington-common, paſſes by Stockwell, Clapham, and Upper and Lower Tooting, to Mitcham. It will be, hereafter, continued to Portſmouth. It will be now ſpeedily executed, under the direction of that very able engineer, Mr. Dodd, who was the author of the plan.

The Phœnix Indiaman, on her paſſage from the Cape to Calcutta, ſaw an iſland lying in lat. 9. 30. S. long. by Lunar obſervation 89. 14 E. N. N. E. and S. S. W. 7 or 8 leagues in circumference. This iſland was firſt diſcovered in 1770 by the ſhip True Briton, and by her named the iſland of Apolonia: the land is high and uneven, and may be ſeen 12 or 14 leagues.

At Worceſter, a fine cart horſe, the property of Mr. T. Allies, died lately, and, as he appeared in good condition, the carcaſs was opened to diſcover the cauſe, when, to the ſurpriſe of thoſe preſent at the inveſtigation, near the ſtomach was found a ſolid brown ſtone, nearly the ſhape and ſize of a hatter's block, which weighed eleven pounds and a half. On further inſpection, another was taken out which weighed about three pounds, and two others yet ſmaller.

Died.—Aged 103, Mr. Joſhua Dixon, of Dowton. By his two wives he had a numerous family; his eldeſt daughter, now living, is upwards of 70 years of age, and his youngeſt child only 18. He was a remarkably free liver, and, from his own account, had drank, in the courſe of his life, upwards of 1000 gallons of brandy, beſides other liquors, and enjoyed his faculties to the laſt.

SEPTEMBER.

Portſmouth.—A Court-martial was held this day on Capt. Ferris, and the officers of his Majeſty's late ſhip Hannibal, to enquire into the cauſes of the loſs of that ſhip in the action with a French ſquadron in Algeziras Bay. The reſult was a moſt honourable acquittal to Capt. Ferris and his officers, who, with the ſhip's company, were complimented in the moſt handſome manner by Admiral Holloway (the preſident) upon the heroic bravery which they diſplayed on that occaſion. 1ſt.

Berlin.—The town of Teltow may be ſaid to exiſt no longer. Auguſt 29 the church, the townhouſe, and 51 houſes, fell a prey in a few hours to the flames. The wind, which blew with violence from the N. E. ſpread the blaze to the four corners at once. Happily it changed to the weſt; by which means part of the town eſcaped. The greateſt part of the inhabitants were from home, at Berlin, Potſdam, and Trebbin; ſo that little aſſiſtance could be afforded.

A moſt remarkable whirlwind aroſe in the pariſh of Wiſhaw. It began ſoon after 10, about 200 yards from the houſe of the Rev. Mr. Matthews, and proceeded in a ſtraight line through 4th.

the farm-yard, took up a wooden dog-kennel, in which were two pointer dogs, and carried it over a hedge 50 yards distant from the spot where it stood. A young man, who was going through the yard at the time, was struck down by its force, but was not materially injured. It continued its course for more than two miles, and swept a width of nearly 100 yards, breaking down the trees in its passage, and doing damage, it is supposed, to the amount of 500*l.*

7th. About six o'clock a shock of an earthquake was felt in Edinburgh, and its vicinity. It appears to have been violent; but its duration was only about two seconds. It is thought the shock has been pretty general, as the same sensation was experienced in Glasgow, a distance of 44 miles, about the same moment. It was also felt at Dumferline in Fife. The weather had been cold with easterly winds and rain.

13th. The following thanksgiving prayer was this day read: "O Almighty Lord God! wonderful in operation, infinite in wisdom, power, and goodness; terrible in thy judgments, but abundant in loving kindness and mercy! thou turnest the fruitful land into barrenness, for the wickedness of them that dwell therein; and again thou commandest the water to spring in the dry ground, and the vallies to stand thick with corn. We, thine unworthy servants, the people of this sinful nation, offer unto thee our praises and thanksgivings, for that thou hast vouchsafed to remove far from us the fear of dearth and famine; causing, by thy blessing, the fields which we had sown to yield, in overflowing abundance, their various fruits of increase; and in thy goodness, so ordering the seasons, that we have joyfully reaped and gathered into our barns. Not unto us, O Lord! not unto us, but unto thy name, be the praise. We acknowledge that we had merited the severity of thy wrath; but thou, in judgment, thinkest upon mercy, and wouldest not the death of a sinner, but that sinners turn from their evil ways and live. Give us grace, O Lord! to employ the gifts of thy bounty to thy glory; neither squandering them in riot and luxury, nor hoarding them from greediness of sordid gain; but grant that, with hearts full of thankfulness to thee, the giver of all good, we may use them with temperance for the supply of our own wants, and dispense them with liberality for the relief and comfort of the poor. And make us ever to be mindful, that a man's life consisteth not in the abundance of things that he possesseth, and that he liveth not by bread alone, but by every word that proceedeth out of the mouth of thee, his God; that so, while we pray daily unto thee, as thou hast commanded, for the perishable meat of this present world, we may cease not to labour more earnestly for that which endureth unto everlasting life, which thou hast given us by thy Son, Jesus Christ, our Lord; to whom, with the Father and the Holy Ghost, be all honour and glory, world without end. Amen."

The parish of St. Martin's in the fields has been thrown into consternation by the discovery, that Thomas Scott Smith acting as clergyman of the parish, and deputy of the curate, during his indisposition, is a gross impostor, never having

having been in orders, or connected with the holy profeſſion. This impoſtor has actually officiated a month for the curate of St. Martin's church. He is the ſon of an eminent leather-dealer in Crooked-lane. He had ingenuity enough to introduce himſelf to Mr. Fell, the curate, as a countryman of his (Yorkſhire,) ſaying he was nephew to Lord Eldon, and had been in orders near 12 months, having been ordained by the Biſhop of Peterborough. Mr. Fell, ſtruck with the rank of his viſitor, paid him every mark of reſpect; expreſſed how much he felt himſelf honoured by the preference ſhewn to him, and accepted the proffered aſſiſtance the more readily, being at the time in ill health. Every thing was ſettled; and the pretended nephew of Lord Eldon entered upon his clerical duty the next day, by performing the marriage ceremony over 16 couple, adminiſtering the ſacrament to four perſons, chriſtening ſeveral, and burying 12. In a converſation the next day with his clerk, he ſaid that he was educated at Queen's-college, Cambridge, where he had taken his degree of bachelor of arts about a month ſince. On the Saturday following he went to a mercer's ſhop in Holywell-ſtreet, in the Strand, and ordered a ſet of canonicals, to be made by four o'clock in the afternoon: in the interim he borrowed a ſet, told the ſhopkeeper his name was Smith, and that he was chaplain to Lord Eldon. The mercer took the trouble to call at Lord Eldon's to make the inquiry; when the ſteward informed him, no perſon of the name of Smith was engaged by his lordſhip in that capacity. In conſequence of this information, the mercer called, in his way back, on the deputy curate of St. Martin's, and ſaw Mr. Smith in the veſtry; when he told him he had an opportunity of diſpoſing of the ſet of canonicals he had lent him in the morning; but, to prevent Mr. Smith's being put to any inconvenience, he ſhould have the ſet he ordered by three o'clock preciſely: by this fineſſe the mercer got back his goods.—He was educated at Peckham-ſchool, and has been employed as a rider to his father. He is only 23 years of age, middle ſtature, in perſon thin; and, when at the bar in Bow-ſtreet, ſtared around him with an unmeaning eye, apparently indifferent to his ſituation.

19th. The Prince of Wales coming out of Mrs. Fitzherbert's houſe, made a falſe ſtep, which threw him on his back, and very much bruiſed the ſpinal bone. His Royal Highneſs was carried home, and put to bed, and Mr. Keate, the ſurgeon, inſtantly ſent for from London. The bruiſe has occaſioned exceſſive pain.

The ſentence of death paſſed on Sir Henry Browne Hayes, for running away with Miſs Pike, has been mitigated to tranſportation for life to Botany Bay.

21ſt. A very extraordinary robbery took place in the houſe of lords. The whole of the gold lace and all the ornaments of the throne, the king's arms excepted, were ſtripped off and carried away.

23d. The right hon. the lords of the treaſury have eſtabliſhed, under the late act of parliament, the following bounties in the port of London, for the encourage-

ment of the fiſheries on the coaſts of Great Britain, viz.

For the firſt greateſt quantity of freſh cod, haddock, tuſk, and ling fiſh, expoſed and ſold in Billingſgate-market, from Sept. 1, 1801, to April 1, 1802, by individuals or partnerſhip company, a bounty of 300*l.*

Provided the aggregate quantity ſold within the above period ſhall not be leſs than - - 300 *Tons*

Second greateſt quantity 250*l.*

Provided the aggregate as above, ſhall not be leſs than 250

Third greateſt quantity 175*l.* 175

Fourth greateſt quantity 125*l.* 125

Fifth greateſt quantity 100*l.* 100

Sixth greateſt quantity 50*l.* 50

For the firſt greateſt quantity of cod, haddock, ling, or tuſk fiſh, corned, or ſlightly ſalted, expoſed to ſale by individuals, or partnerſhip company, in Billingſgate-market, from Sept. 1, 1801, to April 1, 1802, a bounty of - 150*l.*

Provided the aggregate quantity ſold within the above period ſhall not be leſs than - - 300 *Tons*

Second greateſt quantity 125*l.*

Provided as before, - 250

Third greateſt quantity 100*l.* 200

Fourth greateſt quantity 75*l.* 150

Fifth greateſt quantity 50*l.* 100

Sixth greateſt quantity 25*l.* 50

For the firſt greateſt quantity of freſh ſkate, thornback, maids, and plaice, expoſed to ſale in Billingſgate-market, from October 1, 1801, to May 1, 1802, by individuals, or partnerſhip company, a premium of 20 *l.*

Provided the aggregate quantity actually ſold ſhall not be leſs than - - 300 *Tons*

Second greateſt quantity 150*l.* 250

Third greateſt quantity 100*l.* 150

Fourth greateſt quantity 50*l.* 75

For the firſt greateſt quantity of ſkate, thornback, maids, and plaice, corned or ſlightly ſalted, expoſed to ſale, in Billingſgate-market, from October 1, 1801, to May 1, 1802, a premium of - - 100*l.*

Provided the aggregate quantity ſold as above, ſhall not be leſs than - - 200 *Tons*

Second greateſt quantity 75*l.* 150

Third greateſt quantity 50*l.* 100

Fourth greateſt quantity 25*l.* 50

Similar bounties are alſo allowed on freſh mackarel, ſalted mackarel, freſh herrings, and ſalted herrings, freſh pilchards, and ſalted pilchards, and freſh ſprats, under the like regulations and reſtrictions.

At the public office, Bow-ſtreet, Thomas Scott Smith, the canonical impoſtor, was finally examined before A. Graham, Eſq. reſpecting the forgery of the draft on Meſſrs. Smith, Payne, and Smiths, for the ſum of 10*l.* and which draft he negociated to Mr. Capper, of the Hungerford coffee houſe, in the Strand, as the draft of his father, although his father's name is Richard Smith, and the draft was ſigned Robert Smith. A clerk in the houſe of Meſſrs. Smith, Payne, and Smiths, ſaid, that Mr. Richard Smith, the priſoner's father, kept caſh at their houſe, but that the draft in queſtion was not his handwriting. The charge of the forgery, therefore, being ſufficiently eſtabliſhed to carry the matter before a jury, the parties were bound over to proſecute him at the next Old Bailey ſeſſions.

Upwards of 150 preachers were aſſembled at the methodiſt conference,

ference, held at Leeds. The Methodiſt Societies have experienced a conſiderable increaſe ſince the laſt conference; and the Iriſh Miſſionaries, who have preached in the native language, have added ſeveral thouſands to the ſociety; many of whom were before Roman Catholics.

It appears, that in the laſt 10 years, the revenue of Greenwich Hoſpital has been increaſed to the amount of 26,832*l.*; and in 13 years it has been more than doubled; the revenue of laſt year exceeded the expenditure by 32,645*l.* which is more than half the total amount of the revenue 13 years ago.

The effects of the Eaſt India Company in England and afloat, conſiſting of annuities, caſh in the treaſury, goods ſold, and not paid for, goods unſold, cargoes afloat, and other articles in their commerce, amounted, in the year 1800, to 16,185,950*l.*

The ſale of the Company's goods, which, in the year 1793, were eſtimated, on an average, to amount to 4,988,300*l.* amounted, in the laſt year, to 7,367,727*l.*

By the liſt of the ſhips loſt by the Eaſt India Company, from the year 1757, to the ſeaſon of 1801, it appears that 11 have been burnt by accident, 10 taken by the French, and 33 wrecked at ſea.

Subſtitute for Hemp.—Cordage manufactured from the long beard which grows on the ſhells of cocoa nuts is found ſuperior in every deſirable point to that produced from hemp. An Engliſh ſailor made ſome experiments on the ſubject, and the reſult was ſuch as to induce our government in India to adopt the plan. The materials were collected at the Laccadive iſlands, where it is produced in immenſe quantity, and ſome of the largeſt ſized cables have been made, and tried on board the ſhips compoſing Admiral Blanket's ſquadron—they anſwer perfectly well; and from their elaſtic nature, are deemed more ſerviceable in a high ſwelling tide than thoſe formed of the beſt hemp.

Extract of a letter, dated Camp Moree, Feb. 21. On the 19th, a man was carried away by a tigreſs; and, from our having miſſed a dawk, the next morning a party of troopers, armed only with piſtols, and the camel riders, who were only allowed to carry their ſwords, were ordered out. At ſun-riſe this morning, at the diſtance of five miles from camp, in a thick ſmall jungle, on the borders of a nullah, overgrown with high graſs, the party in ſearch of the tigreſs ſtarted her, when ſhe commenced the attack; the horſemen immediately returned the charge with a volley, which had no other effect than that of making her retreat. The ſize of this animal was ſuch, that Major Wharton ſent a man to camp to bring a reinforcement of a few men, armed with carbines; but before theſe could arrive, the tigreſs renewed the attack, and made ſome furious charges (which the riders avoided by their dexterity in turning their horſes), and retreated into the bed of the nullah, where the horſes could not follow her. In conſequence of this, the piſtols were given into the hands of the troopers on camels, who advanced boldly into the nullah. The tigreſs, grown deſperate, was making a moſt furious ſpring at one of the troopers, when he, with the greateſt

eſt ſteadineſs, fired his piſtol juſt as ſhe had ſprung, hit her on the head, and brought her to the ground. On meaſuring her, ſhe was found to be nine feet four inches.

The method the natives of Bijanagur have recourſe to, in moſt of their writing communications, is ſingular, and deſerving of notice. They have a ſubſtance, naturally white, which they firſt dye of a deep black, and then affix a border, which is ſtamped; on this they write with a ſoft ſtone found in that country, which they cut like a reed, and which leaves a white impreſſion that is almoſt indelible.

Extract of a letter, dated Naſſau, Bahamas, July 25. On Wedneſday laſt we experienced the moſt dreadful hurricane that ever was felt in theſe iſlands during its continuance; and as we have had frequent rains during the ſeaſon, accompanied with thunder and lightning, we had hoped to be exempted from this dreadful calamity; but, for ſome weeks paſt, we have had neither rain, thunder, nor lightning, notwithſtanding the weather has been very warm and cloſe. On the 20th and 21ſt the wind got to the N. E. and on the 22d, in the morning, it blew freſh from N. N. E. getting more to the northward with great violence. About twelve o'clock we became greatly alarmed, and by two o'clock it blew a hurricane. The veſſels then began to drive from their moorings, notwithſtanding all the maſts were ſtruck, and their anchors down, and every poſſible precaution uſed to make them keep their moorings: luckily, there was leſs ſhipping in the harbour than there uſually is at this time of the year; but the whole drove from their moorings, and came in a ſtring on the ſhore. The tide was flowing, and as it roſe the hurricane increaſed in violence until the wind became due North; very fortunately this drove all the veſſels on the town-ſide of the harbour, and prevented them from driving out to ſea; for, by three o'clock, there was ſcarcely a veſſel in the harbour. The Britiſh ſhip Echo had captured a Guineaman, which lay up the harbour; but ſhe parted from her anchors, and drove towards the town, ſtruck on the ground, and got on her beam ends: the ſeamen got to leeward on her ſides, and 250 ſlaves on board, between decks, were in the moſt imminent danger. After a ſhort time the veſſel fortunately righted, and drove on ſhore, where the crew and ſlaves were unexpectedly preſerved. Another Guineaman, named the George, which only arrived on the 21ſt, got on ſhore, and was in the greateſt danger, but the crew and ſlaves were fortunately ſaved. At three o'clock the wind began to get about to the eaſtward, but without any diminution of violence, and the ſpray of the ſea roſe in ſuch clouds as to render objects at a ſmall diſtance inviſible. At about half paſt four the wind got round to the Eaſt, and kept veering about with the ſun; a ſure prognoſtic that the gale would not be of any long continuance: but ſtill its violence was unabated. About this time the tide began to ebb, before the wind got round to the ſouthward; otherwiſe the veſſels muſt unavoidably have been driven to ſea, and would, in all probability, have been totally loſt; but, as they were all driven up at high water, none of them

them were blown off. About ſunſet, the wind had got round to the South, and ſtill blew with much violence; but as the town and harbour were ſheltered by the hills, it was not much felt there; and by eight or nine o'clock, when the ſun ſet, there was nothing remaining but a freſh gale. There is ſcarcely any ſuch thing as eſtimating the loſs occaſioned in thoſe few hours, but it is generally thought to amount to 100,000*l.* This may be credited, when you learn that, at one time, we counted 120 veſſels ſtranded; beſides ſeveral that were ſunk and eruſhed to pieces by other veſſels. The maſts of the veſſels were not cut away; they were literally blown away. One of the Guineamen loſt her's, together with the bowſprit, by the ſheer force of the wind. Many veſſels are bilged, and many totally abandoned; but, in general, there are hopes of ſaving moſt of thoſe that were ſtranded. On ſhore the damage done has been equal, in compariſon, with that at ſea. Mr. Hall's beautiful plantation of cocoa nuts has ſuffered greatly. Mr. Ferguſon's and Mr. Howie's houſes, in the town, have alſo felt the effects greatly. The ſea, to the ſouthward of Fort Montague, made a breach through the ſand hills, and has filled the valley to the weſtward of it many feet deep. In ſhort, it is the height of preſumption to attempt to eſtimate the loſs ſuſtained by this dreadful hurricane, as no one knows the extent of his loſs; but we are happy to learn, that the violence of this hurricane has not been felt at any great diſtance from this iſland, as ſeveral veſſels have ſince arrived, which only experienced a gale of wind at the time that we ſuffered ſo dreadfully.

There is now growing on the eſtate of Arthur B. Baker, eſq. of Glyn Ciriog, near Chirk Caſtle, Denbighſhire, an oak tree that meaſures the following uncommon dimenſions: length to the crown 23 feet; circumference at bottom, two feet from the ground, 51; ditto, in the middle, 32; making a total of no leſs than 1472 cubical feet, which, at 5s. the foot, the common trade price, amounts to 368*l.*

OCTOBER.

Some days ago the South-weſt angle of the tower of Burton Bedwardine church gave way, and fell upon the leads of that antient edifice, which was rebuilt in 1730. Moſt of the pews of the South ſide, together with the roof and one window, are demoliſhed; and the remaining part of the tower, containing three bells, is hourly expected to fall, being in too dangerous a ſtate for workmen to render it ſecure, or take it down. St. Nicholas's chapel, formerly adjoining the South ſide of the tower, has been long in ruins, and was taken down about two months ago to erect a large pier with the materials, to ſupport the South-eaſt angle of the tower. This pier, with an additional hoop of iron, was thought ſufficient to hold the tower together for another century. Some workmen were employed, when the tower fell, in erecting a ſcaffold to put on the iron hoops, when one of them perceiving his danger, leaped from the chancel roof, and eſcaped without injury. 7th.

About

10th. About noon, General Lauriſton, firſt Aid-de-Camp to General Bonaparte, arrived in town with the Ratification of the Preliminaries of Peace. M. Otto immediately waited on Lord Hawkeſbury with him, and at three o'clock the Park and Tower guns announced the exchange of the Ratification. Lauriſton arrived at Dover at nine o'clock the evening before. On his paſſing through town to M. Otto's reſidence, his carriage was followed by a numerous concourſe of people, who afterwards took the horſes from his carriage, and drew it down Bond-ſtreet, St. James's-ſtreet, and to Downing-ſtreet, expreſſing on the occaſion the moſt tumultuous joy. M. Otto and M. Lauriſton, attended by Mr. Cox, the Meſſenger, from Downing-ſtreet, then proceeded to the Admiralty; where they were met at the garden-gate by Lord St. Vincent, who very good humouredly addreſſed the mob thus:—"Gentlemen! Gentlemen!" (the populace gave his Lordſhip three huzzas) "let me requeſt you to be as orderly as poſſible; and, if you are determined to draw the Gentleman, accompanied by M. Otto, I requeſt of you to be careful, and not overturn the carriage."—The populace aſſured his Lordſhip they would be careful of, and reſpectful to, the ſtrangers.

The length of time that elapſed in expectation of the arrival of the Ratification of the Preliminaries of Peace, afforded ample notice for preparing to celebrate that joyful event with becoming ſplendour. This advantage was not neglected; and accordingly the illuminations this night were not only general, but diſplayed an extraordinary number of emblematic devices, many of them on ſo large a ſcale, ſo coſtly, and ſo elegantly executed, that the beholder, while admiring their beauty, could not but regret their ſhort-lived glory. There was a conſiderable proportion of ſquibs, rockets, and firing of piſtols. The latter, being an extremely offenſive and dangerous practice, was much reſtrained by the watchmen, who diſarmed ſeveral employed in this mode of teſtifying their joy. A ſhower of rain fell early in the evening, which rendered the ſtreets unpleaſant to pedeſtrians. This probably was the reaſon that the populace did not muſter ſo ſtrong as upon occaſions of leſs importance. How much the crowd might have increaſed in the courſe of the night is impoſſible to aſcertain, as about eleven o'clock a terrible ſtorm of thunder, lightning, and rain, came on, which intirely cleared the ſtreets of all their viſitors.

A jury ſat at the Royal Hoſpital public houſe on the body of a veteran ſoldier, who was ſhot on the morning of the preceding day in Chelſea College. The jury returned a verdict of Wilful Murder. The priſoner was the ſame afternoon committed by Juſtice Read to Tothill Fields Bridewell. It appeared in evidence to the jury, that a miſunderſtanding had exiſted between the deceaſed and the priſoner for near ſix years, which aroſe from a difference of opinion relative to the burning of coals allowed by the inſtitution. It is cuſtomary to allow coals only in the winter; and, in conſequence of this regulation, the penſioners made it a rule to ſave a ſmall quantity each day

day for ſummer uſe. The priſoner and the deceaſed occupying the ſame apartment, and not agreeing in reſpect to the conſumption of the coals, eternal bickerings enſued; and from ſuch trifling cauſes their diſputes frequently aroſe to ſuch a height, that about two years ſince a challenge was given and accepted by the parties. This being reported to their Commanding Officer Major Bulkeley, he reaſoned with them, and they then both gave their word of honour to him, that the affair ſhould go no further. The ſeaſon, however, having commenced, and Major Bulkeley being lately dead, the like circumſtances produced ſimilar altercations until the day the melancholy cataſtrophe took place. About ſeven o'clock the priſoner aroſe, and, after walking up and down the room for about half an hour, took from his bureau a brace of piſtols, and throwing open the door of the deceaſed's cabin, preſented a piſtol in each hand to the deceaſed, ſaying, "Come, you raſcal, behave like a man, and give me ſatisfaction; the deceaſed, who was ſitting upon the end of his bed, replied, "What do you mean?" took one of the piſtols, and threw it with contempt, and ſuch violence, at the priſoner's feet as to break it: the priſoner, further irritated at this, fired. The ball entered the heart, and paſſed through the body of the deceaſed, who inſtantly expired. The deceaſed, William Lambe, was in his 84th year, and had been many years a ſerjeant in the 25th regiment of foot. The priſoner, —— Legge, previous to this unhappy affair, has univerſally ſuſtained a fair character. They were both Captains, and ſuppoſed to be the beſt ſwordſmen in the College. Legge fought a duel about forty years ago, and killed his man.

This evening the illuminations in the metropolis were repeated with conſiderable augmentations of brilliancy, and paſſed over with uſual tranquillity. 12th.

A wooden houſe, which ſtood on Little Tower-hill, called True Blue, and which was a rendezvous for volunteer ſeamen, was wilfully ſet on fire about eleven o'clock this forenoon by ſome boys, and was burnt down in two hours. Several engines attended, but were not ſuffered to play, the populace being incenſed againſt it, ſaying it was a kidnapping houſe for ſailors before they were taken to the tender.

Thomas Scott Smith, the ſham parſon of St. Martin's, was convicted of the forgery on Mr. Capper, of the Hungerford coffee-houſe. His age was ſtated to be twenty-three. 22d.

Mantua. A feſtival of great magnificence has been celebrated in this city in honour of the monument of the celebrated Poet. If Virgil be one of the children moſt favoured by the Muſes, and has had a juſt empire over the imagination and ſenſibility of men, he is alſo one of thoſe who can have leaſt reaſon to complain of their ingratitude. Nothing in Greece has been done to extol the memory of Homer or of Heſiod. It is in vain to ſearch in Scotland for any traces of the birth-place or the tomb of Oſſian.

J. Legge, of Chelſea Hoſpital, was tried for the murder of his acquaintance and chamber-fellow, William Lambe. It appeared that the deceaſed and priſoner 23d.

ſoner had in the college one ſitting-room in common, but ſeparate bed-chambers. In this manner they had reſided for years. The wife of the deceaſed ſtated, that, on the morning the melancholy circumſtance took place, ſhe came out of her bed-room at near ſeven o'clock, and found the priſoner walking about, and ſwearing very much. She aſked him what was the matter. On which he replied, he would turn her out of the room if ſhe ſaid another word. Soon after ſhe went back to her bed-room, to ſee if her huſband was ſtirring, and found he was dreſſing himſelf. At that moment the priſoner ruſhed by her, and put a piſtol into the hand of the deceaſed, who aſked what that was for, and threw it into the other room. The priſoner made towards the door, and fired through the glaſs of it; then, turning to her, ſaid, "I've done it! I've done it!" She perceived her huſband fall, and he expired immediately. This was corroborated by two witneſſes, who went into the room on hearing the report of the piſtol. One of them found a broken piſtol on the ground, with a ball in it, but no powder, and both of them heard the priſoner acknowledge the fact, and expreſs ſatisfaction at what he had done.

The priſoner in his defence ſaid, that he had received repeated inſults from the deceaſed, and had brought the piſtols for the purpoſe of obtaining an honourable end of the differences that had exiſted between them. That upon his tendering one, Lambe threw it violently at him, on which he cocked his own, and ſhot him dead. An attempt was made to prove him inſane, but the evidence merely went to his being melancholy, and in two or three inſtances having talked wildly. The Judge thought the caſe an aggravated murder. He was convicted, and ſentenced, according to the act, to be hanged, and his body to be diſſected.

The trial of this priſoner was followed by that of Richard Starke, for the murder of his wife, by beating, kicking, and dragging her on the floor. The facts were clearly made out, and the Recorder paſſed the ſame ſentence as in the former caſe.

Since 1793 the French navy has loſt, either by war or the elements, 45 ſhips of the line, two fifties, and 294 ſmaller veſſels. The Dutch, 25 ſhips of the line, one fifty, and 63 ſmaller. The Spaniſh, 11 ſhips of the line, 20 frigates, and 55 ſloops, &c.

The Pavilion, which the volunteers of Kent have erected in Mote Park, as a tribute of reſpect to Lord Romney, is a circular building, ſurrounded by columns, and covered with a dome: it is built after the models of the temple of the Sibyls, at Tivoli, near Rome, and the temple of Minerva, at Athens.

There is at preſent living in the townſhip of Over Darwin, near Blackburn, in Lancaſhire, a winder of twiſt, named James Morice, who, on the 9th of July laſt, had attained the age of 102 years; the twiſt which he winds he uſually carries home, whence he can walk to Preſton, a diſtance of fourteen miles, and back again in a day.

A moſt horrible example of a crime, almoſt new to human nature, lately occurred at Woodſtock: a woman appears deliberately to have deſtroyed her three children.

children, and afterwards herſelf, in the lake belonging to Blenheim Park!!! Her name was Watts. Her huſband was a day labourer at Barton, about ſix miles north of Woodſtock. They had been married nearly thirty years, and had had nineteen children; nine of whom had died in their infancy; the others were grown up and married. During various pregnancies ſhe had evinced a diſpoſition to be very low-ſpirited, and had three or four times left her huſband's houſe, and rambled and concealed herſelf in the fields; excepting on theſe occaſions, her conduct was regular, induſtrious, and affectionate to her family. No indigent perſons could have a better character in their pariſh than this induſtrious couple. In February laſt, being at that time about five months gone in her 20th pregnancy, ſhe had ſome diſpute with her huſband about the expenditure of a guinea. After ſome looſe and paſſionate declarations that ſhe would deſtroy herſelf, ſhe availed herſelf of the abſence of her huſband, and of her ſon, who reſided at home, both of whom were gone to their daily labour, and abſconded from her cottage, accompanied by her eldeſt girl about eleven, a boy about eight, and another boy about four. Whatever might have been her original intentions on leaving her own houſe, it appears that ſhe left a ſmall bundle, containing a change of cloaths for her children, at the houſe of an acquaintance at Wotton, near Woodſtock, directing that it ſhould be ſent back to her huſband, and afterwards entering Blenheim Park, ſpent part of the afternoon in the vicinity of the Great Bridge. On this ſpot ſhe was obſerved, late in the day, quieting to ſleep her youngeſt child; and from that time this unhappy family were not ſeen any more till they were found drowned, under the ſmall arch of the bridge, at its north weſt corner, near the ſpot called Roſamond's Well. The ſolid architecture and the magnitude of the walls of this bridge render it impoſſible that they could have fallen into the water by any common accident, and no doubt exiſted in the minds of the Coroner's jury, nor has ſince ariſen in conſequence of the fulleſt inquiries, but that this wretched woman was induced, in a fit of phrenzy, to throw her three children over the bridge into the water, and then to let herſelf drop upon them! More lovely children were never ſeen, and every reader can conceive the horror excited by the ſpectacle of a mother and her three infants laid dead beſide each other under ſuch circumſtances. The agony of her huſband, deprived ſo ſuddenly of his wife and children, was exceſſive; and nothing could exceed that of the Coroner's jury, who, after finding a verdict of inſanity upon the mother, pronounced, upon ſatisfactory evidence, that each of the children died by the hands of its parent!

A curious circumſtance occurred lately near Saffron Walden: a vaſt number of ſwifts and ſwallows had aſſembled in the air, apparently for the purpoſe of taking their departure to another climate, when a battle enſued, in which ſeveral of them were killed. One gentleman picked up ſeven which had periſhed in the conflict. None others of the feathered tribe mingled in the fight, which did not end until the

the combatants were wrapped in darkneſs.

DIED—At Briſtol, O'Brien, the famous Iriſh giant. He was eight feet ſix inches in height. This man, when he firſt began to derive a ſubſiſtence from the expoſure of his perſon to the public, was deeply affected by a ſenſe of humiliation, and often ſhed tears when, among the crowd whom curioſity attracted, any ſpectator treated him with reſpect. In time, however, all theſe tender feelings were entirely ſubdued, and he was latterly as much diſtinguiſhed for inſolent pride, as he was before for modeſt dejection.

NOVEMBER.

2d. John Legge, the old Chelſea penſioner, was executed. When his irons were knocked off, he addreſſed himſelf to Dr. Ford, the ordinary, and in a clear diſtinct voice, without the leaſt embarraſſment, declared, "that, having received an affront from the deceaſed, he was determined to have the ſatisfaction of a man and a ſoldier; and accordingly having loaded a brace of holſter piſtols equally, he entered the deceaſed's room, and tendered him his choice; that Lambe ſnatched one of the piſtols, and threw it at his head with ſuch violence that the ſtock broke in half, and that then, inſtigated by a ſudden and irreſiſtible impulſe of rage, he fired, and ſhot him dead." He was formerly in the gallant 34th regiment of foot, where he conducted himſelf ſo as to merit the approbation of his officers; and was ſuppoſed to be one of the beſt ſwordſmen in the army. He was ſeventy-five years of age, and near ſix feet high; ſtrongly made, and well proportioned; with an expreſſive countenance, to which hair of a ſilvery white gave a very intereſting appearance. He warned the crowd of the fatal effects of intemperate paſſion; and when juſt going to be turned off, Mr. Kirby judiciouſly ſuggeſted to Dr. Ford the propriety of interrogating him on the piſtols being both loaded or not. Dr. Ford complied, when Legge anſwered—"The piſtols were both loaded—ſo help me God! Lord have mercy on my ſoul!" It is remarkable, ſuch was Legge's ſerenity of mind, that he was awoke out of a deep ſleep at ſeven o'clock on the morning of execution.

14th. *Pedeſtrian Wager.*—Some time ago, Mr. Barclay made a match of 5000*l.* a ſide, with Mr. Fletcher, that he would go on foot ninety miles in twenty-one and a half ſucceſſive hours. Mr. Barclay ſtarted on Monday night, at twelve o'clock, at Ayton, on the road from York to Hull, about fifteen miles from the former city. He walked a mile out and a mile in, the mile of the road on which he walked being well lighted with lamps. He finiſhed his walking at twenty-two minutes four ſeconds paſt eight o'clock laſt evening, being one hour, ſeven minutes, and fifty-ſix ſeconds, within the time allowed. He ſtopped ſix times to refreſh and change his clothes, which generally took him from twelve minutes and a half to fifteen. The weather has been particularly favourable, except from four to eight o'clock yeſterday morning, when it grew hazy. This rendered him rather dull. A great concourſe of company

company attended, who were particularly attentive that he ſhould meet with no interruption. They ſeemed all highly pleaſed that he had won. At the cloſe he was huzzaed by the crowd, and carried about on their ſhoulders in triumph. Mr. Barclay had been in training ſince the beginning of September, under Mr. Smith, an old farmer, in Yorkſhire, who made him live upon raw meat and hard food, and do all ſorts of hard work.

The Ruſſian Archbiſhop Platon, who officiated at the coronation of the Emperor Alexander, is 105 years of age, and a man of diſtinguiſhed talents. He has conſecrated three ſovereigns of Ruſſia. His ſpeech was remarkable for its firmneſs and good ſenſe, and was circulated by the Emperor with great profuſion.

DECEMBER.

11th. Mr. Dallon, who had lived as page in the Duke of Glouceſter's family near 40 years, was diſcovered by the maid ſervant on entering the room, in the act of holding his arm over a baſon, and bleeding profuſely, having with great deliberation cut all the arteries of it. The girl, ſhocked at the diſcovery, ran out of the room for aſſiſtance; when the unfortunate gentleman, taking advantage of her abſence, cut his throat from ear to ear, and ſoon after died. The coroner's inqueſt brought in a verdict of lunacy.

18th. The corporation of London, anxious to exhibit a proof of their admiration of the gallant achievements of Sir Sidney Smith, at the ſiege of Acre, reſolved to beſtow upon him the freedom of their ancient city, and to accompany it with the preſent of a valuable ſword. Yeſterday the naval hero attended at Guildhall, in order to be inveſted with the civic privileges of which he had been deemed worthy, and to receive the ſymbol of valour he had ſo juſtly merited.

21ſt. *Mutiny at Bantry Bay.*—It was on the evening of the 7th inſtant, that the firſt obſervations were made by the officers of ſeveral ſhips of the ſquadron in Bantry Bay, that ſymptoms became evidently certain of ſome intended and approaching act of mutiny. It appears, that on its being underſtood that four or five ſail of the line were to be ordered to the Weſt Indies, the crews of the Temeraire and Formidable declared, that, as the peace was made, they would ſail only to England, and they declared their determination not to weigh anchor, if called upon. Apprehenſions were entertained that this ſpirit of inſubordination would extend to the whole fleet. No ſailing orders arriving, and the intended inſurrection being adjourned to that event, things remained in the uſual poſition till the morning of the 10th inſtant, when a ſeaman on board the Temeraire, Rear-Admiral the Hon. George Campbell, miſbehaving himſelf extremely, and with circumſtances of daring impudence toward one of the lieutenants, received a flogging, and was put in irons. Soon after this occurrence, appearances of revolt were for ſome time very viſible upon the forecaſtle, until at length a general cry was ſet up, of 'Reſcue the man in irons;' and attempts were made to enforce their threat.

The rear-admiral, with undaunted reſolution and preſence of mind, ordered the hatches to be cloſed down immediately; and being ſeconded with no leſs intrepidity by Captain Eyles and all his officers, ſupported by the marines, who have done honour to themſelves, and given a glorious example to their corps upon this occaſion, he ruſhed into the middle of the mutineers, and brought out their ringleaders priſoners from among them. They were immediately ſent off in irons to the flag ſhip of Admiral Mitchell, in order to be tried, and to receive the puniſhment due to the crime moſt unworthy of Britiſh ſailors.

On Friday, an admiralty meſſenger was diſpatched with a ſpecial commiſſion to Sir Andrew Mitchell, for the immediate trial of the mutineers, and the execution of ſuch of them as ſhall be found guilty. The admirals upon diſtant ſtations are empowered by their inſtructions to proceed to trial and execution upon ſuch occaſions, without ſending home for inſtructions or freſh authority. It will be remembered, that when Earl St. Vincent took the command of the channel fleet, the ſame latitude, by a peculiar act of the royal favour, was allowed to him.

29th. The intercourſe with Holland and Flanders, as well as with France, becomes eſtabliſhed from this day. A mail was made up this evening at the general poſt-office, and forwarded by packet-boats by way of Harwich and Helvoetſluys.

Accounts from Liſbon ſtate, that a domeſtic of Don Rodrigues (a member of adminiſtration) was murdered in the open day in ſight of his maſter's houſe. The murderer has very properly been hanged, to the no little aſtoniſhment of the inhabitants, who have not witneſſed ſuch an act of juſtice for many years paſt; and the government has declared its intention of inforcing a proper obedience to the laws in future. They have alſo begun to light the city, and cleanſe it from the exceſs of filth by which it has hitherto been diſgraced; and to eſtabliſh an efficient patrole, for the protection of perſons and property throughout the night.

There is at preſent living at Hilhead, in the pariſh of Bewcaſtle, a widow woman in her 100th year, who is gaining a ſet of new teeth! ſhe is alſo caſting her hair. The new hair is of a whitiſh colour, and remarkably ſoft, reſembling, in every reſpect, that of a child. She is ſtill able to walk about, and do a little buſineſs in the houſe.

The Wilts and Berks canal is now completely navigable, from Semington to Chippenham, Calne, Dauntſey Park and Bowdes Farm, near Wotton Baſſet; and there is now an uninterrupted communication by water, by the junction of the above with the Kennet and Avon canal from thoſe places to Bath, and from thence by the Avon to Briſtol.

A topographical deſcription of Cornwall lately publiſhed, mentions a ſteam-engine uſed for drawing off the water of the great tin-mine at Polgarth, which coſt the ſum of twenty thouſand pounds. The quantity of coal requiſite to keep this ſtupendous and wonderful engine in motion, is ſeventy-two buſhels in twenty-four hours. It raiſes ſixty-three gallons of water at every ſtroke, and performs four-

teen

teen of these motions every minute. The water thrown out upon the surface, runs off like a river, and according to the above calculation, must be upwards of nine hundred thousand gallons daily.

DIED—In his 100th year, the Swedish general Count Stakelberg, he entered into the service under Charles the XIIth. and continued therein till his death.

BIRTHS for the Year 1801.

Jan. 2. Lady Grant, a daughter.
5. The wife of the Portuguese Consul General, of a son.
13. Hon. Mrs. Cornwall, a daughter.
15. Lady Mary Anne Sturt, a daughter.
22. Countess of Stahremberg, a son.
24. Lady Charlotte Lenox, a son.
25. Countess of Westmoreland, a daughter.
27. Hon. Mrs. George Villiers, a son.
29. Lady Anne Hope, a son.
Lady of Sir Edward O'Brien, bart. a son and heir.
Lady of Sir John Douglas, a daughter.
Feb. 3. Lady of Sir W. Langham, a daughter.
9. Lady of the Hon. George Gunning, M. P. a son.
12. Lady of William Stephen Poyntz, Esq. M. P. a son.
21. Countess of Errol, a son.
23. Lady Viscountess St. Asaph, a son.
24. Lady Louisa Brome, a daughter.
28. Lady of Sir George Armytage, bart. a daughter.
Mar. 2. Countess of Guildford, a son and heir.
23. Countess of Derby, a daughter.
Lady William Beauclerk, a son.
25. Marchioness of Bath, a daughter.
30. Hon. Mrs. Green, a son.
Lady Bruce, a daughter.
Countess of Harborough, a daughter.
Lady of Sir Charles Watson, bart. a daughter.
Lady of Sir Hector Mackenzie, bart. a daughter.
April 6. Lady of W. Baker, Esq. M. P. a daughter.
Lady of G. H. Rose, Esq. M. P. a son.
18. The Empress of Germany, a princess.
20. Lady Caroline Stewart Wortley, a son.
24. Lady of Lord Viscount Belgrave, a son.
25. Lady of the Right Hon. George Canning, a son.
Lady Elizabeth Palk, a son.
Lady of the Hon. William Maule, a son.
Lady of John Dennison, Esq. M. P. a son.
30. Viscountess Charleville, a son.
Lady Le Despencer, a son.
Lady Anne Astley, a son.
Hon. Mrs. Locke, a daughter.
May 5. Lady of Sir Home Popham, a son.
6. Lady of Sir John Orde, a daughter.
11. Hon. Lady Dallas, a daughter.

17. Counteſs of Talbot, a daughter.
Lady Lucy Bridgeman, a ſon and daughter.
Lady of Sir J. Lawſon, bart. a ſon.
Lady of B. Hobhouſe, Eſq. M. P. a daughter.
Lady of Sir Charles Oakley, bart. a ſon.
Lady of Sir G. Temple, bart. a ſon.
21. The Queen of Sweden, a princeſs.
Lady of H. Thornton, Eſq. M. P. a daughter.
26. Lady of Lord Francis Godolphin Oſborne, a ſon.
27. Counteſs of Belmore, a ſtill born child.
Hon. Mrs. Stanley, a daughter.
30. Hon. Mrs. Ryder, a daughter.

June 3. Counteſs of Lucan, a ſon.
Lady of Brook Bridges, Eſq. a ſon and heir.
3. Marchioneſs of Wincheſter, a ſon.
6. Marchioneſs of Bute, a daughter.
14. Marchioneſs of Donegal, a ſtill born ſon.
17. Counteſs of Sutherland, a ſon.
19. Lady Templetown, a daughter.
24. Lady of Edmund Wigley, Eſq. M. P. a daughter.
25. Lady of Sir John Tagg, bart. a ſon.
29. The Queen of Pruſſia, a prince.
30. Counteſs of Granada, a ſon.
Lady of the Hon. Col. Creighton, a daughter.
Lady Charlotte Baillie, a daughter.
Lady Burnett, a ſon.
Lady of Sir William Clayton, bart. a ſon.
Lady Mary Murray, a ſon.
Lady Helen Hall, a daughter.

July 8. Lady Foulkſtone, a daughter.
9. Lady Amherſt, a daughter.
10. Lady Leſlie, a daughter.
Lady of Richard Slater Milnes, Eſq. M. P. a daughter.
18. The Ducheſs of Leeds, a daughter.
19. Lady Elizabeth Holliday, a daughter.
26. Lady Auguſta Leeth, a ſon.
Lady of John Agnew, Eſq. M. P. a daughter.
Lady of Sir William Ramſay, bart. a ſon.
Lady Stanley, a daughter.
25. Lady of Sir James Naſmyth, bart. a ſon.

Aug. 2. Lady Charlotte Strutt, a ſon.
3. Lady of Sir William Beechey, R. A. twins.
9. The Lady who was married at Rome, and afterwards at St. George's, Hanover-ſquare, to Prince Auguſtus Frederick, a daughter.
Lady Catherine Foreſter, a ſon.
14. Counteſs of Glaſgow, a daughter.
16. Lady Harriet Gill, a ſon.
18. Lady Amelia Kaye, a ſon.
Hon. Mrs. Charteris, a daughter.

Lady

Lady of Sir Duke Gifford, bart. a ſon.
Counteſs of Caithneſs, a ſon.
Lady Charlotte Campbell, a ſon.
29. Hon. Mrs. R. Stopford, a ſon.
Sept. 4. Lady of Sir H. Harpur, bart. a ſon.
8. Lady Hervey, a daughter.
9. Hon. Mrs. Dorrien Magens, a daughter.
13. Lady Catherine Graham, a ſon.
15. Lady of John Dent, Eſq. M. P. a daughter.
21. Viſcounteſs Dungannon, a ſon.
At Conſtantinople, the Lady of Lord Elgin, Engliſh Ambaſſador there, a daughter.
Hon. Mrs. Henniker, a daughter.
Lady Limerick, a daughter.
Lady Harriet French St. George, a daughter.
Lady of the Hon. Lawrence Dundas, a daughter.
Lady of Sir John Sinclair, bart. M. P. a ſon.
22. Hon. Mrs. Ramſay, a daughter.
24. Lady of Charles Morgan, Eſq. M. P. a daughter.
Oct. 1. Hon. Mrs. Smith, a ſon.
3. Lady of Sir H. Martin, bart, a ſon.
4. Counteſs of Berkley, a daughter.
Hon. Mrs. Spiers, a daughter.
10. Lady of the Hon. and Rev. Dr. Marſham, a ſon.
12. Lady of Brigadier-general Colin Campbell, a daughter.
15. Lady Charles Somerſet, a ſtill born ſon.
19. Lady Louiſa Harley, a ſon.
Lady of Lord Dunboyne, a ſon and heir.
Lady of the Right Hon. William Forward, a ſon.
Lady of Sir Charles Cotton, bart. a ſon.
22. Viſcounteſs Southwell, a ſon and heir.
25. Lady Charlotte Greville, a ſon.
27. The wife of Wilbraham Bootle, Eſq. M. P. a ſon.
28. Lady George Cavendiſh, a ſon.
Nov. 8. Lady of Sir Hew Dalrymple Hamilton, a daughter.
10. Lady of Sir John Payne, bart. a daughter.
13. Hon. Mrs. Captain Hunter, a ſon.
20. Lady of Vice-Admiral Sir Charles Morice Pole, bart. a ſtill born daughter.
The wife of Lieut. Col. Butler, M. P. a daughter.
The Electreſs Palatine of Bavaria, two princeſſes.
Hon. Mrs. Needham, a daughter.
Lady Anne Maxwell, a daughter.
Viſcounteſs Bantry, a ſon.
29. Viſcounteſs Deerhurſt, a daughter.
Dec. 1. Counteſs of Albemarle, a ſon.
3. The wife of Francis Freeling, Eſq. of the General Poſt-Office, a ſtill born ſon.

12. Countess of Oxford, a daughter.
Viscountess Corry, a son and heir.
21. Hon. Mrs. Gunning, a son.
27. Countess Poulett, a daughter.
Lady Mulgrave, a son.
Hon. Mrs. Rollo, a son.
At Dresden, the Princess Caroline, consort of Prince Maximilian, a son.

MARRIAGES for the Year 1801.

Jan. 1. Col. Cotton, eldest son of Sir Robert Salusbury Cotton, bart. to Lady Anne-Maria Pelham Clinton.
8. Lord Downe, to Miss Margaret Jean Ainslie.
22. Arthur French St. George, Esq. to the Hon. Miss Henrietta St. Lawrence.
Feb. 4. Hon. Charles Wyndham, to Lady Anne Lambton.
16. Sir John Coxe Hippisley, bart. to Mrs. Hippisley Coxe.
Mar. 5. Lieut. Col. Erskine, to Lady Louisa Paget.
13. John Joseph Henry, Esq. to Lady Emily Fitzgerald.
21. Lord Morpeth, to Lady Georgina Cavendish.
April 6. Hon. and the Rev. Pierce Meade, to Miss Elizabeth Percy.
7. Hon. Lord Whitworth, K. B. to the Duchess of Dorset.
13. Sir Edward Knatchbull, bart. to Miss Hawkins.
18. Sir John Arundel, to Miss Sarah Anne Sharpe.
May 11. Col. Orde, to Lady Louisa Jocelyn.
18. James Dupré, Esq. M.P. to Miss Maxwell.
20. Hon. Lieut. Col. William Fitzroy, to Miss Clarke.
25. Colonel Cunynghame, to Miss Mary Thurlow, youngest daughter of Lord Thurlow.
26. Sir Robert Harland, Bart. to Miss Vernon.
28. Capt. Adam Drummond, to Lady Charlotte Menzies, eldest daughter of the Duke of Athol.
June 3. Hon. Francis Nathaniel Burton, M. P. to the Hon. Valentina Lawless, sister of Lord Cloncurry.
13. Mr. Serjeant Onslow, to Lady Drake, relict of Sir Francis Sam. Drake.
18. Lord John Thynne, to Miss Mary Anne Master.
20. Joshua Edw. Cooper, Esq. M. P. to Miss Elizabeth Lindsay.
22. Lord Louvaine, to Miss Louisa Wortley.
25. Rev. Heneage Horsley, only son of the Bishop of Rochester, to Miss Frances Emma Burke.
July 11. Lord Ongley, to Miss Burgoyne.
16. Lord Pelham, to Lady Mary Osborne.
28. Lord Aylmer, to Miss Louisa Call.
29. Col. Rochfort, to Miss Mann, third daughter of Sir Horace Mann, Bart.
Aug. 20. Joseph Jekyll, Esq. M.P. to Miss Sloane.
Sept. 1. William Hervey, Esq. to Lady Dorothea Arabella Primrose.

3. Lord

3. Lord Tara, to Miſs Powys.
6. Brigadier General John Murray, to Miſs Maria Paſco.
12. Hon. Sir Edward Croſton, Bart. to Lady Charlotte Stewart.

Oct. 8. Rev. Sir John Head, Bart. to Miſs Walker.
13. Thomas Wynn, Eſq. to Lady Charlotte Bellaſyſe.
Sir John Riggs Miller, Bart. to Miſs Beauchamp.
14. Lieut. Col. Cockburn, to the Hon. Marianna Devereux.
17. Sir John Murray, Bart. to Miſs Callander.
20. Hon. Montgomery Stewart, to Miſs Catherine Honeyman.
24. Hon. Geo. Irby, to Miſs Rachael Ives Drake.
Brigadier General Danne, to Miſs White, ſiſter of Lord Bantry.
Henry Parnell, Eſq. to the Hon. Miſs Dawſon.
Hon. J. Cavendiſh, to Lady A. Gore.
John Hubert Moore, Eſq. to Lady Dunboyne, widow of John Lord Dunboyne.
Sir Marcus Somerville, Bart. M. P. to Miſs Marianna Meredyth.

Nov. 5. Right Hon. Maurice Fitzgerard, to Miſs Latouche.
10. George Ellis, Eſq. M. P. to Miſs Parker.
15. Sir James Blackwood, Bart. to the Hon. Miſs Foſter.
27. Lord Francis Spencer, to Lady Frances Fitzroy.

Dec. 14. Major Macleod, to Lady Arabella Anneſley.
16. William Dalzell Colquhoun, Eſq. to Miſs Elizabeth Glen Campbell, youngeſt daughter of the Lord Preſident of the court of ſeſſion.
22. Lieut. Colonel Wood, to Lady Caroline Stewart.
Earl of Meath, to Lady Meleſina Adelaide Meade.
Sir Charles Burrel Blount, to Miſs Elvira Blount.
Sir Thomas Champneys, to Miſs Minchin.

PROMOTIONS for the Year 1801.

War-Office, January 1, Lieutenant-generals. Benjamin Gordon, Geo. Ainſlie, James Adeane, Edward Smith, Thomas Bland, Felix Buckley, Henry Watſon Powell, Thomas Stirling, George Garth, and Richard Grenville, to be generals in the army.

Major-generals. Horatio Spry, W. Souter Johnſtone, Harry Innes, Robert Donkin, James Balfour, James Francis Perkins, Norman M'Leod, Alexander Campbell, Francis D'Oyly, Sir James Duff, Knight, Henry Lord Muſgrave, Grice Blakeney, Paulus Æmilius Irving, George Harris, Richard Vyſe, William Lord Cathcart, Banaſtre Tarleton, Sir Hew Dalrymple, Knight, Geordon Forbes, Andrew Gordon, John Floyd, Oliver de Lancey, John Graves Simcoe, and Sir James Henry Craig, K. B. to be lieutenant-generals in the army.

Colonels. John Stewart, Hon. Robert Taylor, Gerrit Fiſher, George Milner, John Henry Fraſer, W. D. M'Lean Clephane, Charles Barnet, George Marquis of Huntley, George Benſon, Hon. Edward Finch, Iſaac Gaſcoyne, George Frederick Lord Southampton, and Stephen Poyntz, to be major-generals in the army.

Lieutenant-colonels. James O'Moore, Thomas M'Dermott, Eugene M'Carthy, Edward Stack, Hugh Lyle Carmichael, Hon. John Brodrick, Henry Warde, James Durham, fencible-infantry, Hon. David Leſlie, James Keith, John Manners Kerr, Thomas Scott, Quin John Freeman, William Robertſon, Arthur Wolfe, Matthew Baillie, Tomkins Hilgrove Turner, John Randall M'Kenzie, Chriſtopher Tilſon, William Simſon, Hon. W. Mordaunt Maitland, William Munro, James Campbell, Thomas Picton, John Gordon Cumming, John Crew, Hon. George Lowrey Cole, Marcus Beresford, Gonville Bromhead, George Earl of Granard, Mungo Noble, Stafford Lightburne, John Henry Loft, Sir William Erſkine, Bart. Nathaniel W. Maſſey, Francis Moore, Hon. Robert King, William Henry Clinton, George Dalrymple, and John Taubman, to be colonels in the army.

Majors. Peter Beaver, William Savary, Hampſon P. Thomas, Thomas M'Mahon, John Picton, Hon. Edward Wingfield, John Ford, Archibald Bothwell, Arthur Annelley, Hon. Lord Hely Hutchinſon, Benjamin Rowe, Kenneth M'Rea, Edward Boland, Henry Hawley, Edward Scott, James Logan, William M'Caſkell, Donald Robartſon, Thomas Probyn, John Gordon, George Wilſon, George Maddiſon, John Crowgey, John Wauchope, Frederick William Buller, Humphrey Davie, John J. Broadhead, Thomas Bradford, Thomas G. Elrington, George H. Maſon, John Granby Clay, Alexander Colſton, John Grey, William Lockhart, Archibald Butter, Hon. John Creighton, Dunbar J. Hunter, John Campbell, Sydney Scroggs, Alexander Coſby Jackſon, Gage John Hall, Robert Roſs, and George Wynyard, to be lieutenant-colonels in the army.

Admiralty. January 1. Robert Linzee, Eſq. Sir James Wallace, Knt. William Pere Williams, Eſq. Sir Thomas Paſley, Bart. Sir Thomas Rich, Bart. James Cumming, Eſq. Sir John Colpoys, K. B. Skeffington Lutwidge, Eſq. Archibald Dickſon, Eſq. George Montagu, Eſq. Thomas Dumareſq, Eſq. Right Hon. George Lord Keith, K. B. vice-admirals of the red—to be admirals of the Blue.

Thomas Mackenzie, Eſq. Thomas Pringle, Eſq. Sir Roger Curtis, Bart. Sir Henry Harvey, K. B. Robert Man, Eſq. Sir William Parker, Bart. Charles Holmes Calmady, Eſq. John Bourmaſter, Eſq. Sir George Young, Knight, John Henry, Eſq. Richard Rodney Bligh, Eſq. vice-admirals of the white—to be vice-admirals of the red.

Robert Biggs, Eſq. Francis Parry, Eſq. Iſaac Preſcott, Eſq. John Bazeley, Eſq. Chriſtopher Maſon, Eſq. Thomas Spry, Eſq. Sir John Orde, Bart. William Young, Eſq. James Gambier, Eſq. Sir Andrew Mitchell, K. B. vice-admirals of the blue—to be vice-admirals of the white.

Chriſtopher Parker, Eſq. Philip Patton, Eſq. Charles Morice Pole, Eſq.

Eſq. John Brown, Eſq. John Leigh Douglas, Eſq. William Swiney, Eſq. Charles Edmund Nugent, Eſq. Charles Powell Hamilton, Eſq. Edmund Dod, Eſq. Right Hon. Horatio Lord Nelſon, K. B. rear-admirals of the red—to be vice-admirals of the blue.

James Brine, Eſq. John Pakenham, Eſq. Sir Eraſmus Gower, Knt. John Holloway, Eſq. John Blanket, Eſq. George Wilſon, Eſq. Sir Charles Henry Knowles, Bart. Hon. Thomas Pakenham, Robert Deans, Eſq. Cuthbert Collingwood, Eſq. James Hawkins Whitſhed, Eſq. Arthur Kempe, Eſq. Smith Child, Eſq. Right Hon. Lord Charles Fitzgerald, Thomas Taylor, Eſq. John Thomas Duckworth, Eſq. rear-admirals of the white—to be rear-admirals of the red.

John Knowles, Eſq. John Willett Payne, Eſq. Sir Robert Calder, Bart. James Richard Dacres, Eſq. Hon. George Berkeley, Thomas Weſt, Eſq. James Douglas, Eſq. Peter Aplin, Eſq. Henry Savage, Eſq. Bartholomew Samuel Rowley, Eſq. Sir Richard Bickerton, Bart. George Bowen, Eſq. Robert Montague, Eſq. John Ferguſſon, Eſq. Edward Edwards, Eſq. Sir John Borlaſe Warren, Bart. and K. B. rear-admirals of the blue—to be rear-admirals of the white.

The under-mentioned captains were alſo appointed flag-officers of his Majeſty's fleet, viz.

Edward Tyrrel Smith, Eſq. Thomas Graves, (1ſt.) Eſq. Thomas Macnamara Ruſſel, Eſq. Sylverius Moriarty, Eſq. Sir Henry Trollope, Knt.—to be rear-admirals of the white.

Henry Edwin Stanhope, Eſq. Robert M'Douall, Eſq. Billy Douglas, Eſq. John Wickey, Eſq. John Inglis, Eſq. John Fiſh, Eſq. Jahleel Breton, (1ſt.) Eſq. John Knight, Eſq. Edward Thornborough, Eſq. James Kempthorne, Eſq. Sampſon Edwards, Eſq. Geo. Campbell, Eſq. Thomas Hicks, Eſq. Henry Cromwell, Eſq. Arthur Philip, Eſq. Sir William Geo. Fairfax, Knt. Thomas Totty, Eſq. Sir James Saumarez, Knt.—to be rear-admirals of the blue.

Sir Edward Pellew, Bart. William Domett, Eſq. and Sir Thomas Troubridge, Bart. to be colonels of marines, in the room of Edward Thornborough, Eſq. Sir William George Fairfax, Knt. and Sir James Saumarez, Knt. appointed flag-officers of his Majeſty's fleet.

Dublin, Jan. 3. Richard Earl of Shannon, K. P. Right Hon. Iſaac Corry, chancellor of his Majeſty's exchequer of this kingdom for the time being; Right Hon. Robert Stewart, commonly called Lord Viſcount Caſtlereagh, chief ſecretary to the lord lieutenant, or, in the abſence of the ſaid chief ſecretary, the under ſecretary for the time being to the lord lieutenant, or, in the abſence of the ſaid chief ſecretary, the under ſecretary for the time being for the civil department of the ſaid chief ſecretary's office; the Right Hon. Lodge Lord Frankfort; the Right Hon. John Loftus Loftus, commonly called Lord Viſcount Loftus, and the Right Hon. Maurice Fitzgerald, to be commiſſioners for executing the office of treaſurer of his Majeſty's exchequer.

War-Office, Jan. 6. Invalids. Brevet Lieut. Col. James Fahy, to be commandant of the independent companies of invalids at Alderney, *vice* Gordon.—Brevet. Col. James Erſkine

Erſkine, of the 15th light dragoons, to be aid-du-camp to the King, *vice* Manningham, appointed to the command of the rifle corps.

Whitehall, Jan. 7. Sir Thomas Troubridge, Bart. captain in the royal navy, and colonel of his Majeſty's marine forces, Capt. Alexander John Ball, of the royal navy; Capt. Samuel Hood, of the royal navy; and Capt. Benjamin Hallowell, of the royal navy; permitted to accept the rank of commanders of the order of St. Ferdinand and of Merit, which it is the intention of Ferdinand the fourth, King of the Two Sicilies, to confer upon them, and to bear the inſignia of commanders of the ſaid order.

War-Office, Jan. 10. Major General T. Garth, from the 22d light dragoons, to be colonel of the 1ſt regiment of dragoons, *vice* Goldſworthy, dec.

Whitehall, Jan. 13. The King has been pleaſed to grant the dignity of a baron of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland to the moſt Hon. Charles Marquis of Drogheda, of the kingdom of Ireland, K. P. and the heirs-male of his body lawfully begotten, by the name, ſtyle, and title of Baron Moore, of Moore-place, county of Kent; to the moſt Hon. Charles Marquis of Ely, of the kingdom of Ireland, K. P. by the name, &c. of Baron Loftus, of Long Loftus, county of York; to the Right Hon. Walter Earl of Ormond and Upper Oſſory, of the kingdom of Ireland, K. P. by the name, &c. of Baron Butler, of Lanthony, county of Monmouth; and to the Right Hon. John Joſhua Earl of Carysfort, of the kingdom of Ireland, K. P. by the name, &c. of Baron Carysfort, of the hundred of Norman Croſs, county of Huntingdon.

War-Office, Jan. 13. Barracks. John Wilſon, late barrack-maſter of the temporary cavalry barracks at Canterbury, to be barrack-maſter of the permanent cavalry barracks at Canterbury. James Am. Chaundy, to be barrack-maſter of the temporary cavalry barracks at Canterbury, *vice* Wilſon.

20. Invalids. Capt. William Archer, from the invalids at Sheerneſs, to be captain of an independent company of invalids at Chatham, *vice* Wadman, deceaſed: Col. William Swinburne, from the invalids at Fort George, to be captain of an independent company of invalids at Sheerneſs, *vice* Archer; and Capt. Benjamin Rogers, from the 53d foot, to be captain of an independent company of invalids at Fort George, *vice* Swinburne.—Brevet. Major Boyle Travers, of the late 114th foot, to be lieutenant-colonel in the army.

27. Brevet. To be brigadier-generals in the Weſt Indies only: Col. David Cunynghame, of the 60th foot; Col. Patrick Wauchope, of the 50th foot; Col. Baldwin Leighton, of the 46th foot; and Col. Martin Hunter, of the 48th foot. Col. Thomas Peter, inſpecting field officer. To be colonel in the army, Lieut. Col. Robert Barnard Sparrow, of the loyal Eſſex fencible infantry.—Hoſpital-ſtaff. Surgeon John Buffa, from the royal Iriſh fuzileers, to be phyſician to the forces. Surgeon William Henderſon, from the 74th foot, to be ſurgeon to the forces, *vice* Alex. Grant, deceaſed.

St. James's, Jan. 31. Right Hon. William Archbiſhop of Armagh, ſworn of his Majeſty's moſt honourable privy council.

War-

War-Office, Feb. 3. Brevet. Lieut. Col. Count Bartholomew O'Mahony, to be colonel in the army.

10. Brevet. Col. Manners Kerr, to be brigadier-general to the forces in the Weſt Indies only.

Whitehall, Feb. 14. Henry Vavaſour, of Spaldington and Melbourne, county of York, Eſq. and Robert Shore Milnes, Eſq. lieutenant-governor of the province of Lower Canada, in America, created baronets of the united Kingdom.

Downing-ſtreet, Feb. 14. Brook Taylor, Eſq. to be his Majeſty's miniſter plenipotentiary at the court of the Elector of Cologne.

War-Office, Feb. 17. Hoſpital-ſtaff. Surgeon Richard Woodthorp, to be aſſiſtant-inſpector of hoſpitals in the iſland of Jerſey.

Queen's-Houſe, Feb. 18. Right Hon. Sir John Mitford, ſpeaker of the houſe of commons, ſworn of his Majeſty's moſt honourable privy council.

20. Right Hon. John Earl of St. Vincent, Right Hon. Charles Geo. Lord Arden, and the Right Hon. Charles Yorke, ſworn of his Majeſty's moſt honourable privy council.—Right Hon. Robert Banks Jenkinſon, commonly called Lord Hawkeſbury, ſworn one of his Majeſty's principal ſecretaries of ſtate.

St. James's, Feb. 21. Edward Law, Eſq. his Majeſty's attorney-general, knighted.

Whitehall, Feb. 21. Right Hon. John Earl of St. Vincent, admiral of the white, K. B. Sir Philip Stephens, Bart. William Eliot, Eſq. Sir Thomas Troubridge, Bart. James Adam, John Markham, and William Garthſhore, Eſqrs, appointed his Majeſty's commiſſioners for executing the office of high admiral of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

Queen's Houſe, March 17. Right Hon. Philip Earl of Hardwicke, and the Right Hon. George Legge, commonly called Viſcount Lewiſham, ſworn of his Majeſty's moſt honourable privy council. Right Hon. Philip Earl of Hardwicke, appointed lieutenant general and general governor of that part of the United Kingdom called Ireland. Right Hon. Robert Lord Hobart, ſworn one of his Majeſty's principal ſecretaries of ſtate.

Whitehall, March 17. Right Hon. Henry Addington, John Smith and Charles Small Pybus, Eſqrs. George Thynne, Eſq. (commonly called Lord George Thynne), and Nathaniel Bond, Eſq. appointed commiſſioners for executing the office of treaſurer of his Majeſty's Exchequer. Right Hon. Henry Addington, chancellor and under treaſurer of his Majeſty's Exchequer. Right Hon. Charles Yorke, his Majeſty's ſecretary at war.

19. Right Hon. Thomas Steele, and Right Hon. Lord Glenbervie, appointed paymaſter general of his Majeſty's forces.

23. William Lord Auckland, and Charles Spencer, Eſq. (commonly called Lord Charles Spencer), appointed his Majeſty's poſtmaſter general.

War-Office, March 17. Brevet. Col. Arthur Whetham, of the 1ſt foot guards, and Col. Hugh Lyle Carmichael, of the ſecond Weſt India regiment, to be brigadier-generals in the Leeward Iſlands only. Brevet-major R. Uniacke, on the half-pay of the late 104th foot, to be lieutenant-colonel in the army. Staff. Lieutenant Colonel John Barnes, of the royal artillery,

artillery, to be deputy barrack-maſter-general to the Britiſh forces ſerving in both the Canadas.

18. Lieutenant-general his Royal Highneſs Erneſt Duke of Cumberland, K. G. to be colonel of the 15th light dragoons.

Whitehall, March 19. Codrington Edmund Carrington, of the Middle Temple, Eſq. barriſter at law, to be chief juſtice of the Supreme Court of Judicature in the iſland of Ceylon; and Edmund Henry Luſhington, of the Inner Temple, Eſq. barriſter at law, to be the puiſne juſtice of the ſaid court.

Charles Baron Arden, of that part of his Majeſty's kingdom called Ireland, to be maſter and worker of his Majeſty's Mint.

War-Office, April 4. Staff Corps. Major John Rutherford, to be lieutenant colonel commandant.—Brevet. Colonels John Bellaſis, Richard Jones, and William Neville Cameron, officers of the Eaſt India Company's forces, to take rank as major-generals in his Majeſty's army in the Eaſt Indies only.

Queen's Houſe, April 14. The Right Hon. John Lord Eldon, Lord High Chancellor of Great Britain.

Whitehall, April 18. Right Hon. Alexander Lord Loughborough, created an earl of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, by the name, ſtyle, and title of Earl of Roſslyn, in the county of Mid Lothian, with remainder to the heirs-male, lawfully begotten, of the body of Lady Janet Erſkine, deceaſed, ſiſter to the ſaid Alexander Lord Loughborough, and widow of Sir Henry Erſkine, of Alva, Bart.

Mary Henrietta Erſkine, daughter of Lady Janet Erſkine, deceaſed, to have and enjoy the ſame place, pre-eminence, and precedency, in all aſſemblies or meetings whatſoever, as the daughter of an Earl of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

21. Right Hon. John Earl of St. Vincent, K. B. and admiral of the White, created a viſcount of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, by the name, ſtyle, and title of Viſcount St. Vincent, of Meaford, county of Stafford, with remainders ſeverally and ſucceſſively to William Henry Ricketts, Eſq. captain in the royal navy, and the heirs male of his body lawfully begotten; to Edward Jervis Ricketts, Eſq. barriſter at law, brother of the ſaid William Henry Ricketts, and ſons of Mary Ricketts, by William Henry Ricketts, Eſq. late of the iſland of Jamaica, deceaſed, and ſiſter to the ſaid John Earl of St. Vincent, and the heirs male of his body lawfully begotten; and the dignity of Viſcounteſs St. Vincent, of Meaford, in the ſaid county of Stafford, granted to the Right Hon. Mary Counteſs of Northeſk, daughter of the ſaid Mary Ricketts, and widow of William Henry Ricketts aforeſaid, and the dignity of Viſcount St. Vincent to the heirs male of her body lawfully begotten.

War-Office, April 21. Brevet, Col. George Henry Vanſittart, of the 68th foot, to be brigadier-general in the Leeward Iſlands only. Col. the Hon. John Broderick, to be brigadier-general in the Mediterranean only. Brevet Major Charles Holloway, of the royal engineers, to be lieutenant-colonel in the dominions of the Grand Seig-

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nior only, and Major, with permanent rank, in the army. Lieutenant Colonel Edward Stephens, of the royal artillery, and Lieutenant Colonel the Hon. William Stewart, to be colonels in the army. Staff. Col. Mungo Noble, of the 17th foot, to be deputy adjutant-general to forces ſerving in the iſland of Jamaica.

Whitehall, April 25. Rev. William Vincent, D. D. head maſter of Weſtminſter-ſchool, to be a prebendary of Weſtminſter.

Viſcount Lewiſham, the Duke of Portland, Lords Hawkeſbury and Hobart, Mr. Addington, the Duke of Montroſe, Earl Bathurſt, Lord Glenbervie, William Dundas and Thomas Wallace, Eſqrs. Lord Arden, Thomas Pelham and Edward Golding, Eſqrs. to be commiſſioners for the management of the affairs of India.

George Buchan Hepburn, Eſq. judge admiral of Scotland, to be a baron of the Exchequer.

Henry Gwillim, Eſq. to be one of the judges of the ſupreme Court at Madras.

Rev. J. Palmer, to be chaplain to his Royal Highneſs the Prince of Wales.

May 12. Robert Dundas, Eſq. appointed chief baron of his Majeſty's Court of Exchequer in Scotland. Charles Hope, Eſq. his Majeſty's advocate in Scotland.

16. The Earl of Leven and Melvill, appointed his Majeſty's high commiſſioner to the General Aſſembly of the church of Scotland. George Prevoſt, Eſq. brigadier-general of his Majeſty's forces, to be lieutenant-governor of the iſland of St. Lucia, in America. George Nugent, Eſq. major-general of his Majeſty's forces, to be lieutenant governor of the iſland of Jamaica.

19. Right Hon. Horatio Baron Nelſon, K. B. and vice-admiral of the Blue, created a viſcount of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, by the name, ſtyle, and title of Viſcount Nelſon of the Nile, and of Burnham Thorpe, county of Norfolk. Thomas Graves, Eſq. rear-admiral of the White, to be one of the knights companions of the moſt honourable order of the Bath.

Queen's Houſe, May 21. Right Hon. Sir Edward Grant, Knt. Right Hon. Charles Abbott, and Right Hon. Thomas Wallace, ſworn of his Majeſty's moſt honourable privy council.

Whitehall, May 22. Right Hon. Sir Richard Pepper Arden, Knt. created Baron Alvanley, of Alvanley, county of Cheſter. Mary Anne Lady Abercromby, widow of Lieutenant General Sir Ralph Abercromby, K. B. created Baroneſs Abercromby, of Aboukir, and of Tullibody, county of Clackmannan; and the dignity of a baron of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland granted to the heirs male of her body, lawfully begotten by the ſaid Lieutenant General Sir Ralph Abercromby, deceaſed.

26. Arthur Whetham, Eſq. appointed governor and commander in chief of the iſland of Curaçoa, in America. Thomas Picton, eſq. to be governor and commander in chief of the iſland of Trinidada, in America.

War-Office, May 26. Brevet. Major General the Hon. John Hely Hutchinſon, to be lieutenant general in the army ſerving in the Mediterranean, and in the dominions

nions of the Grand Seignior. Lieutenant Colonel Sir Richard Baſſett, Knt. to be colonel in the army while ſerving with the troops ſtationed at Honduras only. Major Thomas Browne, to be lieutenant colonel in the army. Capt. Terence Mac Mahon, to be major in the army. Staff. Col. the Hon. Alexander Hope, of the 14th foot, to be adjutant general to the forces in Ireland.

Whitehall, May 30. Right Hon. Sir Richard Pepper Arden, Knt. (Baron Alvanley), made a ſerjeant at law, and appointed chief juſtice of the Court of Common Pleas. Right Hon. Sir William Grant, Knt. appointed maſter or keeper of the rolls and records of the Court of Chancery. Major General the Hon. Jn. Hely Hutchinſon, to be one of the knights companions of the moſt hon. order of the Bath.

June 2. Right Hon. Henry Bayley, Earl of Uxbridge, appointed lord lieutenant of the county of Stafford.

Queen's Houſe, June 3. John Duke of Roxburgh, groom of the ſtole, to be a knight companion of the moſt honourable order of the Garter.

Whitehall, June 6. Sir James Saumarez, of the iſland of Guernſey, Knt. rear-admiral of the Blue; Henry Strachey, of Sutton-court, county of Somerſet, and of Rookſneſt, county of Surrey, Eſqs maſter of his Majeſty's houſehold; William Weller Pepys, of Wimpole-ſtreet, Cavendiſh-ſquare, one of the maſters of the High Court of Chancery; Alexander John Ball, Eſq. captain in the royal navy, a commander of the Sicilian order of St. Ferdinand and of Merit; William Benſley, of St. Mary-le-Bonne, county of Middleſex, Eſq. Hugh Inglis, of Milton Bryant, county of Bedford, Eſq. William Earle Welby, of Denton-houſe, county of Lincoln, Eſq. Chriſtopher Banes, of Harefield-place, county of Middleſex, Eſq. and Thomas Barrett Lennard, of Belhouſe, county of Eſſex, Eſq. created baronets of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. Lieutenant General Thomas Trigge, and John Thomas Duckworth, Eſq. rear-admiral of the Red, to be knights companions of the moſt honourable order of the Bath.

Downing-ſtreet, June 9. Hon. Arthur Paget, appointed his Majeſty's envoy extraordinary and miniſter plenipotentiary at the Court of Vienna; William Drummond, Eſq. envoy extraordinary at the Court of his Sicilian Majeſty; Alexander Stratan, Eſq. ſecretary of embaſſy at the Ottoman Porte; and Charles Stuart, Eſq. ſecretary of legation at the Court of Vienna.

Whitehall, June 9. Field Marſhal his Royal Highneſs Frederick Duke of York, appointed commander in chief of all his Majeſty's land forces in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. Charles Edward Beresford, Eſq. to be ſecretary to the commiſſioners for managing the ſtamp duties.

War-Office, June 9. Staff. General Sir William Medows, K. B. to be commander in chief of his Majeſty's forces in Ireland.

Whitehall, June 13. Right Hon. Alleyne Lord St. Helen's, appointed ambaſſador extraordinary and miniſter plenipotentiary at the Court of St. Peterſburgh; and Benjamin Garlike, Eſq. to be ſecretary to the embaſſy. Charles Oakley, Eſq. to be ſecretary of legiſ-

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lation at the Court of the Elector of Bavaria. Right Hon. General Sir Charles Grey, K. B. created Baron Grey, of Howick, county of Northumberland.

15. Right Hon. William Lord Craven, to be Viſcount Uffington, county of Berks, and Earl of Craven, county of York. Right Hon. George Lord Onſlow, to be Viſcount Cranley, of Cranley, county of Surrey, and Earl of Onſlow, of Onſlow, county of Salop. Right Hon. Charles Lord Romney, to be Viſcount Marſham, of the More, county of Kent, and Earl of Romney. Right Hon. Thomas Lord Pelham, to be Earl of Chicheſter. Right Hon. Thomas Lord Grey de Wilton, to be Viſcount Grey de Wilton, and Earl of Wilton, of Wilton Caſtle, county of Hereford, with remainders to Thomas Groſvenor, Eſq. ſecond ſon, Robert Groſvenor, Eſq. third ſon, of Viſcount Belgrave, by Eleanor his wife, daughter of the ſaid Thomas Lord Grey de Wilton, and the fourth, fifth, ſixth, ſeventh, and every other ſon and ſons of the ſaid Eleanor, by her preſent or any future huſband, and the reſpective heirs-male of their bodies, lawfully begotten.

16. Right Hon. George Legge, commonly called Viſcount Lewiſham, to be Baron of Dartmouth, Devon.

Queen's Houſe, June 16. Robert Barlow, Eſq. captain in the royal navy, knighted.

Carlton Houſe, June 17. Rev. Alexander Scott, M. A. to be chaplain in ordinary to the Prince of Wales.

War-Office, June 23. Staff. General the Hon. William Harcourt, to be governor of the Royal Military College. Garriſons. Lieutenant General John Earl of Clanricarde, to be Governor of Hull. Lieutenant Colonel Francis Cunninghame, of the Coldſtream foot guards, to be lieutenant governor of Hull. Lieutenant General Henry Johnſton, to be governor of Roſs Caſtle, in Ireland.

Queen's Houſe, June 24. Codrington Edmund Carrington, Eſq. chief juſtice of the Supreme Court of Judicature in the iſland of Ceylon, knighted.

Dublin Caſtle, June 25. Sir Michael Smith, Bart. appointed maſter of the rolls in Ireland; Right Hon. St. George Daly, one of the barons of the Court of Exchequer in Ireland; Robert Johnſon, Eſq. one of the puiſne judges of the Court of Common Pleas in Ireland.

Whitehall, June 27. Right Hon. John Earl of Chatham, K. G. to be maſter general of his Majeſty's ordnance of the United Kingdom.

29. Right Hon. Thomas Pelham, to be Baron Pelham, of Stanmer, county of Suſſex.

30. James Montgomery, of Stanhope, Eſq. late lord chief baron of the Court of Exchequer in Scotland, and William Douglas, of Caſtle Douglas, in the ſtewartry of Kirkcudbright, and of Newton Douglas, in the ſhire of Wigton, Eſq. created baronets. John Royds, Eſq. one of the judges of the Supreme Court at Bengal; Henry Gwillim and Benjamin Sullivan, Eſqrs. judges of the Supreme Court at Madras; knighted.

War-Office, June 30. Staff-corps. Capt. William Nicolay, from the royal engineers, to be major.

Dublin, July 4. Edmund Stanley, Eſq. to be his Majeſty's prime ſerjeant at law in Ireland.

Whitehall,

Whitehall, July 7. John Dillon, of Liſmullen, county of Meath, Eſq. a baron of the Holy Roman Empire; John Keane, of Belmont and Cappoquin, county of Waterford, Eſq.; James Chatterton, of Caſtle Mahon, county and city of Cork, Eſq. his Majeſty's ſecond ſerjeant at law in Ireland; Richard Hardinge, of the county of Fermanagh, Eſq. with remainder to the heirs male of the body of his father, Nicholas Hardinge, late of Canbury, county of Surrey, Eſq. deceaſed; Thomas Judkin Fitzgerald, of Leſheen, county of Tipperary, Eſq.; Sir Richard Kellett, of Lota, county and city of Cork, Knt. with remainder to the heirs male of the body of his father, Richard Kellett, Eſq. of the city of Cork; Sir William Jackſon Homan, of Dunlum, county of Weſtmeath, Knt.; Francis Goold, of Old Court, county of Cork, Eſq. with remainder to the heirs male of the body of his father, George Goold, late of Old Court, in the ſaid county of Cork, Eſq. deceaſed; Morgan Crofton, of Mohill, county of Leitrim, Eſq.; James Michael de Batha, of Knightſtown, Caſhell, and Ladyrath, county of Meath, Eſq.; Robert Synge, of Kiltrough, county of Meath, Eſq.; and Andrew Ferguſon, of the city of Londonderry, Eſq.; created barons.

War-Office, July 11. Brevet. Major General Francis Dundas, to be lieutenant general at the Cape of Good Hope.

Whitehall, July 15. Right Hon. Alleyne, baron St. Helen's of that part of the United Kingdom called Ireland, created a baron of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, by the name, ſtyle, and title of Baron St. Helen's, of St. Helen's, in the Iſle of Wight, and county of Southampton.

War-Office, July 25. Lieutenant Colonel John Gaſpard Le Marchant, of the 2d dragoon guards, to be lieutenant governor and ſuperintendant general of the Royal Military College; Charles Greenwood, Eſq. treaſurer, and Lieutenant Colonel Fred. Mackenzie, ſecretary thereof.

25. Brevet. Colonel the Hon. Arthur Welleſley, of the 33d foot, to be brigadier general in the army ſerving in Egypt.

28. Staff. Lieutenant General the Hon. Edward Fox, to be commander of the forces ſerving in the Mediterranean, Gibraltar excepted, with the local rank of general.

Weymouth, July 30. His Grace William Henry Cavendiſh, Duke of Portland, to be lord preſident of his Majeſty's moſt honourable privy council. Right Hon. Thomas Lord Pelham, appointed one of his Majeſty's principal ſecretaries of ſtate.

Downing-ſtreet, Aug. 1. William A'Court, Eſq. to be his Majeſty's ſecretary of legation at the Court of his Sicilian Majeſty.

Whitehall, Aug. 4. Sir Chriſtopher Pegge, Knt. M. D. appointed profeſſor of phyſic in the Univerſity of Oxford.

Right Hon. Horatio Viſcount Nelſon, K. B. vice admiral of the Blue, Duke of Bronte, in Sicily, knight of the Grand Croſs of the order of St. Ferdinand and of Merit, and of the Imperial order of the Creſcent, created a baron of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, by the name, ſtyle, and title of Baron Nelſon of the Nile, and of Hilborough, in the county of Norfolk, with remainder to the heirs male of his body

body lawfully begotten; and, in default of such issue, to Edmund Nelson, clerk, rector of Burnham Thorpe, in the said county of Norfolk, father of the said Horatio Viscount Nelson, and the heirs male of his body lawfully begotten; and to the heirs male, lawfully begotten, and to be begotten, severally and successively, of Susannah the wife of Thomas Bolton, Esq. and sister of the said Horatio Viscount Nelson; and, in default of such issue, to the heirs male of Catherine the wife of George Matcham, Esq. another sister of the said Viscount Nelson.

War-Office, Aug. 8. Brevet. Col. George Vaughan Hart, to be brigadier general in Ireland. Capt. James Wheeler Unwin, to be major in the army.

Whitehall, Aug. 18. Charles Morrice Pole, Esq. vice admiral of the Blue, created a baronet of the United Kingdom.

War-Office, Aug. 21. His Royal Highness Edward Duke of Kent, K. G. to be colonel of the 1st (or Royal) regiment of foot.

22. Brevet. Captain Charles Auriol, of the 14th light dragoons, to be major in the army. Garrisons. Lieutenant General William Gardiner, to be governor of Kinsale. Lieutenant Colonel the Hon. John Creighton, to be governor of Hurst Castle.

25. Garrison. Lieutenant General Sir Robert Abercromby, K. B. to be governor of Edinburgh Castle. Hospital Staff. Robert Jackson, M. D. physician to the forces, and head of the hospital at Chatham, to be physician to the forces and head of the hospital at the Isle of Wight. James Borland, M. D. to be assistant inspector of hospitals to the forces.

Dublin Castle, Aug. 25. Sir Michael Smith, Bart. master of the rolls in Ireland, sworn of his Majesty's most honourable privy council of Ireland.

Whitehall, Sept. 5. Sir James Saumarez, Bart. rear admiral of the Blue, to be a knight of the Bath.

Downing-street, Sept. 5. Bartholomew Frere, Esq. appointed his Majesty's secretary of legation at the Court of Lisbon.

War-Office, Sept. 5. Brevet. Col. W. Henry Clinton, to be brigadier general in the island of Madeira. The under-mentioned officers, late of the Irish brigade, now of the regiment of Dillon, to take rank as follows: Col. Edward Dillon, to be colonel in the army; Lieutenant Colonel Francis Dillon, to be lieutenant colonel in the army; Major William Doran, to be captain in the army.

8. Brevet. Capt. William O. Hamilton, to be major in the army.

Whitehall, Sept. 12. Lord Viscount Nelson permitted (by his Majesty's warrant, dated Jan. 7, 1801) to adopt, for himself and heirs, the title of Duke of Bronte, with the fief of the duchy annexed thereto: and also to receive the great cross of the order of St. Ferdinand and of Merit; all conferred on him by Ferdinand IV. King of the Two Sicilies.

War-Office, Sept. 12. Gen. —— Jarry, to be commandant of the senior department of the Royal Military College.

Whitehall, Sept. 15. Right Hon. Murrough Marquis of Thomond, K. P. created Baron Thomond, of Taplow-court, county of Buckingham.

22. His Grace William Frederick Duke of Leeds, appointed go-

vernor of the iſlands of Scilly, alias Sully, alias Sorlingues.

War-Office, Sept. 26. Brevet. Major Thomas Gage Montreſor, of the 89th foot, to be lieutenant colonel in the army. Staff. Lieutenant Colonel Robert Craufurd, of the 60th foot, deputy quarter maſter general in Ireland, to be adjutant general to his Majeſty's troops ſtationed in the Eaſt Indies.

Oct. 3. Brevet. Capt. William Mudge, to be major in the army.

6. Garriſon. Lieutenant Colonel Robert Mathews, to be major of Chelſea Hoſpital.

Lord Eldon appointed (by the Duke of Portland) high ſteward of the Univerſity of Oxford.

Rev. Claudius Buchanan, late of Queen's college, Cambridge, chaplain to the preſidency of Calcutta, appointed vice provoſt and claſſical profeſſor of the new college there, with a ſalary of 3000*l.* per annum.

Downing-ſtreet, Oct. 10. George W. Erving, Eſq. to be conſul from the United States of America at the port of London.

War-Office, Oct. 13. Brevet. Capt. Joſeph Lambecht, of the marines, to be major in the army. Staff. Lieutenant Colonel Thomas Brownrigg, to be deputy quarter maſter general in Ireland.

27. Brevet. Col. Thomas Picton, of the 56th foot, to be brigadier general in the iſland of Trinidad only. Staff. Capt. Charles Irvine, of the 62d foot, to be deputy adjutant general to the forces ſtationed in the iſland of Jamaica, with the rank of major in the army.

Downing-ſtrret, Oct. 29. Marquis Cornwallis, appointed his Majeſty's plenipotentiary at the Congreſs at Amiens; and Anthony Merry, Eſq. to execute the office of his Majeſty's ſecretary at the ſaid Congreſs.

War-Office, Nov. 14. Staff. Lieutenant Colonel Jn. Hamilton, to be deputy quarter maſter general to the forces ſerving at the Cape of Good Hope.

St. James's, Nov. 18. Charles Bragge, Eſq. treaſurer of his Majeſty's navy, ſworn of his Majeſty's moſt honourable privy council. Sylveſter Lord Glenbervie, to be preſident of the committee appointed for the conſideration of all matters relating to trade and foreign plantations, in the abſence of the Earl of Liverpool.

War-Office, Nov. 21. Brevet. Col. John Blake, to be brigadier general in Egypt only.

Whitehall, Nov. 23. Sir Andrew Snape Hammond, Bart. Henry Duncan, Eſq. Sir John Henſlow and Sir William Rule, Knts. William Palmer, Eſq. Sir William Bellingham, Bart. Harry Harmond, Samuel Gambier, Francis John Hartwell, Benjamin Tucker, Charles Hope, Iſaac Coffin, and Robert Fanſhaw, Eſqrs. Sir Charles Saxton, Bart. Nicholſon Inglefield, Eſq. and Sir Alexander John Ball, appointed principal officers and commiſſioners of his Majeſty's navy.

24. Prince Auguſtus Frederick, created Baron of Arklow, Earl of Inverneſs, and Duke of Suſſex; Prince Adolphus Frederick, Baron of Culloden, Earl of Tipperary, and Duke of Cambridge.

Dec. 5. George Keith (Baron Keith of that part of the United Kingdom called Ireland), K. B. and admiral of the Blue, created a baron of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, by the title of Baron Keith, of Stonehaven Mariſchal, county of Kincardine.

Lieute-

Lieutenant General Sir John Hely Hutchinſon, K. B. to be Lord Hutchinſon, Baron of Alexandria, and of Knocklofty, county of Tipperary. John Halkett, Eſq. appointed captain general and governor in chief of the Bahama Iſlands.

7. William D'Arley, Eſq. captain in his Majeſty's marine forces, permitted to accept the rank of knight of the royal and military order of Conſtantine, conferred on him by Ferdinand IV. King of the Two Sicilies; and to bear, in his own country, the enſigns of the ſaid order.

16. Richard Ford, Eſq. chief magiſtrate of the police, knighted.

17. Sir Francis Milman, Bart. phyſician extraordinary to the King, appointed (by the Queen) one of her Majeſty's phyſicians in ordinary.

War-Office, Dec. 29. Staff. Major James Fitzgerald, of the 3d foot guards, to be deputy adjutant general to the forces ſerving in the Mediterranean, with the rank of lieutenant colonel in the army. Brigade Major William Hely, to be fort major in the garriſon of St. John's, in the iſland of Newfoundland. Hoſpital Staff. Francis Knight, Eſq. ſurgeon to the Coldſtream regiment of foot guards, to be inſpector general of army hoſpitals.

Sir Nigel Bowyer Greſley, Bart. elected recorder of Lichfield.

Henry Woodthorpe, Eſq. elected town-clerk, and Thomas Shelton, Eſq. clerk of the peace, of the city of London.

DEATHS for the Year 1801.

January 1. The infant daughter of Lord Bagot.

2. Eardley Wilmot, Eſq. youngeſt ſon of the late Sir J. E. W. one of the clerks of his Majeſty's ſignets, and brother-in-law of the Right Hon. Lord Eardley.

3. Edward Stratford, Earl of Aldborough, Viſcount Amiens, baron of Baltingraſs, governor of the county of Wicklow, and F. R. S.

4. Lieutenant General Philip Goldſworthy, colonel of the 11ſt regiment of dragoons, equerry and clerk martial to his Majeſty, and M. P. for Wilton.

16. George Edward Henry Arthur Herbert, Earl of Powis, recorder of Ludlow, lord lieutenant and cuſtos rotulorum of the county of Montgomery, and colonel of the Montgomeryſhire militia.

31. George Markham, Eſq. brother to the Archbiſhop of York.

Sir Gillies Payne, Bart.

February 1. George Bridges Brudenell, Eſq. formerly equerry to his Majeſty, and M. P. for Rutland.

6. Her Royal Highneſs Philippina Charlotte Ducheſs Dowager of Brunſwick.

7. Sir William Lee, Bart.

9. The Right Hon. Lady Charlotte Holwell Carr, daughter of James, 16th Earl of Errol, and wife of the Rev. William Holwell Carr, of Exeter.

15. Right Hon. Lady Elizabeth Douglas, daughter of David, late Earl of Glaſgow.

18. Lady Hardy, relict of the late Admiral Sir Charles Hardy.

Lady Archer.

20. Mrs. Johnſtone, widow of General Johnſtone, and mother of the Counteſs of Jerſey.

28. Frederick Anthony Clerk, grandſon of Frederick, only ſon of Theodore, King of Corſica, and

the laſt male heir of that unfortunate family.

Madame de Markeau. This lady paſſed twenty years of her life at the French Court, and was governante to the Queen of Sardinia, Madame Elizabeth, and the daughter of Louis the Sixteenth. It was this lady that the latter wrote the following expreſſions when confined in the temple: "Not to love a priſon is very natural, but it is impoſſible not to love France."

Lady Bellew, widow of Sir Patrick Bellew, Bart.

March 4. Lady Newhaven, relict of Lord Newhaven.

5. Rev. John Clotworthy Skiffington, couſin to the Earl of Maſſarene.

6. Lady Harriet Bennet, daughter of the Earl of Tankerville.

7. Sir John Call, Bart. M. P. for Callington, and F. R. and A. S. S.

10. Hon. Robert Arbuthnot.

14. John Knowles, Eſq. rear admiral of the White.

16. Hon. John Bulkeley Coventry Bulkeley.

19. Lady of Sir Richard Cope, Bart. D. D.

Hon. John David Colyear.

23. Hon. John Joſeph Yorke.

25. Hon. Lieutenant General Sir Charles Stuart, K. B. M. P. for Poole.

26. Rear Admiral Cornthwaite Ommaney.

30. General Kochler, one of the moſt ſkilful officers in the Britiſh ſervice, and who had been delegated by the Britiſh government to train and diſcipline the Turkiſh army. He was by birth an American, and ſurvived his lady only fifteen days.

Lady Duntze, relict of Sir John Duntze, Bart.

Miſs Iſabella Grant, daughter of the late Lord Elchies.

Lady Paul, relict of Sir George Oneſiphorus Paul, Bart.

April 9. Sir Howe Hicks, Bart.

28. Hon. Frederick Vanee.

May 3. General Cyrus Trapaud, colonel of the 52d regiment of foot, and the oldeſt general in his Majeſty's ſervice. He was related to the Marſhal Turenne, the Duke de Bouillon, the Duke la Fouace, and ſeveral other of the French nobility. His family came to this country early in the laſt century on account of the perſecution of the proteſtants. The general ſerved under his late Majeſty George II. in the battles of Dettingen and Val, and was at thoſe at Fontenoy, Falkirk, Culloden, and Guadaloupe.

9. Sir Lambert Blackwell, Bart.

12. The Princeſs Maria Felicite, aunt to the King of Sardinia.

18. Andrew Stuart, Eſq. M. P. for Weymouth.

27. Madame de Bouillon, widow of the late Duke of Bouillon.

30. William Graves, Eſq. one of the oldeſt benchers of the Middle Temple, a maſter in chancery, and elder brother to Admiral Lord Graves.

June 4. Peter Burrell, Eſq. of the Pay-office, Whitehall.

7. Sir Francis Ford, Bart.

Major General Thomas Jones.

14. Brigadier General Arnold.

25. Elizabeth Counteſs Dowager of Glencairn.

26. Sir Thomas Hope, Bart.

31. Major General Richard Betteſworth, late colonel commandant of the ſecond battalion of Loyal Iriſh Artillery.

July 2. Aged 86, Robert Edward Petre. 9th Baron Petre, of Writtle,

Writtle, in Eſſex. He was twice married, firſt in 1762 to Anne, daughter of Philip Howard, Eſq. of Buckingham, Norfolk, by whom he had Robert Edward, his ſucceſſor, born 1763; George William died 1797; Anne Catherine born 1769; and Philip Howard born 1773; ſecondly, to Juliana, ſiſter to the heir of the preſent Duke.

3. The Nabob of the Carnatic.

6. James Sutton, Eſq. brother-in-law to the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and formerly M. P. for Devizes.

10. Sir Griffith Boynton, Bart. LL. D.

12. The relict of Sir William Young, Bart.

Lady Horatia, wife of Lord Hugh Seymour, vice admiral of the Blue.

William Barrington, Viſcount Barrington.

13. Lady Winifred Maxwell Conſtable.

14. Honourable Frances Leviſon Gower, widow of the late Hon. John Leviſon Gower, rear-admiral of the Red.

18. General Flower Mocher.

19. Hon. and Rev. Philip Howard, rector of Handſworth, in Yorkſhire.

20. Sir George William Preſcot, Bart.

23. The Prince of Belmonte Pignatelli.

25. William Legge, Earl of Dartmouth, Viſcount Lewiſham, high ſteward of the univerſity of Oxford, a governor of the Charterhouſe, preſident of the Lock Hoſpital, and London Diſpenſary, a vice preſident of the Foundling and Lying in Hoſpitals, recorder of Lichfield, LL. D. and F. R. S. He was ſworn of the privy council 1765, and in Auguſt that year appointed firſt commiſſioner of trade and plantations, which he reſigned in 1766; in 1772 was appointed ſecretary of ſtate for the colonies, and in 1775 keeper of the privy ſeal. He married in 1755 Frances Catherine, only daughter and heireſs of Sir Charles Gunter Nicholl, K. B. and by her had eight ſons, and one daughter; firſt, George Viſcount Lewiſham; William died 1785; Charles Gunter, dead; Heneage, dead; Henry, dead; Arthur, a captain in the navy; Edward, a barriſter at law; Auguſtus, rector of Lewiſham; and Charlotte married to Charles Duncombe, Eſq.

27. The Archduke Maximilian, Elector Cologne, uncle to the preſent Emperor of Germany, and brother to the two laſt, and to the late Queen of France.

30. Right Hon. Sir Grey Cooper, Bart. one of his Majeſty's moſt honourable privy council, and in the commiſſion of the peace for the county of Suffolk—his death was very ſudden. After paſſing through the courſe of general education, which is uſual for an Engliſh gentleman, he entered the temple, and was called to the bar. In 1765 he diſtinguiſhed himſelf as a zealous votary of the political principles of the Rockingham party. When that party came into adminiſtration they were arraigned as the creatures of the Earl of Bute in a pamphlet, the compoſition of Mr. Lloyd. In anſwer to which Mr. Cooper publiſhed, "A Pair of Spectacles for the ſhort-ſighted Politicians," of which the miniſter and public approved. He ſoon after wrote another tract in their defence, which appeared under the title of "The

Merits of the new Adminiſtration truly ſtated." It was eſteemed ſtill more able, and not leſs ſeaſonable, than the former. On account chiefly of theſe ſervices he was then appointed ſecretary to the treaſury, relinquiſhing for this office the practice of the law, he obtained at the ſame time the grant of a penſion for life, to commence from the time when he ſhould retire by diſmiſſal or reſignation, from an office, which, from its nature, he could not expect to hold permanently. He did not retire with the miniſters to whom he owed his riſe. The Duke of Grafton ſucceeded, and Sir Grey Cooper remained in the treaſury. To Lord North, after the Duke of Grafton's reſignation, his ſervices were ſtill acceptable, and he continued to perform the ſame duties till the final diſſolution of Lord North's adminiſtration in 1782.

Miſs Hompeſch, daughter of General Hompeſch.

Auguſt 6. Robert Cunninghame, Lord Roſſmore, lord of the privy council in Ireland. He was one of the oldeſt generals in the army, and held the ſinecure office of governor of Kinſale Fort. He married in 1754 Elizabeth Murray, ſiſter of the Counteſs of Claremont, and ſecond daughter of Colonel Murray, by Mary Lady Blayney, but left no iſſue.

13. George Gordon, Earl of Aberdeen. He married Catherine, daughter of Oſwald Hawſon, by whom he had two ſons; George, who died, leaving a ſon who inherits the title, and William, and four daughters; Catherine, Anne, Suſan, and Mary.

20. Sir William Plomer, Knt. alderman of Baſſiſhaw Ward, London. He ſerved the office of Sheriff in 1774, and Lord Mayor 1781.

30. Lady Mary, wife of Charles Churchhill, Eſq. houſekeeper at Windſor Caſtle.

Sir George Warren, K. B.

September 3. The Hon. John Yorke, fourth ſon of Philip Lord Hardwicke, late lord chancellor. He was clerk of the crown for life, patentee for making out commiſſions of bankruptcy, M. P. for Ryegate, and F. R. S.

7. Lady Louiſa Iſabella Bridgeman, daughter of Edmund Boyle, Earl of Cork and Orrery.

Her Serene Highneſs Sophia Antoinetta, Ducheſs Dowager of Saxe Cobourg. She was a daughter of Ferdinand Albert, Duke of Brunſwick Wolfenbuttel, and born 1724.

Arthur, Marquis of Downſhire, Earl of Hillſborough, hereditary conſtable of Hillſborough Fort, governor of the county of Down, and LL. D. He married in 1785 Mary Sandys, niece of Edwin Lord Sandys, and has left iſſue Arthur Brundell Sandys Turnbull Hill, Earl of Hillſborough, now Marquis of Downſhire, born 1788.

12. Lord Hugh Seymour, vice admiral of the Blue, commander in chief of the Jamaica ſtation, and M. P. for Portſmouth.

18. Sir Chriſtopher Sykes, Bart. LL. D. and in the commiſſion of the peace for the Eaſt riding of the county of York.

20. Sir John Greſham, Bart.

21. Thomas St. Lawrence, Earl of Howth, Viſcount St. Lawrence, one of his Majeſty's privy council in Ireland, governor of the county of Dublin, &c. &c. His lordſhip had iſſue, by Iſabella King, ſiſter of Edward, Earl of Kingſton, three ſons, and three daughters, viz. firſt,

firſt, William, Lord St. Lawrence, now Earl of Howth; ſecond, Thomas, in holy orders, dean of Cork; third, Henry in the army, deceaſed; fourth, Iſabella, married in 1773 to the late Dudley, Lord Sidney; fifth, Lady Elizabeth married in 1786 to Col. Irwin; and ſixth, Lady Frances.

22. Sir Vere Hunt, Bart.

26. Lord Auguſtus Fitzroy, fourth ſon of the Duke of Grafton, poſt captain in the royal navy, and late commander of his Majeſty's ſhip L'Oiſeau.

October 1. Rev. Lionel Smythe, Viſcount Strangford, born 1753; entered early into the army, and ſerved many campaigns in North America, but retiring from the military profeſſion in 1785, took holy orders. He married at New York, September 5, 1779, Maria Eliza, eldeſt daughter of Frederick Philips, Eſq. of that province, and had by her two ſons, and two daughters, viz. Percy, born 1780; Lionel 1783, Eliza 1781, and Louiſa 1785.

3. P. H. Segur, formerly a marſhal of France.

5. Lady Chapman, conſort of Sir Benjamin Chapman, Bart.

7. Sir William Hay, Bart.

His Grace Dr. Robert Fowler, Archbiſhop of Dublin.

11. The Lady of Lord John Ruſſell.

13. Mary, Counteſs of Holderneſs.

16. His Highneſs Prince Charles of Courland.

21. Hon. John Cochrane.

22. Hon. Evelyn Pierrepoint, M. P.

28. Stephen Thurſton Adey, Eſq. M. P.

Lady Hannah Stratford.

November 1. Alexander Alardyce, Eſq. M. P.

3. Hon. Capt. Hamilton Lindſay, brother to the Earl of Craufurd.

14. Hon. Louiſa Townſhend, fifth daughter of Lord Bayning.

Thomas Potter, Eſq. F. R. S. one of the Welch judges, and formerly chief juſtice of Quebec.

15. The Archduchefs Maria Clementina of Auſtria, wife of the Hereditary Prince of Naples.

19. Lady of Lord Viſcount Galway.

20. Lady Juliana Penn, fourth daughter of Thomas, firſt and late Earl of Pomfret, and relict of the late Hon. Thomas Penn, of Braywick, Berks, formerly an hereditary proprietor of Pennſylvania.

24. Field Marſhal Count Laſcey, a knight of the Golden Fleece, privy councellor of the Emperor, a knight of the military order of Maria Thereſa, miniſter of ſtate and conferences, general field marſhal, and proprietor of the regiment of Cuiraſſeurs.

27. Lady Elizabeth Noel, eldeſt daughter of Baptiſt, fourth Earl of Gainſborough.

Joſeph, Earl of Miltown.

Rear Admiral Blanket, ſecond in command of the Britiſh ſquadron in the Eaſt Indies.

December 3. Madame de Choiſeul, widow of the celebrated miniſter of that name, and mother of the Duke de Choiſeul.

5. Right Hon. Sir John Parnell, Bart. one of his Majeſty's privy counſellors in England and Ireland, M. P. and formerly chancellor of the exchequer in Ireland.

7. Letitia, Marchioneſs of Antrim.

13. At the advanced age of 90,

William Edwardes, Lord Kenſington. He has left iſſue by Elizabeth Warren, of the Longridge family, an only ſon William, born 1777.

28. Lady Elibank Mackenzie.
Sir Duke Giffard, Bart.

SHERIFFS *appointed by his Majeſty in Council, for the Year* 1801.

Bedfordſhire. Stephen Raymond, of Potton, Eſq.

Berkſhire. Oneſiphorus Elliott Elliot, of Binfield, Eſq.

Bucks. Edward Bury, of Iver, Eſq.

Cambridge and Huntingdon. Poſtponed.

Cheſhire. William Rigby, of Oldfield, Eſq. afterwards John Scott Waring, of Ince, Eſq.

Cumberland. Sir Wilfrid Lawſon, of Brayton-Hall, Bart.

Derbyſhire. Richard Arkwright, of Cromford, Eſq.

Devonſhire. Peter Bluet, of Halcombe Rogus, Eſq.

Dorſetſhire. Thomas Roſe Drewe, of Wootton Fitzpaine, Eſq.

Eſſex. John Archer Houblon, of Hallingbury-place, Eſq.

Glouceſterſhire. John Browne, of Salperton, Eſq.

Herefordſhire. John Skip, of Ledbury, Eſq.

Hertfordſhire. Thomas Fitzherbert, of Shenley, Eſq.

Kent. Edward Auſten, of Godmerſham, Eſq.

Leiceſterſhire. Thomas March Phillips, of Garendon, Eſq.

Lincolnſhire. Charles Mainwaring, of Goltho, Eſq.

Monmouthſhire. Thomas Williams, of Chipſtow, Eſq.

Norfolk. Robert Marſham, of Stratton-Strawleſs, Eſq.

Northamptonſhire. Joſeph Sibley, of Northampton, Eſq.

Northumberland. Sir Charles Miles Lambert Monek, of Belſay-caſtle, Bart.

Nottinghamſhire. William Elliott Elliott, of Nottingham, Eſq.

Oxfordſhire. George Clarke, of Cheſterton, Eſq.

Rutlandſhire. William Kemp, of Belton, Eſq.

Shropſhire. Thomas Clark, of Peplow, Eſq.

Somerſetſhire. John Band, of Wookey, Eſq.

Staffordſhire. Tho. Bainbridge, of Woodſeat, Eſq.

Southampton. William Garrett, of Leigh-houſe, Eſq. Havant.

Suffolk. Charles Streynſham Collinſon, of Sproughton, Eſq.

Surry. Bryan Barrett, of Stockwell, Eſq.

Suſſex. William Borrer, of Hurſt-Perpoint, Eſq.

Warwickſhire. John Stanton, of Kenelworth, Eſq.

Wiltſhire. Thomas Buſh, of Bradford, Eſq.

Worceſterſhire. Thomas Philips, of Broadway, Eſq.

Yorkſhire. Richard Thompſon, of Wetherley Grange, Eſq.

SOUTH WALES.

Brecon. Matthew Gwyn, of Abercrave, Eſq.

Caermarthen. Sir John Stepney, of Llanelly, Bart. afterwards Richard Shewen, of Strady, Eſq.

Cardigan. Robert Lloyd, of Abermaide, Eſq. afterwards John Williams, of Caſtle Hill, Eſq.

Glamorgan. Llewellin Traherne, of St. Hilary's, Eſq. afterwards Robert

Robert Jones, of Fonmon Caſtle, Eſq.

Pembroke. Morgan Jones, of Kilwendog, Eſq.

Radnor. Thomas Hodges Fowler, of Abbey Camhire, Eſq. afterwards Hugh Powell Evans, of Noyadd, Eſq.

NORTH WALES.

Angleſea. John Price, of Wern, Eſq.

Carnarvon. William Harvey, of Bodvel, Eſq.

Denbigh. Edward Lloyd Lloyd, of Penylan, Eſq. afterwards John Meredith Moſtyn, of Segroit, Eſq.

Flint. David Pennant, of Downing, Eſq.

Merioneth. Jonathan Paſſingham, of Hendwr, Eſq.

Montgomery. Joſ. Lyon, of Vayor Park, Eſq.

SHERIFF *appointed by his Royal Highneſs the Prince of Wales, in Council, for the Year* 1801.

County of *Cornwall*. Edward Collins, of Truthan, Eſq.

APPENDIX to the CHRONICLE.

London Gazette Extraordinary.

April 15.

Letter from Admiral Sir Hyde Parker, commander in chief of a ſquadron of his Majeſty's ſhips employed on a particular ſervice, to Evan Nepean, Eſq. dated on board the London, in Copenhagen Roads, the 6th of April.

SIR,

YOU will be pleaſed to acquaint the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty, that ſince my letter of the 23d of March, no opportunity of wind offered for going up the Sound until the 25th, when the wind ſhifted in a moſt violent ſquall from S. W. to N. W. and north, and blew with ſuch violence, and with ſo great a ſea, as to render it impoſſible for any ſhip to have weighed her anchor. The wind and ſea were even ſo violent as to oblige many ſhips to let go a ſecond anchor to prevent them from driving, notwithſtanding they were riding with two cables an end; and, by the morning, the wind veered again to the ſouthward of the weſt. On the 30th of laſt month, the wind having come to the northward, we paſſed into the Sound with the fleet, but not before I had aſſured myſelf of the hoſtile intentions of the Danes to oppoſe our paſſage, as the papers, marked No. 1, 2, 3, and 4, will prove; after this intercourſe, there could be no doubt remaining of their determination to reſiſt. After anchoring about five or ſix miles from the iſland of Huin, I reconnoitred with Vice-Admiral Lord Nelſon, and Rear-Admiral Graves, the formidable line of ſhips, radeaus, pontoons, galleys, fire-ſhips, and gun-boats, flanked and ſupported by extenſive batteries on two iſlands called the Crowns; the largeſt of which was mounted with from 50 to 70 pieces of cannon; theſe were again commanded by 2 ſhips of 70 guns; and a large frigate in the inner road of Copenhagen and two 64 gun ſhips (without maſts) were moored on the flat, on the ſtarboard ſide of the entrance into the arſenal. The day after, the wind being ſoutherly, we again examined their poſition, and came to the reſolution of attacking them from the ſouthward. Vice-Admiral Lord Nelſon, having offered his ſervices for conducting the attack, had, ſome days before we entered the Sound, ſhifted his flag to the Elephant; and after having examined and buoyed the outer

channel

channel of the middle ground, his lordſhip proceeded with the 12 ſhips of the line named in the margin*, all the frigates, bombs, fireſhips, and all the ſmall veſſels, and that evening anchored off Draco Point, to make his diſpoſition for the attack, and wait for the wind to the ſouthward. It was agreed between us, that the remaining ſhips with me ſhould weigh at the ſame moment his lordſhip did, and menace the Crown batteries, and the four ſhips of the line that lay at the entrance of the arſenal; as alſo to cover our diſabled ſhips as they came out of action. I have now the honour to incloſe a copy of Vice-Admiral Nelſon's report to me of the action on the 2d inſtant. His lordſhip has ſtated ſo fully the whole of his proceedings on that day, as only to leave me the opportunity to teſtify my entire acquieſcence and teſtimony of the bravery and intrepidity with which the action was ſupported throughout the line. Was it poſſible for me to add any thing to the well-earned renown of Lord Nelſon, it would be by aſſerting, that his exertions, great as they have heretofore been, never were carried to a higher pitch of zeal for his country's ſervice. I have only to lament that the ſort of attack, confined within an intricate and narrow paſſage, excluded the ſhips particularly under my command from the opportunity of exhibiting their valour; but I can with great truth aſſert, that the ſame ſpirit and zeal animated the whole fleet; and I truſt that the conteſt in which we are engaged will, on ſome future day, afford them an occaſion of ſhewing that the whole were inſpired with the ſame ſpirit, had the field been ſufficiently extenſive to have brought it into action. It is with the deepeſt concern I mention the loſs of Captain Moſſe and Riou, two very brave and gallant officers, and whoſe loſs, as I am well informed, will be ſenſibly felt by the families they have left behind them; the former a wife and children, the latter an aged mother. From the known gallantry of Sir Thomas Thompſon on former occaſions, the naval ſervice will have to regret the loſs of the future exertions of that brave officer, whoſe leg was ſhot off. For all other particulars, I beg leave to refer their lordſhips to Captain Otway, who was with Lord Nelſon in the latter part of the action, and able to anſwer any queſtions that may be thought neceſſary to be put to him. A return of the killed and wounded you will receive herewith.

H. PARKER.

P. S. The promotions and appointments that have taken place on this occaſion will be ſent by the next opportunity that offers; but I cannot cloſe this without acquainting their lordſhips, that Captain Moſſe being killed very early in the action, Lieutenant John Yelland continued it with the greateſt ſpirit and good conduct; I muſt, therefore, in juſtice to his merit, beg leave to recommend him to their lordſhips' favour.

* Elephant, Defiance, Monarch, Bellona, Edgar, Ruſſel, Ganges, Glatton, Iſis, Agamemnon, Polyphemus, Ardent.

No. I.

"*London, in the Categat. March* 27.

"From the hoſtile tranſaction of the court of Denmark, ſending away his Britannic Majeſty's charge d'affaires, the commander in chief of his Majeſty's fleet is anxious to know what the determination of the Daniſh court is, and whether the commanding officer of Cronenberg caſtle has received orders to fire upon the Britiſh fleet as they paſs into the Sound, as he muſt deem the firing of the firſt gun a declaration of war on the part of Denmark.

(Signed) HYDE PARKER."

TRANSLATION, No. II.

ANSWER.

"*Cronberg, March* 28.

"In anſwer to the admiral's honoured letter, I have to inform him, that no orders are given to fire on the Engliſh fleet; an expreſs is gone to Copenhagen, and ſhould any orders be ſent, I ſhall immediately ſend an officer on board to inform the admiral.

(Signed) STRICKER, Governor."

TRANSLATION, No. III.

"*Cronberg Caſtle, March* 28.

"In anſwer to your excellency's letter, which I did not receive till the following day, at half paſt eight, I have the honour to inform you, that his Majeſty the King of Denmark did not ſend away the charge d'affaires, but that upon his own demand he obtained a paſſport. As a ſoldier I cannot meddle with politics; but I am not at liberty to ſuffer a fleet, whoſe intentions are not yet known, to approach the guns of the caſtle which I have the honour to command. In caſe your excellency ſhould think proper to make any propoſals to his Majeſty the King of Denmark, I wiſh to be informed thereof, before the fleet approaches nearer the caſtle. An explicit anſwer is deſired.

(Signed) STRICKER."

ANSWER.

"*On board the London,* 1 A. M.

"Sir, *March* 29.

"In anſwer to your excellency's note juſt now received, the underſigned has only to reply, that, finding the intentions of the court of Denmark to be hoſtile againſt his Britannic Majeſty, he regards the anſwer as a declaration of war, and therefore, agreeable to his inſtructions, can no longer refrain from hoſtilities, however reluctant it may be to his feelings; but at the ſame time will be ready to attend to any propoſals of the court of Denmark for reſtoring the former amity and friendſhip which had for ſo many years ſubſiſted between the two courts.

(Signed) H. PARKER."

"His Excellency the Governor of Cronberg Caſtle."

"*Elephant, off Copenhagen,*

"Sir, *April* 3.

"In obedience to your directions to report the proceedings of the ſquadron named in the margin*,

* Elephant, Defiance, Monarch, Bellona, Edgar, Ruſſel, Ganges, Glatton, Iſis, Agamemnon, Polyphemus, Ardent, Amazon, Deſirée, Blanche, Alcmene; ſloops, Dart, Arrow, Cruizer, and Harpy; fire-ſhips, Zephyr and Otter; bombs, Diſcovery, Sulphur, Hecla, Exploſion, Zebra, Terror, and Volcano.

which

which you did me the honour to place under my command, I beg leave to inform you, that having, by the assistance of that able officer Captain Riou, and the unremitting exertions of Captain Bisbane, and the masters of the Amazon and Cruizer, in particular, buoyed the channel of the outer deep, and the position of the middle ground, the squadron passed in safety, and anchored off Draco the evening of the 1st; and that yesterday morning I made the signal for the squadron to weigh, and to engage the Danish line, consisting of 6 sail of the line, 11 floating batteries, mounting from 26 twenty-four pounders, to 18 eighteen pounders, and one bomb ship, besides schooner gun-vessels. These were supported by the Crown islands, mounting 88 cannon, and 4 sail of the line moored in the harbour's mouth, and some batteries on the island of Amak. The bomb-ship and schooner gun-vessels made their escape, and the other 17 sail are sunk, burnt, or taken, being the whole of the Danish line to the southward of the Crown islands, after a battle of four hours. From the very intricate navigation, the Bellona and Russel unfortunately grounded, but although not in the situation assigned them, yet so placed as to be of great service. The Agamemnon could not weather the shoal of the middle, and was obliged to anchor; but not the smallest blame can be attached to Captain Fancourt; it was an event to which all the ships were liable. These accidents prevented the extension of our line by the three ships before mentioned, who would, I am confident, have silenced the Crown islands, the two outer ships in the harbour's mouth, and prevented the heavy loss in the Defiance and Monarch, and which unhappily threw the gallant and good Captain Riou (to whom I had given the command of the frigates and sloops named in the margin *, to assist in the attack of the ships at the harbour's mouth), under a very heavy fire; the consequence has been the death of Captain Riou, and many brave officers and men in the frigates and sloops. The bombs were directed and took their stations abreast of the Elephant, and threw some shells into the arsenal. Captain Rose, who volunteered his services to direct the gun-brigs, did every thing that was possible to get them forward, but the current was too strong for them to be of service during the action; but not the less merit is due to Captain Rose, and, I believe, all the officers and crews of the gun-brigs, for their exertions. The boats of those ships of the fleet, who were not ordered on the attack, afforded us every assistance; and the officers and men who were in them merit my warmest approbation. The Désirée took her station in raking the southernmost Danish ship of the line, and performed the greatest service. The action began at five minutes before ten.—The van, led by Captain George Murray of the Edgar, set a noble example of intrepidity, which was as well followed up by every captain, officer, and man in the squadron. It is my duty to state to you the high and distinguished merit and gallantry of Rear-Admiral Graves.

* Blanche, Alcmene, Dart, Arrow, Zephyr, and Otter.

To

To Captain Foley, who permitted me the honour of hoiſting my flag in the Elephant, I feel under the greateſt obligations; his advice was neceſſary on many and important occaſions during the battle. I beg leave to expreſs how much I feel indebted to every captain, officer, and man, for their zeal and diſtinguiſhed bravery on this occaſion. The Honourable Colonel Stewart did me the favour to be on board the Elephant; and himſelf, with every other officer and ſoldier under his orders, ſhared with pleaſure the toils and dangers of the day. The loſs in ſuch a battle has naturally been very heavy. Among many other brave officers and men who were killed, I have, with ſorrow, to place the name of Captain Moſſe, of the Monarch, who has left a wife and ſix children to lament his loſs; and, among the wounded, that of Captain Sir Thomas B. Thompſon, of the Bellona.

NELSON and BRONTE."

Follows a detail of the killed and wounded; of which the abſtract is, killed; officers 20; ſeamen, marines, and ſoldiers, 234; total 254.—Wounded, officers 48; ſeamen, marines, and ſoldiers 641. Total, killed and wounded 943.

London Gazette, *April* 21.

Extract of a letter from Admiral Sir Hyde Parker, commander in chief of his Majeſty's ſhips and veſſels employed on a particular ſervice, to Evan Nepean, Eſq.

"*London, in Copenhagen Roads,*

"Sir, *April* 9.

"The Hon. Lieut. Col. Stewart having volunteered his ſervices by being the bearer of theſe diſpatches, I have accepted thereof, on a belief that it will be more expeditious than by ſea. I have the pleaſure to tranſmit an armiſtice concluded between the court of Denmark and myſelf. I mean, as ſoon as the diſabled ſhips are refitted, and the worſt of the wounded moved into the Holſtein Daniſh ſhip of the line, which I have commiſſioned as an hoſpital ſhip, to proceed over the grounds into the Baltic, to put into execution the remaining part of my inſtructions. The Iſis and Monarch being found in ſo bad a ſtate from the late action, as to render it neceſſary to ſend them to England to have their damages repaired, I ſhall ſend them home for that purpoſe with the Holſtein hoſpital ſhip, which has the wounded and ſick on board."

ARTICLES OF THE TREATY.

The Daniſh government on the one hand, and Admiral Sir Hyde Parker, Knt. commander in chief of his Britannic Majeſty's naval forces in the road of Copenhagen on the other; being, from motives of humanity, equally anxious to put a ſtop to the farther effuſion of blood, and to ſave the city of Copenhagen from the diſaſtrous conſequences which may attend a farther proſecution of hoſtilities againſt that city, have mutually agreed upon a military armiſtice or ſuſpenſion of arms, his Daniſh Majeſty having for that purpoſe appointed Major-General Erneſt Frederick Watterſdorff, chamberlain to his Daniſh Majeſty and colonel of a regiment, and Adjutant-General Hans Lindholm, captain of his Daniſh Majeſty's navy, his commiſſioners for agreeing about the terms of the ſaid armiſtice; and Admiral Sir Hyde Parker, Knt. having,

having, with the ſame view, duly authorized the Right Hon. Horatio Lord Nelſon, of the Nile, knight of the moſt honourable order of the Bath, Duke of Bronte, in Sicily, knight of the grand croſs of the order of St. Ferdinand and of Merit, and of the imperial order of the Creſcent, vice-admiral in the fleet of his Britannic Majeſty, and the Hon. William Stewart, lieutenant-colonel in his Britannic Majeſty's ſervice, and commanding a detachment of his Britannic Majeſty's forces embarked; theſe ſaid commiſſioners have met this day, and having exchanged their reſpective powers have agreed upon the following terms:

"Article 1. From the moment of ſigning this armiſtice, all hoſtilities ſhall ceaſe between the fleet under the command of Admiral Sir Hyde Parker, and the city of Copenhagen, and all armed ſhips and veſſels belonging to his Daniſh Majeſty which ſhall be found in the road or harbour of that city, as alſo between the different provinces and iſlands of Denmark (Jutland included).

"Art. 2. The armed ſhips and veſſels of his Daniſh Majeſty ſhall remain in their preſent condition, as well with reſpect to the manner in which they are armed, as in reſpect to their military poſition; and the treaty, known by the name of the treaty of the armed neutrality, ſhall, ſo far as concerns the active co-operation of Denmark, remain ſuſpended ſo long as this armiſtice ſhall continue in force. On the other hand, armed ſhips and veſſels, under the command of Admiral Sir Hyde Parker, ſhall, in no manner whatever, diſturb the city of Copenhagen, or the armed ſhips and veſſels of his Daniſh Majeſty, or the coaſts of the different iſlands and provinces of Denmark (Jutland included); and, to prevent every thing which may create diſturbance or ſuſpicion, Admiral Sir Hyde Parker ſhall, on no account, permit any ſhip or veſſel under his command to approach within cannon-ſhot of the armed ſhips, or fortifications, of his Daniſh Majeſty in the road of Copenhagen. This limitation ſhall, however, not extend to the ſhips which muſt neceſſarily paſs and repaſs through the King's deep.

"Art. 3. This armiſtice ſhall ſecure the city of Copenhagen, as alſo the coaſts of Denmark, Jutland, and the iſlands, againſt the attack of any other fleet of men of war, which now, or hereafter, during the continuance of this armiſtice, may be ſent by his Britannic Majeſty into theſe ſeas.

"Art. 4. The fleet of Admiral Sir Hyde Parker ſhall be at liberty to procure from the city of Copenhagen, and along the coaſts of the different iſlands and provinces of Denmark (Jutland included), whatever may be wanted for the health and cure of the crews.

"Art. 5. Admiral Sir Hyde Parker ſhall engage to ſend on ſhore all the ſubjects of his Daniſh Majeſty who are at preſent on board the Britiſh fleet under his command; and the Daniſh government engages to account both for them, and for the wounded, which have been ſuffered to come on ſhore after the battle of the 2d inſt. in the unfortunate caſe of the renewal of hoſtilities with Great Britain.

"Art. 6. The coaſting trade of Denmark, with the different parts of the coaſt included within the extent

extent of this armiſtice, ſhall in no manner be diſturbed by any Britiſh armed ſhip or veſſel; and Admiral Sir Hyde Parker ſhall iſſue the neceſſary inſtructions for that purpoſe.

"Art. 7. This armiſtice ſhall continue in force during the ſpace of fourteen weeks, from the day of its being ſigned by the contracting parties. After the expiration of that time, each of the ſaid parties ſhall be at liberty to declare its termination, and re-commence hoſtilities, after giving a previous notice of fourteen days. The conditions of this armiſtice ſhall, on every occaſion, be explained in the moſt liberal and candid manner, in order to remove every ground of future diſpute, and to facilitate the means of a reſtoration of friendſhip and good underſtanding between the two kingdoms. In witneſs of this, we, the underſigned commiſſioners, according to our full powers, have ſigned and ſealed with our arms the preſent armiſtice. Given on board his Britannic Majeſty's ſhip the London, in the road of Copenhagen, April 9, 1801.

(L.S.) "E. F. WATTERSDORFF.
(L.S.) "H. LINDHOLM.
(L.S.) "NELSON, D. of BRONTE.
(L.S.) "W. STEWART.

Ratified by me, HYDE PARKER, Admiral and Commander in Chief of the Fleet of his Britannic Majeſty.

FREDERIC, Crown Prince."

London Gazette, *May* 12.

Extracts of diſpatches from Lieutenant General Trigge, commander in chief of his Majeſty's forces in the Leeward and Windward Charibbee Iſlands, and Rear-Admiral Duckworth, commander in chief of his Majeſty's ſhips and veſſels at Barbadoes and the Leeward Iſlands.

On board his Majeſty's ſhip Leviathan, at Sea, 22d March, 1801.

"Sir,

"Having already detailed, in my diſpatches of the 1ſt, 14th, and 15th inſt. (Nos. 7, 8, and 9,) the various arrangements that had been made to enable me to carry into effect his Majeſty's commands, communicated in your letters of the 14th and 31ſt of January, I have now the honour to acquaint you, that having been joined on the 16th, at St. John's, Antigua, the appointed rendezvous, by the 8th Weſt India regiment, from Engliſh Harbour, we ſailed the ſame evening, with the force there collected, conſiſting of a detachment of the royal artillery, the 3d and 11th regiments of foot, and the 8th Weſt India regiment; but, owing to the calms and light winds that prevailed, we made ſo little progreſs as not to arrive at St. Bartholomew's until the morning of the 20th, although the paſſage is generally made in the courſe of a few hours.

Rear-Admiral Duckworth, conceiving it might be uſeful to order the Andromeda from Antigua, with a view to prevent any veſſels communicating with the iſland of St. Bartholomew, Captain Brady was accordingly diſpatched on that ſervice; of which opportunity I availed myſelf to ſend Lieut. Col. Shipley, the commanding engineer, for the purpoſe of making obſervations, and to diſcover where a landing might be made with the leaſt

leaſt riſk to the troops. The report of Lieut. Col. Shipley and Capt. Bradby was very correct, and, had occaſion required us to have acted on their information, would, no doubt, have proved of very eſſential conſequence, in facilitating the reduction of the iſland.

A diſpoſition was made for landing on the morning of the 19th; but being becalmed the whole of that day, in ſight of the iſland, and thereby loſing the advantage that would have been derived from a ſudden and unexpected attack, together with the information we had received by a veſſel lately from St. Bartholomew, that the governor was unprepared, and indeed poſſeſſed no means of defence, we determined at once to ſend in a ſummons, which was accordingly done on the morning of the 20th; and I am happy to acquaint you was followed by the immediate ſurrender of the iſland.

I have the honour to tranſmit to you herewith, for your more particular information, copies of the ſummons and capitulation, together with a return of the ordnance found in the iſland of St. Bartholomew.

I have the honour to be, &c.
THO. TRIGGE, Lieut. Gen.

His Majeſty's ſhip Leviathan, at Sea, 27th March.

"Sir,

"I have the honour to acquaint you, that the iſland of St. Martin ſurrendered to the Britiſh forces on the 24th inſtant.

It being conſidered of much conſequence that the leaſt delay poſſible ſhould take place after the ſurrender of St. Bartholomew, every exertion was made to complete the arrangements neceſſary to enable us to leave that iſland, which were finally concluded on the 22d.

At the moment when we were about to ſail, the Proſelyte from England, with nine tranſports under convoy, hove in ſight; on which we immediately weighed, and joined them about ten o'clock that night, when we found that one tranſport was miſſing, with 200 men of the 64th regiment on board. On the following day, at noon, we were alſo joined by the Coromandel, with the 2d Weſt India regiment.

The ſhips of war and the tranſports, during the night of the 23d, drew as near to the iſland of St. Martin as appeared conſiſtent with ſafety, and at day-light the following morning ſtood into Little Cole Bay.

The troops having been divided into two brigades, a diſpoſition was made for landing. The firſt brigade, under the command of Brigadier-General Fuller, was compoſed of the 1ſt battalion of the royals, the 11th regiment, and 2d Weſt India regiment, and was deſtined to make an attack on Fort Cheſterfield, near the town of Marigot, ſituated in the French quarter of the iſland.

The ſecond brigade, commanded by Brigadier-General Maitland, conſiſted of ſix companies of the 3d regiment, the 64th, and four companies of the 8th Weſt India; and was intended for the attack of Fort Amſterdam, and the town of Philipſburgh, in the Dutch quarter, a proportion of field artillery being attached to each brigade.

The bay fixed on for the troops to land in being in the Dutch quarter, and contiguous to Fort Amſterdam,

Amſterdam, the 2d brigade was in conſequence landed firſt, which was effected without oppoſition. During this operation, the tranſport arrived with the 64th regiment, which had been miſſing, and being ordered to run cloſe in with the ſhore, the men were landed in time to join their regiment.

Brigadier General Maitland having gained the heights towards Fort Amſterdam, was ſoon oppoſed by detached parties of the enemy. The 8th Weſt India regiment, being principally engaged on thoſe occaſions, was always ſucceſsful.

It appeared that almoſt the whole force of the enemy had been drawn to the Dutch quarter, whereas it was expected that the principal reſiſtance would have been made at Fort Cheſterfield.

The enemy, rather than await an attack from our troops, which they were led to expect, by our poſſeſſing the heights at no great diſtance from the fort and town, determined to attack, with a conſiderable part of their force, one of the poſitions which we occupied, and brought out two field-pieces with about three hundred men for the purpoſe.

The body of our troops, on which this attack was made, conſiſted of four companies of the ſixty-fourth regiment, under the immediate command of Lieutenant Colonel Pakenham, and two companies of the 8th Weſt India regiment, who evinced, on this occaſion, the greateſt courage and ſteadineſs, repulſed and purſued the enemy, and took poſſeſſion of the two field pieces.

The loſs of the enemy, which they themſelves ſtate to be much more conſiderable, was certainly not leſs than between fifty and ſixty killed and wounded, which muſt appear a great number when compared with the few men we had wounded in this affair.

That the 64th, one of the fineſt regiments I ever ſaw, commanded as it was, ſhould have behaved in a diſtinguiſhed manner, is not ſurpriſing; but I have peculiar ſatisfaction in being enabled to add, that the 8th Weſt India regiment, formed within the laſt three years, and compoſed almoſt entirely of new negroes, who never had before ſeen an enemy, engaged with a degree of gallantry, and behaved in a manner that would do honour to any troops.

After the attack now mentioned, the enemy made no further attempt, but between four and five o'clock in the afternoon a communication was opened, and the capitulation finally concluded by twelve that night.

The firſt brigade, when landed, proceeded to the French quarter without oppoſition, and took poſſeſſion of Lee's Hill, which commands Fort Cheſterfield, and had prepared to commence an attack, which was ordered to be made on that poſt at day-break on the 25th.

The crews of ſome privateers, who formed a conſiderable part of the enemy's force, finding the attack on our poſition had failed, returned to their ſhips and put to ſea.

The regular troops, to the number of at leaſt 320, had laid down their arms before my departure; and it is probable there were ſtill more who had not then ſurrendered.

The officers of the navy and the ſeamen went through the laborious

taſk

taſk of diſembarking the troops and dragging the guns up ſteep and rugged hills, with a ſpirit and cheerfulneſs highly honourable to themſelves and gratifying to thoſe who witneſſed their zeal and exertions. Were I merely to ſay that Rear-Admiral Duckworth gave every poſſible aſſiſtance, I might be underſtood only to mean that he did his duty; an expreſſion totally inadequate to convey what I feel, as, excluſive of all that can be comprehended under the moſt extenſive meaning of the word duty, his many acts of kindneſs muſt be remembered by me with gratitude, and by every officer and ſoldier ſerving on this expedition.

I have alſo much pleaſure in bearing teſtimony to the zeal manifeſted by the whole of the troops, whoſe conduct was ſo highly creditable, as to entitle them to my warmeſt praiſe.

It likewiſe affords me particular ſatisfaction to have an opportunity of expreſſing, through this channel, my acknowledgments to Brigadiers General Fuller and Maitland, for the manner in which they conducted the ſervices entruſted to them, and to Lieutenant-Colonel Gledſtanes, the adjutant-general, Lieutenant-Colonel Laye, commanding the royal artillery, and Lieutenant-Colonel Shipley, the commanding engineer, for the unremitting exertions which they uſed in their reſpective ſituations, as well as to the officers commanding the ſeveral corps, for the attention and alacrity ſo eminently conſpicuous in the diſcharge of their duty.

I have the honour to encloſe to you herewith copies of the ſummons and articles of capitulation, on which the iſland of St. Martin has been ſurrendered to his Majeſty, together with a return of the ordnance taken poſſeſſion of, and a return of the wounded.

I have the honour to be, &c.

THO. TRIGGE, Lieut. Gen.

Return of wounded.—64th regiment, 6 rank and file.

Head Quarters, St. Thomas,

"Sir, *March* 29.

"Having completed ſuch arrangements as appeared neceſſary for the ſecurity of St. Martin's, we were enabled to leave that iſland on the afternoon of the 26th, and arrived here yeſterday.

The ſhips of war and tranſports having anchored at noon, and the troops being immediately diſpoſed in the order of landing, the ſummons was ſent in without further delay; and I have the ſatisfaction to acquaint you, that the iſlands of St. Thomas and St. John, together with their dependencies, were ſurrendered on capitulation to his Majeſty's troops, and taken poſſeſſion of in the afternoon.

I have done myſelf the honour to encloſe to you a copy of the articles of the capitulation, on which theſe iſlands have been put into our poſſeſſion; but have conceived it unneceſſary to tranſmit the ſummons, it being ſimilar to that of St. Bartholomew, a copy of which accompanies this diſpatch; and alſo to annex, for your information, a return of the ordnance found in this iſland.

I have charged my aid-de-camp, Major Browne, with the delivery of this diſpatch, as well as of thoſe containing information of the ſur-

render of the islands of St. Bartholomew and St. Martin, to whom I beg leave to refer you for such further particulars as you may require, having no doubt but you will find him perfectly prepared to afford you every necessary information.—I have the honour to be, &c.

"THOS. TRIGGE, Lieut. Gen.

The Right Hon. Henry Dundas.

"*Head Quarters, St. Croix,*

"Sir, *April* 1.

"I have the honour to acquaint you that we sailed from St. Thomas's on the evening of the 30th ult. and arrived off this island the following day.

"Having issued orders to the troops preparatory to their landing, and made the arrangements necessary for that purpose, it was judged inexpedient to take any further steps until the summons had been sent in, which was immediately done; and I have the honour to acquaint you, that the island of St. Croix was surrendered to his Majesty in the course of the afternoon; but it being then too late in the day to take possession, it was deferred until this morning, when the British troops were landed, and marched into the different forts and towns of Christianstadt and Frederickstadt.

"I have the honour to enclose for your information a copy of the articles of capitulation, and of the governor general's reply to the summons; as likewise a return of the ordnance found in the several forts and batteries.

"Capt. M'Mahon, of the 53d regiment, my aid du camp, will have the honour of presenting this dispatch, whom, I am persuaded, you will find sufficiently prepared to afford you such further information as you may wish to be in possession of. I have the honour to be, &c. &c.

"THOS. TRIGGE, Lieut. Gen."

The Right Hon. Henry Dundas, &c.

P. S. I also have the honour to enclose, for your information, a return of the prisoners of war belonging to the land forces, who surrendered at the different islands.

It must be satisfactory to you to know that the present crop of sugar in this island will amount to thirty-six thousand hogsheads, containing half a ton each.

By his Excellency William Anthony Lindemann, governor general of the Danish West India islands, to their Excellencies Lieutenant General Thomas Trigge and Rear Admiral John Thomas Duckworth, commanders in chief of his Britannic Majesty's forces, &c.

"The summons delivered to me from your Excellencies has greatly astonished me, as I am unacquainted with any rupture between the King my master and his Britannic Majesty.

"Participating in those sentiments of humanity your Excellencies have expressed in the said summons, and desirous to prevent an unnecessary effusion of blood, I here enclose the terms on which I offer to surrender the island of St. Croix.

"The officers, bearers of this, are authorised to treat and sign.

(Signed) W. A. LINDEMANN."

St. Croix, March 31.

Return of the prisoners of war who surrendered at the different islands.

Total in the four islands—2 lieutenant colonels, 2 majors, 8 captains,

captains, 16 lieutenants, 6 enſigns, 664 non-commiſſioned officers and privates.—Total 698.

(Signed) ALBERT GLADSTANES,
Adjutant General.

Leviathan, at ſea, March 27.

" Sir,

" Having conſulted with Lieutenant General Trigge on the ſubject of the orders of the lords commiſſioners of the Admiralty, we determined not to wait for the expected reinforcements, but collect the troops that the general thought might be employed with diſpatch; and we ſailed on the 16th, with about 1500 troops, for the purpoſe of attacking the various iſlands ſpecified in our orders, the general and myſelf conſidering it moſt judicious to commence with the weathermoſt one, St. Bartholomew, though by calms and very variable winds we were prevented from getting to Grand Saline Bay (our intended place of landing) till the morning of the 20th, when, having prepared every thing for that purpoſe, and placed the Andromeda, L'Unité, and Drake brig to cover it, the general and myſelf deemed it expedient, to prevent delay, by ſending Brigadier General Fuller, and Capt. King, of the Leviathan, with a ſummons, which, after ſome little heſitation, was accepted, and the capitulation I tranſmit entered into. I then detached the Andromeda, with the Alexandria tender, to aſſiſt in watching St. Thomas's, when every exertion was uſed to land a garriſon, and form ſuch temporary arrangements as the urgency of the ſervice would admit; all of which were effected by the morning of the 22d. We found here two Swediſh ſhips nearly laden with the produce of this country, a Daniſh ſhip in ballaſt, beſides a variety of ſmall craft, Swediſh, and three ſmall French veſſels; and I left Capt. Thomas Harvey, in L'Unité, to co-operate with the commandant of that iſland, and at ten o'clock A. M. were in the act of weighing, when ten ſail were ſeen from the maſt head: I therefore ordered the Drake brig and L'Eclair ſchooner to reconnoitre, keeping the wind, myſelf concluding they were our troops from England, which the general and myſelf had ſent orders to Barbadoes to follow us after landing their ſick, with women and children; this, from light airs, was not aſcertained till ten o'clock at night, when they proved as conjectured, and the Proſelyte joined in the afternoon of the 24th. Upon this accumulation of force, the general and myſelf, after ſome deliberation, judged it would be highly injurious to his Majeſty's ſervice, and render St. Bartholomew very unſafe, if we omitted attacking the iſland of St. Martin. We therefore, though it was not mentioned in our inſtructions, prompted by the rectitude of our intentions, decided upon endeavouring to reduce it, and at midnight of the 22d bore away for that purpoſe; but the unprecedented variableneſs of the winds prevented our getting there till day-light of the 24th; and on the afternoon of the 23d the Coromandel joined with the 2d Weſt India regiment, when, having placed Capt. Fowke in the Proſelyte, with the Drake brig, in Coles Bay, to cover the landing under the direction of Capt. Ekins of the Amphitrite (who had been ſick at Barbadoes, but joined

in the Proſelyte, and handſomely volunteered this ſervice), which commenced at half paſt eight o'clock, and with his judicious arrangements, the ſecond brigade of near 1500 men, under Brigadier General Maitland, went on ſhore with their field pieces, and 100 ſeamen by eleven o'clock, as was the firſt brigade of 1800, under Brigadier General Fuller, by two o'clock, with their field pieces, and 100 ſeamen; the ſecond brigade directly proceeded on to take the heights in the approach to the town of Philipſburgh, which was quickly effected, though not without ſmart ſkirmiſhing, which afterwards brought on a ſhort action, in which ſome companies of the 64th, under Lieutenant Colonel Pakenham, and two companies of the 8th Weſt India regiment, diſplayed great gallantry; beat the enemy, and took two field pieces. At this time Brigadier General Fuller, with the 1ſt brigade, marched on to take the heights above Fort Cheſterfield, or Margerot, where we had reaſon to expect the greateſt reſiſtance; but the former check (in which the enemy loſt from 50 to 60 killed and wounded) evinced that oppoſition could only lead to deſtruction; and they embraced a verbal ſummons (ſent in by Brigadier Maitland, at five o'clock), to propoſe their terms at nine; when Lieutenant General Trigge and ſelf, being on the ſpot, the capitulation was ſigned and exchanged by midnight of the 24th, of which I tranſmit a copy for their lordſhips' information. At the commencement of the attack we obſerved in Great Bay two privateer brigs of twelve guns each, and a ſchooner of the ſame force, with a merchant ſhip, brig, and nine or ten ſmall craft; and as I conſidered them likely to attempt getting off in the courſe of the night, if it was found neceſſary to ſurrender, I ordered the Hornet and Fanny armed brig to work up to Great Bay, to prevent ſuch attempt from ſucceeding, and at ſunſet ſent the Drake to aid on that ſervice; but, unfortunately, the two firſt did not get far enough to windward to fulfil my intention, by which means one of the brigs and the ſchooner got out, with a few ſmall veſſels, five of which were taken; but I am to lament the brig and ſchooner getting away, after a chace of twenty-four hours by the Hornet and Fanny. We found remaining in the Bay one brig privateer, of 12 guns, an Engliſh captured ſhip, a merchant brig, four ſmall ſchooners, and a ſloop; the particulars of which my time would not allow me to collect, as I began to embark the troops, ordnance, &c. &c. the next morning, the 25th, and ſailed for St. Thomas's the afternoon of the 26th, leaving the Proſelyte, Hornet, and Drake, to aſſiſt in the arrangements neceſſary for the ſecurity of the iſland, and two tranſports to embark the garriſon in, which conſiſted of between three and four hundred, beſides nearly a ſimilar number which got away in the brig, &c.

"I have ordered the Proſelyte to relieve L'Unité, keeping with her the Drake for the aſſiſting protection of the two iſlands, and L'Unité to conduct the priſoners to Martinique, arranging and getting ready to convoy the trade home.

"I cannot conclude this account of our ſucceſsful proceedings, for their lordſhips' information, without

out paying that grateful tribute which is due to Lieutenant General Trigge for his kind ſupport and concurrence in every inſtance, and for his anxious endeavours to preſerve that particular harmony and unanimity between the army and navy, which muſt always contribute to the ſucceſs of every undertaking. I ſhould not do juſtice to the officers and men ſerving under my command, if I was to omit aſſuring their lordſhips they have performed the haraſſing and laborious ſervice they have been employed in highly to my ſatisfaction, and with an alacrity characteriſtic of Britiſh ſeamen; and I have the honour to be, Sir, &c. &c. &c.

"J. T. DUCKWORTH."

By Lieutenant General Thomas Trigge, and Rear Admiral John Thomas Duckworth, Commanders in Chief of his Britannic Majeſty's Land and Sea Forces employed at the Windward and Leeward Iſlands, &c. &c. &c.

"The King, our maſter, having viewed with the deepeſt concern the unjuſt combination lately entered into between the courts of Sweden, Denmark, and Ruſſia, to ſupport the principles of an armed neutrality, contrary to the law of nations, and the poſitive ſtipulation of treaties, his Majeſty, therefore, feels himſelf called upon to adopt ſuch meaſures, as a conduct ſo hoſtile to the juſt and ancient privileges of the Britiſh flag requires, on his part, for the maintenance and preſervation of his people, and in ſupport of the moſt ſolemn treaties, thereby violated, and to conſider, though with the greateſt reluctance, thoſe courts as enemies of Great Britain.

"Feeling that reſiſtance on your part would only tend to increaſe the calamities of war, which it is our moſt earneſt wiſh to alleviate, we have ſent this ſummons by Brigadier General Fuller, of the land forces, and Capt. King, of the royal navy, requiring you to ſurrender the iſland of St. Bartholomew, together with all ſhips and veſſels, ſtores, and public property of every deſcription.

"Knowing how ardently it is the deſire of our Royal Maſter to avert the ſufferings of individuals, and it being no leſs our own diſpoſition and wiſh to ſoften their diſtreſſes, we take this opportunity to declare, that the private property of the inhabitants will be reſpected, as well as whatever belongs to the ſubjects of the United States of America; and, in caſe of immediate ſubmiſſion, that the laws, cuſtoms, and religious uſages of the iſland ſhall not be infringed.

"Dated on board his Majeſty's ſhip Leviathan, this 20th day of March, 1801.

(Signed)

"THOS. TRIGGE, Lieut. Gen.

"J. T. DUCKWORTH, Rear-Admiral."

His Excellency the Governor of St. Bartholomew.

"*His Majeſty's ſhip Leviathan,*

"Sir, *March* 20.

"His Majeſty's friendly diſpoſition towards the intereſts of the United States of America, and their inhabitants, correſponding ſo perfectly with our own, we, in order the more certainly to prevent any cauſe of miſunderſtanding

on the preſent occaſion, have taken this opportunity to expreſs our juſt expectation, that the ſubjects of America, at preſent reſiding in the iſland of St. Bartholomew, will not lend themſelves to any colluſive tranſactions, with a view of preventing ſuch property from coming into poſſeſſion of the forces under our command, as of right ought to be forfeited to the crown of Great Britain. As, whatever reluctance we might feel in adopting a meaſure ſo extremely diſagreeable to us, it nevertheleſs would be our duty, not only to reſiſt, in every inſtance, ſuch unbecoming proceedings, but be the means of obliging us to act againſt whoever might be concerned in a tranſaction of ſo improper a nature, in a manner which we would ever wiſh to avoid. At a time of making this communication, we hope not to be underſtood as conceiving any thing of the nature now alluded to at all likely to occur. We feel ſatisfied of the contrary, and have noticed it merely as a matter of precaution to thoſe who might otherwiſe have been unwarily led into a ſtep, without being aware of the conſequences attendant.

(Signed)

"Thoms. Trigge, Lieut. Gen.

"J. T. Duckworth, Rear-Admiral.

Whereas war between Great Britain and Sweden being announced by the arrival of an armament at this iſland, ſummoning it to ſurrender to his Britannic Majeſty, I do hereby agree to deliver it up to the Britiſh on the following conditions:

Art. I. That all his Swediſh Majeſty's property, now delivered, ſhall, according to inventory, be reſtored, when the colony is returned to his Majeſty the King of Sweden. Anſ. All his Swediſh Majeſty's property muſt be delivered up to the Britiſh unconditionally.

Art. II. That all the inhabitants of this colony, of what nation ſoever, ſhall be protected in their perſons and property, and at liberty to leave the iſland, or remain here; and, in the firſt caſe, to take with them their property, without confiſcation, or other hindrance: whereunder are comprehended goods, merchandize, and veſſels. Anſ. All Swediſh inhabitants, and thoſe of the United States of America, ſhall be protected in their perſons and property, and be at liberty to leave the iſland, or remain on it, while they do not act inconſiſtently with the intereſts of the Britiſh; by property is to be underſtood goods and merchandize on ſhore.

Art. III. That all military and civil officers, as well as the garriſon, ſhall, when deſired, be tranſported to Sweden at the expence of his Britannic Majeſty, without being conſidered priſoners of war, and at liberty to take their property with them. Anſ. The garriſon muſt be conſidered as priſoners of war; every poſſible indulgence will be granted them, and their property reſpected.

Art. IV. All public papers and documents to be reſpected, and allowed to be ſent to Sweden. Anſ. All public papers and documents muſt be ſubmitted to the inſpection of the Britiſh.

Art. V. Religion, laws, and cuſtoms, ſhall remain in the ſame ſtate as they now are. Anſ. Agreed to.

Art. VI. The papers and documents belonging to the French delegation here, to be ſuffered to be ſent away unmoleſted. Anſ. All papers belonging to the enemies of Great Britain muſt be delivered up.

Art. VII. That ſix days be allowed to deliver up whatever may belong to his Swediſh Majeſty, and for an inventory to be made of the ſame, during which ſpace of time I deſire to be guarded by my own troops. Anſ. Every protection is inſured to the perſon of the governor; but the troops of his Swediſh Majeſty muſt be diſarmed immediately after the ſurrender of the place; and his Swediſh Majeſty's property muſt be delivered up to the Britiſh as ſoon as poſſible, and likewiſe all the forts and ſtrong poſts muſt be ſurrendered to the Britiſh troops, as ſoon as theſe articles are ratified by the commander in chief.

Guſtavia, in the iſland of St. Bartholomew, the 20th day of March, 1801.

H. ANKERHEIM.

FRANCIS FULLER, Brigadier General.

E. D. KING, Captain Royal Navy.

Confirmed and ratified by us the commanders in chief of his Britannic Majeſty's forces. Dated on board his Majeſty's ſhip Leviathan, this 20th day of March, 1801.

THOMAS TRIGGE, Lieutenant General.

JOHN THOS. DUCKWORTH, Rear Admiral.

[Here follows the Summons, which is nearly the ſame as that to the Governor of St. Bartholomew's.]

CAPITULATION OF THE ISLAND OF ST. MARTIN.

Art. I. That all property, both French and Dutch, ſhall be reſpected. Anſ. All public property, military and naval ſtores, muſt be delivered up; as likewiſe all ſhips and veſſels, with their cargoes, belonging to the enemies of Great Britain and Ireland. The private property of the ancient inhabitants, both French and Dutch, is to be reſpected; but we reſerve to ourſelves the right to determine with reſpect to ſuch property as has been acquired of late years.

[The other Articles are not remarkable.]

"*Leviathan, St. Thomas,*

"Sir, *March* 30.

"Having had the honour of ſtating to you, for the information of the Lords Commiſſioners of the Admiralty, the ſucceſsful proceedings of this armament to the 27th, I have now further to add, that we arrived off this iſland at day-light of the 28th, having previouſly concerted with the general the arrangement for landing at Black Point Bay, about three miles to the weſtward of the town; but from the wind throwing off the land we were not able to obtain anchorage till noon, when I directed Capt. Bradby in the Andromeda, with the Alexandria tender, to place themſelves as cloſe to the beach as the water would admit to cover the landing, which ſervice was ably executed; I alſo ordered the Southampton, Diana, and Amphitrite (which had been previouſly directed here to prevent ſuccour from being thrown in) to anchor cloſe off the town, to be in readineſs to attack the forts, if requiſite. This ſervice

vice performed, and the troops all ready to land, Lieutenant General Trigge and self were of opinion it would promote his Majesty's service to summon the island, which was sent by Brigadier General Maitland, and Capt. King, of the Leviathan, when a capitulation was agreed on for this island, St. John's, and its dependencies (with the delay only of the governor being permitted to send officers to ascertain that our force was formidable as represented); and yesterday morning we took possession of the forts, &c. since when I have been constantly employed in landing a garrison, and forming temporary regulations, to move for our next object, Santa Cruz, this evening, that my time will not admit of my giving their lordships an exact detail of the vessels in harbour; but there was one man of war brig of 18 guns, which appears a very fine vessel, and fit for his Majesty's service. Herewith I send a copy of the capitulation.—This, with my other dispatch of the 27th, I forward by my First Lieutenant, Charles Marshall Gregory, an officer of great merit and activity, who has been recently employed as acting captain of the Amphitrite, and to whom I must refer their lordships for further particulars.—I have the honour to be, Sir, &c.

"J. T. DUCKWORTH."

[Here follow the Articles of Capitulation of the island of St. Thomas, which are nearly the same as the preceding.]

"*Leviathan, off Christianstadt,*

"Sir, *Santa Cruz, April* 2.

"My letters of the 27th and 30th ult. (of which I now transmit duplicates) having given you information for the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty of our fortunate and successful proceedings in the execution of their lordships' orders to the surrender of St. Thomas's (with the deviation of venturing to attack St. Martin's), and my intentions of leaving St. Thomas's for Santa Cruz that evening, the 30th, I now have the further pleasure to acquaint you that we were off the town of Christianstadt at day-light on the 31st, and having formed the arrangements for landing, and sounded to the eastward of the town, to ascertain that it could be safely effected, Lieutenant General Trigge and myself thought proper to send a summons similar to that of St. Bartholomew: upon which confidential officers were sent off by the Governor General Lindemann, and the accompanying capitulation entered into, the whole of which, I hope, will meet with his Majesty's and their lordships' approbation; and as I consider an expeditious account thereof, under the present circumstances with the Northern Powers, may be very desirable, I dispatch the Fanny hired armed brig, and must defer giving any detail of the vessels in the ports, as I have not yet been able to get any exact list. Capt. Ekins, of the Amphitrite, having been much reduced from a fever, and by his exertions again brought on violently his complaint, I have thought it humanity to entrust that valuable officer with my dispatches, and beg leave to refer their lordships to him for any further particulars.

"I intend giving an acting order to Capt. John Miller Garnier, of the Hawke, and my First Lieute-

Lieutenant George Wm. Blamey, an officer whose exertions in the present expedition entitle him to my warmest support.

"I should feel very remiss was I to close this without mentioning to their lordships the aid I have received from my Capt. E. D. King, in this harassing service; and I have the honour to be, Sir, &c. &c.

"J. T. DUCKWORTH."

The following are the only particular articles in the capitulation of Santa Cruz:

Art. V. The Danish laws, and the special ordinances of this country, shall remain in full and uncontrouled vigour and execution as hitherto, and justice be administered by the persons now in office: the appeals from the upper court to go as usual in the last instance to the high court of justice in Copenhagen, or to a high court to be nominated by the British governor, to consist of three able Danish lawyers, and two respectable inhabitants who understand the Danish language, and to be presided by the British governor. Ans. The Danish laws and ordinances will remain in force as at present, but the persons filling civil offices must be subject to our approbation; and in the event of appeal from the courts here, the appeal must be made to his Britannic Majesty in council.

Art. VI. All the inhabitants of this island present and absent of every denomination, to remain in full and uncontrouled possession of their property of every description; and they shall meet with no impediment in the administration thereof. Ans. The property of all inhabitants will be respected, except the French, Spaniards, and Dutch, who have become residents since the 1st of January, 1794.

Art. VII. Absent officers in his Danish Majesty's service, as well as other absentees, to be maintained in the possession of their property, which shall be administered by their attornies. Ans. The officers in his Danish Majesty's service, and other absentees, except French, Spanish, and Dutch, as specified in the foregoing article, provided they are not serving those governments, shall continue possessed of their landed property, which shall be administered by their attornies. But if any person, resident in Denmark, shall have warehouses or other depots of goods in the island, they must be sequestered until his Britannic Majesty's pleasure shall be known respecting them.

Art. VIII. No inhabitant shall be compelled, on any pretext whatsoever, to bear arms against his Danish Majesty, or any other power, or perform any military duty of any denomination. Those who may wish to remain on the island shall swear to observe a strict neutrality; and those who may wish to quit the island, shall be allowed to dispose of their property, or to appoint attornies for the administration of the same. Ans. Granted; but they will be required to take an oath of allegiance to the British government, expressing that they will not, either openly or secretly, do any thing hostile to the British government. No Frenchman, Dutchman, or Spaniard, who has become a resident since the 1st of January, 1794, can be permitted to remain on the island.

Art.

Art. XI. The inhabitants concerned in his Majesty's loan shall not be compelled to make any payments on account of the same, as long as the colony continues subjected to his Britannic Majesty. Ans. The inhabitants concerned in his Danish Majesty's loan must make their payments to his Britannic Majesty as they become due, whilst the colony remains under the British government.

SECRET.

Art. XIV. As it is impossible for the inhabitants to procure fresh provisions and certain indispensable supplies for their estates, but from the Spaniards, either from the main or Porto Rico, the ports of St. Croix shall be opened to all Spanish vessels bringing such supplies.—Ans. Granted; until his Britannic Majesty's pleasure shall be known.

London Gazette Extraordinary. *May* 3.

Letter from Sir Ralph Abercromby to the Earl of Elgin, dated Camp before Alexandria, March 16.

"My Lord,

"On the 1st inst. the fleet arrived in sight of Alexandria; on the 2d it anchored in Aboukir Bay; the weather did not permit any debarkation before the 8th; on that day it was happily effected, under the most trying circumstances. The boats had near a mile to row, and were for some time under the fire of fifteen pieces of artillery, and the musquetry of 2,500 men; still the intrepidity of the troops overcame every difficulty. We took eight pieces of cannon. On the 9th, the remainder of the army was landed. On the 12th we marched forward to within two leagues of Alexandria, and one league of the enemy, who were advantageously posted on a ridge, with their right to the canal of Alexandria, and their left to the sea. On the 13th we moved forward to attack the enemy, and to turn their left. They did not, however, wait, but came down and attacked us. The action was warm; but the enemy were every where forced under the walls of Alexandria. Our loss is considerable. Although Col. Erskine is wounded, he is doing well. He has lost his leg. His regiment gained great credit, but suffered severely. No officer of rank is killed or dangerously wounded. Excuse this scrawl, written on my knee.

I am, &c.

R. Abercromby.

London Gazette, *May* 9.

Letter from General Sir Ralph Abercromby to the Right Hon. Lord Hobart.

Camp before Alexandria,

"Sir, *March* 16.

"Although it was not originally my intention to have commenced the operations of the British army in Egypt on the side of Alexandria, yet circumstances arose which induced me to change my opinion. We were much longer delayed on the coast of Asia Minor than we had at first any reason to apprehend; and we were ultimately obliged to sail from Marmarice in a very imperfect state of preparation. I am fully sensible of the exertions of his Majesty's ambassador at the Ottoman Porte, as well as of the quarter-master-general, and the other officers who were sent forward to provide for the necessities of the army. Our delays originated from other

other cauſes. For a conſiderable time previous to our ſailing, the weather was extremely boiſterous, and the wind contrary. The moment that it became practicable to ſail with ſo large a fleet, Lord Keith put to ſea; we left Marmarice on the 22d of February, and came in ſight of Alexandria on the 1ſt of March. On the 2d, the fleet anchored in Aboukir Bay. Until the 7th the ſea ran high, and no diſembarkation could be effected; on that day every arrangement was completed; and on the 8th, the troops forming the firſt diviſion, conſiſting of the reſerve under the command of Major-Gen. Moore, the brigade of guards, under the Hon. Major-Gen. Ludlow, and part of the firſt brigade, under the command of Major-General Coote, got into the boats early in the morning; they had, in general, from five to ſix miles to row, and did not arrive at the point of landing till ten o'clock. The front of diſembarkation was narrow, and a hill which commanded the whole ſeemed almoſt inacceſſible. The enemy were fully aware of our intention, were in force, and had every advantage on their ſide. The troops, however, notwithſtanding their being expoſed to a very ſevere cannonade, and under the fire of grape-ſhot, made good their landing, aſcended the hill with an intrepidity ſcarcely to be paralleled, and forced the enemy to retire, leaving behind him ſeven pieces of artillery and a number of horſes. The troops that aſcended the hill were the 23d regiment and the four flank companies of the 40th, under the command of Col. Spencer, whoſe coolneſs and good conduct Major-General Moore has mentioned to me in the higheſt terms of approbation. It is impoſſible to paſs over the good order in which the 28th and 42d regiments landed, under the command of Brigadier-General Oakes, who was attached to the reſerve under Major-General Moore; and the troops in general loſt not a moment in remedying any little diſorder which became unavoidable in a landing under ſuch circumſtances. The diſembarkation of the army continued on that and the following day. The troops which landed on the 8th advanced three miles the ſame day; and on the 12th the whole army moved forward, and came within ſight of the enemy, who was formed on an advantageous ridge, with his right to the canal of Alexandria, and his left towards the ſea. It was determined to attack them on the morning of the 13th; and in conſequence the army marched in two lines by the left, with an intention to turn their right flank. The troops had not been long in motion before the enemy deſcended from the heights on which they were formed, and attacked the leading brigades of both lines, which were commanded by Major-General Cradock and Major-General the Earl of Cavan. The 90th regiment formed the advanced guard of the front line, and the 92d that of the ſecond; both battalions ſuffered conſiderably, and behaved in ſuch a manner as to merit the praiſe both of courage and diſcipline. Major-Gen. Cradock immediately formed his brigade to meet the attack made by the enemy; and the troops changed their poſition with a quickneſs and preciſion which did them the greateſt honour. The remainder of the

army

army followed ſo good an example, and were immediately in a ſituation not only to face, but to repel the enemy. The reſerve, under the command of Major-Gen. Moore, which was on the right, on the change of the poſition of the army, moved on in column, and covered the right flank. The army continued to advance, puſhing the enemy with the greateſt vigour, and ultimately forcing them to put themſelves under the protection of the fortified heights which form the principal defence of Alexandria.—It was intended to have attacked them in this their laſt poſition; for which purpoſe the reſerve, under the command of Major-General Moore, which had remained in column during the whole of the day, was brought forward; and the ſecond line, under the command of Major-Gen. Hutchinſon, marched to the left acroſs a part of the lake Mariotis, with a view to attack the enemy on both flanks; but, on reconnoitring their poſition, and not being prepared to occupy it after it ſhould be carried, prudence required that the troops who had behaved ſo bravely, and who were ſtill willing to attempt any thing, however arduous, ſhould not be expoſed to a certain loſs, when the extent of the advantage could not be aſcertained. They were therefore withdrawn, and now occupy a poſition with their right to the ſea, and their left to the canal of Alexandria and lake Mariotis, about a league from the town of Alexandria.—I have the greateſt ſatisfaction in ſaying, that the conduct of the Britiſh and foreign troops under my command is deſerving of the higheſt praiſe; their courage and their diſcipline have been equally conſpicuous.—To all the general officers I am indebted for their zeal and intelligence.—From the Hon. Brigadier-General Hope, adjutant-general, and Lieut. Col. Anſtruther, quarter-maſter-general, I have received every teſtimony of zeal, and the moſt able aſſiſtance in the operations of the army; and to the other officers of the general ſtaff, I feel obligations. On the 8th the arrangements made by Lord Keith were ſuch as to enable us to land at once a body of 6000 men. The Hon. Capt. Cochrane, and thoſe other captains and officers of the royal navy, who were entruſted with the diſembarkation, not only of the troops, but of the artillery, ammunition, proviſions, and ſtores of all kinds, have exerted themſelves in ſuch a manner as to claim the warmeſt acknowledgments of the whole army.—Sir Sidney Smith, and the other captains and officers of the navy under his command who landed with the army, have been indefatigable in their exertions in forwarding the ſervice on which they are employed. The enemy have left a ſmall garriſon in Aboukir caſtle: it has been neceſſary to bring up a few pieces of heavy artillery, and there is reaſon to believe that it will ſpeedily ſurrender. Majors Mac Karras and Fletcher, of the royal engineers, who went down in the Penelope frigate to ſurvey the coaſt of Egypt, a ſhort time before we ſailed from Marmarice, were unfortunately ſurpriſed in a ſmall boat in Aboukir bay; the former was killed, and the latter taken priſoner. Our communication with the fleet is at preſent kept up by means of the lake of Aboukir. We have been fortunate enough to find

water

water sufficient for the supply of the army; and we begin to derive some supplies from the country. I have the honour to inclose herewith returns of the killed and wounded in the actions of the 8th and 13th inst. together with a return of the artillery taken from the enemy on those days.

RA. ABERCROMBY.

P. S. I have had no means of ascertaining the loss of the enemy, but it must have been considerable.

Total of killed, wounded, and missing, of the army under the command of General Sir Ralph Abercromby, K. B. &c. Aboukir, March 8.

4 officers, 4 serjeants, 94 rank and file, killed; 26 officers, 34 serjeants, 5 drummers, 450 rank and file, wounded; 1 officer, 1 serjeant, 1 drummer, 32 rank and file, missing.

Return of the killed, wounded, and missing, of the army under the command of General Sir Ralph Abercromby, K. B. near Alexandria, March 13.

6 officers, 6 serjeants, 1 drummer, 143 rank and file, 21 horses, killed; 66 officers, 1 quarter-master, 61 serjeants, 7 drummers, 946 rank and file, 5 horses, wounded; 1 rank and file missing.

London Gazette Extraordinary.
May 15.

Contains the articles of capitulation of Fort Aboukir, and an account of an affair between a patrole of British cavalry, and one of the enemy in the neighbourhood of Alexandria, in which Col. Archdall lost an arm, several officers and privates were killed, wounded and missing.

Letter from Gen. J. H. Hutchinson to the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, Secretary of State, received by Lord Hobart.

Head Quarters, Camp, four miles from Alexandria, April 3.

"Sir,

"I have the honour to inform you, that, after the affair of March 13, the army took a position about four miles from Alexandria, having a sandy plain in their front, the sea on their right, and the canal of Alexandria (at present dry) and the lake of Aboukir on their left. In this position we remained, without any material occurrence taking place, till the 21st of March, when the enemy attacked us with nearly the whole of their collected force, amounting probably to 11 or 12,000 men. Of 14 demi-brigades of infantry, which the French have in this country, 12 appear to have been engaged, and all their cavalry, with the exception of one regiment. The enemy made the following disposition of their army: General Lanusse was on their left, with four demi-brigades of infantry, and a considerable body of cavalry, commanded by General Roize; Generals Friant and Rampon were in the centre, with five demi-brigades; General Regnier on the right, with two demi-brigades, and two regiments of cavalry; General D'Estain commanded the advanced guard, consisting of one demi-brigade, some light troops, and a detachment of cavalry. The action commenced about an hour before day-light, by a false attack on our left, which was under Major-General Craddock's command, where they were soon repulsed. The most vigorous efforts of the enemy were, how-

ever, directed againſt our right, which they uſed every poſſible exertion to turn. The attack on that point was begun with great impetuoſity by the French infantry, ſuſtained by a ſtrong body of cavalry, who charged in column. They were received by our troops with equal ardour, and the utmoſt ſteadineſs and diſcipline: the conteſt was unuſually obſtinate. The enemy were twice repulſed, and their cavalry were repeatedly mixed with our infantry. They at length retired, leaving a prodigious number of dead and wounded on the field. While this was paſſing on the right, they attempted to penetrate our centre with a column of infantry, who were alſo repulſed, and obliged to retreat with loſs. The French, during the whole of the action, refuſed their right; they puſhed forward, however, a corps of light troops, ſupported by a body of infantry and cavalry, to keep our left in check; which certainly was, at that time, the weakeſt part of our line. We have taken about 200 hundred priſoners (not wounded); but it was impoſſible to purſue our victory, on account of our inferiority in cavalry, and becauſe the French had lined the oppoſite hills with cannon, under which they retired. We alſo have ſuffered conſiderably. Few more ſevere actions have ever been fought, conſidering the numbers engaged on both ſides. We have ſuſtained an irreparable loſs in the perſon of our never ſufficiently to be lamented Commander in Chief, Sir Ralph Abercromby, who was mortally wounded in the action, and died on the 28th of March. I believe he was wounded early, but he concealed his ſituation from thoſe about him, and continued in the field, giving his orders with that coolneſs and perſpicuity which had ever marked his character, till long after the action was over, when he fainted through weakneſs and loſs of blood. Were it permitted for a ſoldier to regret any one who has fallen in the ſervice of his country, I might be excuſed for lamenting him more than any other perſon; but it is ſome conſolation to thoſe who tenderly loved him, that, as his life was honourable, ſo was his death glorious. His memory will be recorded in the annals of his country—will be ſacred to every Britiſh ſoldier—and embalmed in the recollection of a grateful poſterity. It is impoſſible for me to do juſtice to the zeal of the officers and to the gallantry of the ſoldiers of this army. The reſerve, againſt whom the principal attack of the enemy was directed, conducted themſelves with unexampled ſpirit; they reſiſted the impetuoſity of the French infantry, and repulſed ſeveral charges of cavalry. Major-General Moore was wounded at their head, though not dangerouſly: I regret, however, the temporary abſence from the army of this highly-valuable and meritorious officer, whoſe counſel and co-operation would be ſo highly neceſſary to me at this moment. Brigadier-Gen. Oakes was wounded nearly at the ſame time, and the army has been deprived of the ſervice of an excellent officer. The 28th and 42d regiments acted in the moſt diſtinguiſhed and brilliant manner. Col. Paget, an officer of great promiſe, was wounded at the head of the former regiment; he has ſince, though not quite recovered, returned to his duty. Brigadier-

gadier-General Stuart and the foreign brigade ſupported the reſerve with much promptneſs and ſpirit. Indeed, it is but juſtice to this corps to ſay, that they have, on all occaſions, endeavoured to emulate the zeal and ſpirit exhibited by the Britiſh troops, and have perfectly ſucceeded. Major-Gen. Ludlow deſerves much approbation for his conduct when the centre of the army was attacked: under his guidance the guards conducted themſelves in the moſt cool, intrepid, and ſoldier-like manner. They received very effectual ſupport by a movement of the right of General Coote's brigade. Brigadier-Gen. Hope was wounded in the hand: the army has been deprived of the ſervice of a moſt active, zealous, and judicious officer. The loſs of the enemy has been great: it is calculated at upwards of 3000 killed, wounded, and taken priſoners. General Roize, who commanded the cavalry, which ſuffered conſiderably, was killed in the field. Generals Lanuſſe and Boder are ſince dead of their wounds. I have been informed that ſeveral other general officers, whoſe names I do not know, have been either killed or wounded. I cannot conclude this letter without ſolemnly aſſuring you, that, in the arduous conteſt in which we are at preſent engaged, his Majeſty's troops in Egypt have faithfully diſcharged their duty to their country, and nobly upheld the fame of the Britiſh name and nation.

"I am, &c.

"J. H. HUTCHINSON."

Return of the killed, wounded, and miſſing, near Alexandria, Mar. 21.

Total.—10 officers, 9 ſerjeants, 224 rank and file, 2 horſes, killed; 60 officers, 48 ſerjeants, 3 drummers, 1082 rank and file, 3 horſes, wounded; 3 officers, 1 ſerjeant, 28 rank and file, miſſing.

Letter from Admiral Lord Keith to Evan Nepean, Eſq.

"*On board the Foudroyant, in the Bay of Aboukir, April* 1, 1801.

"Sir,

"I have very great concern in acquainting you, that, in a deſperate attack made upon our lines by the French army on the morning of the 21ſt ultimo, my gallant and reſpectable colleague, General Sir Ralph Abercromby, unfortunately received a wound, of which he died on board this ſhip on the 28th. It is unneceſſary to ſay how much this calamity has been regretted by the army and by the fleet. Their lordſhips will obſerve, that the enemy were repulſed with very great loſs. I incloſe, for their information, a copy of Sir Sidney Smith's report of that ſuſtained by the detachment of ſeamen ſerving under his orders; and have the pleaſure of adding, that his own wound has not been ſo material as to deprive me of his ſervices. The marines were not engaged, having been, previouſly to the action, appointed to the duty of Aboukir caſtle and its vicinity.

"I am, &c.

"KEITH."

P. S. The Captain Pacha arrived on the 26th ult. with three ſail of the line and a body of troops; and on the following day a Turkiſh vice-admiral joined.

London Gazette Extraordinary.

June 5th.

Letter from General Sir J. H. Hutchinson, K. B.

"*Camp before Alexandria,*

"Sir, *April 20.*

"It is with great pleaſure that I am to inform you of the ſucceſs of a corps of Turks and Britiſh under the command of Col. Spencer. They were ordered from hence about ten days ago, for the purpoſe of forcing the enemy from the town and caſtle of Roſetta, which commands the navigation of the Nile. This operation has perfectly ſucceeded. We are now maſters of the weſtern branch of that river, and of courſe have opened a communication with the Delta, from which we ſhall derive all neceſſary ſupplies, as the French have ſcarcely any troops there, and none capable of making a ſerious reſiſtance. The enemy had about 800 men at Roſetta when they were attacked. They made but a feeble effort to ſuſtain themſelves, and retired to the right bank of the Nile, leaving a few men killed and priſoners. They left a garriſon in the fort, againſt which our batteries opened on the 16th, and it ſurrendered on the 19th inſt. the conditions are the ſame as were granted to the caſtle of Aboukir. I have many obligations to Col. Spencer for the zeal, activity, and military talents, which he has diſplayed in the conduct of this important ſervice; and I beg leave to recommend him as a deſerving and moſt excellent officer.

"J. H. HUTCHINSON, Major-General."

Letter from Lord Elgin to Lord Hawkeſbury.

"*Conſtantinople, May 9, 1801.*

"My Lord,

"Mr. Morier having returned from Egypt, have the ſatisfaction of being able to lay before your lordſhip a far more particular account of the affairs and proceedings in that country than it has hitherto been in my power to communicate. He left the camp before Alexandria on the 22d ult. At that time the enemy remained in their ſtrong poſition upon the heights near the eaſtern walls of Alexandria, their numbers about 6000 men. They were ſtill in anxious expectation of receiving reinforcements, particularly that which had been announced to them as coming from Admiral Gantheaume. The loſs of the enemy, according to the numerous reports which had been collected, certainly exceeds 5000 men, and a great proportion of officers: four generals are known to have been killed. Every encouragement ſeems to have been given and held out to the French army to enſure their utmoſt exertions. Among other things, they were taught to expect no quarter from the Britiſh. The priſoners agree, that in no part of this war had ſuch hard fighting, or ſuch determined bravery, ever been ſeen, as they have met with from our army in Egypt.

I preſume that Sir Ralph Abercromby's abſence from the camp, in conſequence of his wounds on the 21ſt of March, had created a momentary ſuſpenſion of our operations; and the irreparable loſs occaſioned by his death muſt alſo neceſſarily have checked the proſecution of plans, in the formation and execution of which he had always borne ſo leading a part. The Captain Paſha did not arrive in time

time to ſee Sir Ralph Abercromby; but it appears that General Hutchinſon followed his excellency's intention relative to the troops on board the Turkiſh fleet, by employing them againſt Roſetta, and accordingly directed Col. Spencer, having under him a corps of about eight hundred Britiſh, to proceed with the Turks to that expedition. The town was evacuated without reſiſtance. Some guns were then brought to bear upon the fort St. Julien, which commands the entrance of the river.—The garriſon of 368 men ſurrendered on the 19th ult. Rahmanich was ſtill in the hands of the French. They had fortified it, both in a view to ſecure their communications from the upper part of the Delta and upper Egypt, whence they received their proviſions. Under theſe circumſtances, Gen. Hutchinſon has very much ſtrengthened his poſition between Aboukir and Alexandria, not only by a range of works in front, but particularly by opening the ſluices which kept in the waters in the lake on their left; and if, as is ſuppoſed, this inundation ſhall extend over the whole of the plain to the eaſt of the lake Mareotis, the communication between Alexandria and Rahmanich, which is the enemy's neareſt point, will be eight or nine days journey without water. Having taken theſe meaſures, Gen. Hutchinſon was to transfer his head-quarters to Roſetta on the 23d ult. to which place he had already ſent forward a ſtrong detachment, amounting to above 1,000 Britiſh, including Col. Spencer's corps, and he was immediately to proceed from thence, with nearly an equal number of the Capt. Paſha's troops, againſt Rahmanich, where the French were underſtood to have aſſembled 3000 men. On the other hand, advices had been received ſeveral days before from the Grand Vizier, dated at Belbeis, from which it appeared that his highneſs, reinforced by nearly 5000 men from Djezzar Paſha, had paſſed the deſert, and had advanced ſo far towards Cairo, without meeting with oppoſition either at Salahich or at Belbeis. He had alſo detached a corps which has taken poſſeſſion of the town of Damietta, though the fort of L'Elbe is ſtill in the hands of the French. It is not expected that his highneſs will experience any material reſiſtance at the town of Cairo. And I find it is the determination of Gen. Hutchinſon to afford his highneſs ſuch aid as may be requiſite towards attacking the fortifications which the French occupy near to the town, if it is neceſſary to reduce them by force. Gen. Hutchinſon has farther received a favourable letter from Murad Bey, ſaying he is ready to join us when we come into his neighbourhood. I am happy to add, that our army are in the higheſt health and ſpirits. The climate and weather had hitherto been moſt propitious. The natives had acquired the greateſt degree of confidence from the proclamation iſſued by our army, and were continuing to bring in horſes and proviſions in great plenty. Nearly 1000 of our cavalry are now well mounted there; and we have ſtill about 11,000 infantry in the field. The utmoſt degree of unanimity prevails between the Britiſh and Turkiſh troops.

"ELGIN."

London Gazette, *June* 30.

Letter from Lord Elgin to Lord Hawkesbury.

"*Constantinople, May* 23.

"My Lord,

"An officer is arrived from the Captain Pasha, with the intelligence that General Hutchinson had marched from Rosetta on the 8th inst. with 4000 British troops, in company with a corps of Turks of equal force, under the command of the Captain Pasha, and on the 9th attacked the French near Rahmanich. The enemy were driven in; and in the course of the night they retired towards Cairo, having left a small garrison in the entrenchments of Rahmanich. On the 10th, the fort surrendered, and the combined force then proceeded towards Cairo, having concerted their movements with the Grand Vizir, who was at El Hanka, a position four leagues distant from Cairo, in a north-east direction. Our loss at Rahmanich is stated not to exceed 30 men. The Turkish officer reports, that a reinforcement of 3000 British troops had arrived at Aboukir, about the 6th of May.

"ELGIN."

London Gazette Extraordinary.

July 15.

Letter from Lord Elgin to Lord Hawkesbury.

"*Constantinople, June* 5, 1801.

"My Lord,

"An opportunity for writing to Europe having occurred, I avail myself of it to mention to your lordship some further details from Egypt, which have just reached me in a private letter from Lord Keith, dated the 22d May.

"The enemy, after quitting Rahmanich, made a wonderful march, and reached Cairo on the 12th of May. It is supposed they then advanced to attack the Vizir at Belbeis.

"General Hutchinson, who was in his progress from Rahmanich towards Cairo, had, by the aid of the Arabs, taken a convoy of five hundred camels, with their escort of six hundred men. It was destined for Alexandria, which is understood to be in great want of some articles of provisions and of water. General Hutchinson, in his march up the country, observes, that the inhabitants are in the highest degree incensed against the French, putting to death every one that falls into their hands.

"Admiral Blanket, in his letters to Lord Keith of the 6th, acquaints him with the arrival of the reinforcements from India under the command of General Baird, Colonel Wellesley, Colonel Murray, &c.

"After the surrendering of Damietta, a corps of seven hundred men embarked on the lake Burlos for France, and were taken by Lord Keith.

"I have the honour to be, &c.

"ELGIN."

Right Hon. Lord Hawkesbury, &c. &c.

London Gazette Extraordinary,

July 21.

Letters from Major Holloway to Lord Elgin, and from Lord Elgin to Lord Holloway.

"*Imperial Ottoman Camp of the Grand Vizier, Benulhasser, May* 20.

"My Lord,

"I had the honour of addressing your lordship on the 2d of May from

from Salahieh, which place his Highneſs the Grand Vizier left the 7th, and the following day arrived at Balbeis, where the advanced corps of his army had been encamped for ſome time before.

" On the 15th inſt. his Highneſs received intelligence that the enemy had early that morning marched a conſiderable force from Cairo on the road towards Belbeis, where his Highneſs was then encamped. In the evening, a further confirmation of this intelligence was brought, when the enemy was in full march. The Vizier, after dark, ordered Tahir Pacha, with three thouſand cavalry, and three light field pieces, to advance to meet them, and if a favourable opportunity offered during the obſcurity of the night, to attack; if not, to impede their progreſs as much as poſſible. About ten o'clock at night they met, about three miles from camp, when each halted and lay on their arms during the night, and until eight o'clock in the morning, at which time Tahir Pacha commenced an attack. He was ſoon after reinforced by fifteen hundred cavalry. It was now found the enemy had come forward with about fourteen pieces of artillery, ſix hundred cavalry, and four thouſand infantry. His Highneſs therefore ordered Méhémmed Pacha to move forward with five thouſand men, cavalry, and Albanian infantry, and nine light field pieces; the enemy had eight-pounders in the field. His Highneſs afterwards advanced himſelf, and took the command, which was attended with the happieſt effect.

" The enemy moved into a wood of date trees, where they were attacked by the cavalry and infantry with great ſpirit for three hours, when the enemy retired from the wood, taking poſition on the plain, their left to the wood, and forming a hollow ſquare on the right. The Albanian infantry advanced to the edge of the wood, and in this ſituation galled them conſiderably; and upon the Turkiſh cavalry threatening their right, they changed poſition, and attempted to gain the heights, in which they were prevented by a rapid movement of cavalry, who gained the ſummit. In this manœuvre they were annoyed by two guns, which were advanced by his Highneſs on the occaſion. At this time the French commenced a decided retreat, and were driven beyond El Hanka, a diſtance not leſs than ſeven miles from the place of the firſt operations. The Grand Vizier, who had commanded his troops with great gallantry and prompt deciſion, then gave orders for them not to purſue any further. The loſs on either ſide for the time they were engaged was but ſmall. The Turks had about thirty killed and eighty wounded. The French, I think, had about fifty killed, and one priſoner; the number of their wounded could not be aſcertained, as they took them off the field.

" The Turkiſh force engaged on this occaſion did not at any time exceed nine thouſand.

" Whilſt I was congratulating his Highneſs in the field of battle on the ſucceſs of the day, we received additional ſatisfaction by the arrival of the intelligence of the capture of Fort Leſbie, at Damietta, and two ſmaller forts depending on it, by a detachment from the Vizier's army. I had

the honour of acquainting your lordſhip, in my letter of the 2d of May, that his Highneſs intended ſending a force againſt Damietta. This intention he carried into effect on the 6th, by ordering Ibrahim Pacha, with two thouſand five hundred men, and five pieces of artillery, to march immediately for that purpoſe; and it appears by Ibrahim Pacha's report to the Vizier, that every arrangement had been made for the attack of Fort Leſbie on the morning of the 14th inſtant, when it was diſcovered that the fort was evacuated, and the garriſon had retired.

"I beg leave to inform your lordſhip, that during the action of the 16th inſtant, myſelf and Major Hope of the royal artillery, were in the field with the Grand Vizier, Capt. Lacey of the royal engineers with Méhémmed Pacha, and Capt. Leake of the royal artillery with Tahir Pacha, to render every aſſiſtance in our power.

"The combined forces under Major General Hutchinſon and the Captain Pacha, are about five hours diſtance in the Delta, but are expected here in a day or two. I received a letter from the general this morning, who informs me he has taken a convoy of five hundred and fifty camels, and ſix hundred French priſoners.—I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed)

"CHARLES HOLLOWAY,
Major Commandant, &c.

The Right Hon. the Earl of Elgin.

"*Conſtantinople, June* 21.

"My Lord,

"I have the moſt ſincere ſatisfaction in forwarding to your lordſhip the incloſed diſpatch from Lieutenant Colonel Holloway.

"The modeſt and unaſſuming manner in which this deſerving officer has mentioned himſelf, and the Britiſh under his orders, impoſes upon me the obligation of ſtating to your lordſhip, what I had learnt by their private communication to me from Jaffa and Gaza; that as ſoon as the determination was formed for the Vizier to advance into Egypt, Lieutenant Colonel Holloway propoſed that diſtribution of the Turkiſh army, and that order of march, which have effectually enſured this unlocked-for ſucceſs over the French. The advanced guard was compoſed of a ſelect body of cavalry under Tahir Pacha, and of Albanian infantry under Méhémet Pacha; the firſt accompanied by Capt. Leake, the ſecond by Capt. Lacey, each receiving their orders from Col. Holloway, who remained near the perſon of the Vizier.

"It is by this well-combined diſpoſition, by the endeavours which were ſtrenuouſly exerciſed to prevail upon this corps to diſembarraſs themſelves of their ſuperfluous attendants, and by giving confidence to the Turks in their own means, that Col. Holloway has been enabled to bring theſe troops to keep in check, during many hours, a French army of ſuperior force—to counteract its plans—to attack it—to ſeize every advantage of its poſitions, and of ground, and, after manœuvring with ſcience during ſeven hours, to repulſe it with loſs, and gain a complete victory. In the account which the Vizier has ſent of this action to the Porte, his Highneſs

ſpeaks

ſpeaks in the higheſt terms of the ſervice done by the artillery, which Major Hope is well known to be ſo very capable of directing.

(Signed) "ELGIN."

Right Hon. Lord Hawkeſbury, &c. &c.

Letter from Lieutenant General the Hon. Sir John Hely Hutchinſon, K. B. to Lord Hobart.

"*Head Quarters, Camp, near Alkam, June* 1.

"My Lord,

"I have the honour to inform your lordſhip, that the French abandoned the poſition of El-Att, on the 7th of May, which we occupied the ſame evening, and on the 9th, we advanced to Rahmanich, where the French were poſted with upwards of three thouſand infantry, and eight hundred cavalry. We at firſt imagined that they might have endeavoured to have maintained that poſition, but our corps on the Eaſtern bank of the Nile having got into their rear, took the fort of Rahmanich in reverſe, which probably induced the enemy to retire in the night between the 9th and 10th, leaving a garriſon in the fort, which ſurrendered in the morning, amounting to one hundred and ten men, commanded by a Chef de Brigade; we alſo took the ſame day, about fifty cavalry and three officers coming from Alexandria.

"As the enemy retired towards Cairo, it became neceſſary to follow them, in order to cover the army of the Grand Vizier, and to ſecure a junction with the expected reinforcement from India.

"Nothing happened of any importance until the 14th, when we fell in with a valuable convoy of Germs on the Nile. They had come from Cairo down the canal of Menouff, which joins the Damietta and Roſetta branches of the river. From this circumſtance, they knew nothing of the retreat of General La Grange from Rahmanich. About one hundred and fifty priſoners fell into our hands, and ſeveral heavy guns, ſome of them intended for the defence of Alexandria. The convoy in itſelf was very valuable, and is a great loſs to the enemy. We found on board all kinds of cloathing, wine, ſpirits, &c. &c. and about five thouſand pounds in money.

"On the 17th, when encamped at Alkam, we were informed by the Arabs that a conſiderable body of French coming from Alexandria, were advancing towards the Nile, near the ſpot where the boats of the Captain Pacha then were. The cavalry were immediately ordered out, with two pieces of cannon, under the command of Brigadier General Doyle, ſupported by his brigade of infantry. Col. Cavalier, who commanded the French convoy, as ſoon as he perceived the boats of the Captain Pacha, ſuſpected that our army muſt be near, and therefore retired into the deſert, where we followed him. The cavalry came up with him, after a march of about three hours. A flag of truce was ſent into them by Major Wilſon, of the Hompeſch, requiring them to ſurrender, on condition that their private property ſhould be reſpected, and that they ſhould be ſent to France by the firſt convenient opportunity. With theſe terms they complied, and laid down their arms. They amounted, in all, to about ſix hundred men, infantry, cavalry, and

artillery, together with a conſiderable portion of the Dromedary corps, one four-pounder, and five hundred and fifty camels. The priſoners taken are all Frenchmen, and of the beſt troops they had in Eygpt.

"On the 17th of May the enemy retired from the Fort of Liſbet, on the Damietta Branch, and formed a junction with about two hundred men which they had at Burlos: this fort they alſo evacuated, and embarked in five ſmall veſſels, four of which have been taken and carried into Aboukir Bay; the fifth endeavoured to eſcape towards Cyprus, but a Turkiſh frigate was left in chace of her, ſo that it is more than probable ſhe has ſhared the ſame fate.

"The garriſons of the two forts, conſiſted of about ſeven hundred men; ſo that in all we have taken, from the 9th to the 20th, near ſixteen hundred men, which makes a conſiderable diminution of the enemy's force in this country.

"The French made a moſt extraordinary rapid march from Rhamanich to Gizah, where they arrived on the 13th, and immediately croſſed the river to Boulac.

"On the 15th they marched to attack the Grand Vizier's army. His Highneſs anticipated their intention, and made a forward movement with a conſiderable body of cavalry on the night between the 15th and 16th. The armies remained for ſome hours in preſence of each other, when the Ottoman troops attacked at about eight o'clock in the morning, and after an action of ſeven hours, the French retired, having loſt between three and four hundred men killed and wounded. They were nearly the ſame people who had retreated from Rhamanich, and were about four thouſand, or four thouſand five hundred men.

"I congratulate your lordſhip upon the event of this very important action; I have alſo much pleaſure in informing you, that the Mamelukes, under the orders of Oſman Bey, (ſucceſſor of Murad Bey) have joined us to the amount of about fifteen hundred cavalry, inferior certainly to none in the world. I am ſanguine enough to hope that the moſt ſerious good effects will ariſe from this junction, as they have a moſt intimate knowledge of the country, and the greateſt influence amongſt the inhabitants.

"I encloſe you the capitulation of the Fort of Rhamanich, and alſo a return of the killed and wounded on the 9th of May, which I rejoice has been ſo very inconſiderable.—I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed)

"J. Hely Hutchinson."

To the Right Hon. Lord Hobart.

Fort of Rhamanich, May 10.

The garriſon of the Fort of Rhamanich will ſurrender to the Ottoman and Britiſh forces on the following conditions:—

I. The officers ſhall wear their ſwords, and retain their effects. They, as well as the ſoldiers, ſhall be priſoners of war.—Granted.

II. The garriſon ſhall be ſent back to France, and ſhall not ſerve againſt the King of England, nor againſt his allies, until exchanged conformably to the cartel between the two nations.—Granted.

III. The wounded are placed under

under the protection of British humanity.

(Signed)

LA CROIX, Chêf de Brigade.
CAPITAN PACHA.
J. HELY HUTCHINSON, Major General, commanding in Chief.
JAMES STEVENSON, Captain Royal Navy.

Rhamanich, May 9.

Return of the killed and wounded of the army under the command of the Hon. Major General Hutchinson.

Total—1 drummer, 4 rank and file, 10 horses, killed; 4 officers, 1 serjeant, 1 drummer, 18 rank and file, 5 horses, wounded.

P. S. A letter has just reached me from Lieutenant Colonel Murray, dated Cossire, the 14th of May, informing me of his arrival with the first division of the Bombay detachment of troops, and that he was in daily expectation of General Baird with the remainder.

London Gazette Extraordinary, *August 23.*

Dispatches (in duplicate) received at the office of Lord Hobart, from Lieutenant General the Hon. Sir John Hely Hutchinson, K. B. transmitted in a letter from the Earl of Elgin to Lord Hawkesbury.

" *Head Quarters, Camp before Gizeh, June 21, 1801.*

" My Lord,

" I have nothing new or of essential import to communicate, but I avail myself of the opportunity of a messenger going to Constantinople to inform you, that we are now encamped near Gizeh, which is on the opposite side of the river to Cairo. We mean to erect batteries in the course of twenty-four hours: it cannot hold out long, as it is a very weak place; but it covers a bridge of communication which the French have over the Nile, and it is therefore essential to us to have it in our possession. This operation cannot last above four or five days at most: I then mean to cross the river and join the army of the Grand Vizier, who is at present encamped very near Cairo: we shall then besiege the place, which is garrisoned by 4000 or 5000 French, but their works are very extended, and would require a much greater number of men to defend them. Great delays have been occasioned in this operation from the low state of the river, and from the bar of the Nile at Rosetta, which is frequently impassable for ten days together, so that our march has been much retarded. The difficulty of procuring provisions for the army, and the obstacles which we encountered in bringing the heavy artillery up the river, (which has not yet been entirely accomplished) have been very great. However, we have now a sufficiency to begin the siege. I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed)

" J. H. HUTCHINSON."

To the Right Hon. Lord Hobart.

" *Head Quarters, Camp before Gizeh, June 29, 1801.*

" My Lord,

" The combined armies advanced on both sides of the river on the 21st inst. The British troops, and those of his Highness the Captain Pacha, invested Gizeh on the left bank of the Nile, whilst the army of his Highness the Grand Vizier moved forward, and took a

position

position nearly within cannon shot of Cairo. On the 22d, in the morning, the enemy sent out a flag of truce, and informed me, that they wished to treat for the evacuation of Cairo, and the forts thereunto belonging, upon certain conditions. After a negotiation of several days, which was conducted by Brigadier General Hope with much judgment and ability, they agreed to surrender the town and forts on the conditions which I have the honour to enclose.

"We took possession of the gate of Gizeh at five o'clock yesterday evening, and also of the fort Sulkoski on the Cairo side of the river: hostages have been mutually exchanged, and the final evacuation will take place in about ten days.

"I should suppose that there are near 6000 troops of all kinds in the town, but I speak without a perfect knowledge on the subject, as I have not yet received any returns.

"This has been a long and arduous service: the troops, from the great heat of the weather, the difficulty of the navigation of the river, and the entire want of roads in the country, have suffered a considerable degree of fatigue, but both men and officers have submitted to it with the greatest patience, and have manifested a zeal for the honour of his Majesty's arms that is above all panegyric; the conduct of the soldiers has been orderly and exemplary; and a discipline has been preserved which would have done honour to any troops.

"I am extremely obliged to Lieut. Col. Anstruther, quarter-master general, for the great zeal and ability which he has shewn, under very difficult circumstances, in forwarding the public service. From Generals Cradock and Doyle, who were the general officers employed immediately under my orders, I have derived the greatest assistance, and I beg leave to recommend them as highly deserving of his Majesty's favour.

"The exertions of Capt. Stevenson of the navy have been extremely laborious and constant during this long march; they have done every thing that was possible to forward our supplies: and indeed, without their powerful aid, it would have been impossible to have proceeded. Your lordship will recollect, that the river is extremely low at this season of the year, the mouth of the Nile impassable for days together, and the distance from Rosetta to Cairo between 160 and 170 miles. Capt. Stevenson has been ably supported by Captains Morrison, Curry, and Hillyar, who were employed under him. The service in which they have been engaged has not been a brilliant one, but I hope it will be recollected that it has been most useful, and has required constant vigilance and attention; it has lasted now for many weeks; the labour has been excessive, and the fatigue greater than I can express.

"This dispatch will be delivered to you by my Aide-de-Camp, Major Montrésor, who has been in the most intimate habits of confidence with me since my arrival in Egypt, and will be able to give your lordship a most perfect account of the situation of affairs in this country. I beg leave to recommend him to your lordship's protection as an officer of merit, and

and highly deſerving of his Majeſty's favour.—I have the honour to be, &c.

" J. H. HUTCHINSON,
Major General.

To the Right Hon. Lord Hobart, &c.

CONVENTION *for the evacuation of Egypt by the French and Auxiliary Troops under the command of the General of Diviſion, Belliard, concluded between Brigadier General Hope, on the part of the Commander in Chief of the Britiſh Army in Egypt, Oſman Bey, on the part of his Highneſs the Grand Vizier, and Iſaac Bey, on the part of his Highneſs the Captain Pacha; the Citizens Dongelot, General of Brigade, Morand, General of Brigade, and Tarayre, Chief of Brigade, on the part of the General of Diviſion Belliard, commanding a body of French and Auxiliary Troops. The Commiſſioners above named having met and conferred, after the exchange of their reſpective Powers, have agreed upon the following Articles:*

Article I. The French forces of every deſcription, and the auxiliary troops under the command of the General of Diviſion Belliard, ſhall evacuate the city of Cairo, the citadel, the forts of Boulac, Giza, and all that part of Egypt which they now occupy.

II. The French and auxiliary troops ſhall retire by land to Roſetta, proceeding by the left Bank of the Nile, with their arms, baggage, field artillery, and ammunition, to be there embarked and conveyed to the French ports of the Mediterranean, with their arms, artillery, baggage, and effects, at the expence of the Allied Powers. The embarkation of the ſaid French and auxiliary troops ſhall take place as ſoon as poſſible, but at the lateſt within fifty days from the date of the ratification of the preſent Convention. It is alſo agreed, that the ſaid troops ſhall be conveyed to the French ports above mentioned, by the moſt direct and expeditious route.

III. From the date of the ſignature and the ratification of the preſent Convention, hoſtilities ſhall ceaſe on both ſides. The fort of Sulkoſki, and the gate of the Pyramids, of the town of Giza, ſhall be delivered up to the Allied Army. The line of advanced poſts of the armies reſpectively ſhall be fixed by Commiſſioners, named for this purpoſe, and the moſt poſitive orders ſhall be given, that theſe ſhall not be encroached upon, in order to avoid all diſputes; and if any ſhall ariſe, they are to be determined in an amicable manner.

IV. Twelve days after the ratification of the preſent Convention, the city of Cairo, the citadel, the forts, and the town of Boulac, ſhall be evacuated by the French and auxiliary troops, who will retire to Ibrahim Bey, the Iſle of Rhoda, and its dependencies, the Fort of Foneroy and Gizeh, from whence they ſhall depart as ſoon as poſſible, and at the lateſt in five days, to proceed to the points of embarkation. The generals commanding the Britiſh and Ottoman armies conſequently engage that means ſhall be furniſhed, at their charge, for conveying the French and auxiliary troops as ſoon as poſſible from Gizeh.

V. The march and encampment of the French and auxiliary troops ſhall be regulated by the generals of

of the reſpective armies, or by officers named by each party; but it is clearly underſtood, that, according to this article, the days of march and of encampment ſhall be fixed by the generals of the combined armies, and conſequently the ſaid French and auxiliary troops ſhall be accompanied on their march by Engliſh and Turkiſh Commiſſaries, inſtructed to furniſh the neceſſary proviſions during the continuance of their route.

VI. The baggage, ammunition, and other articles tranſported by water, ſhall be eſcorted by French detachments, and by armed boats belonging to the Allied Powers.

VII. The French and auxiliary troops ſhall be ſubſiſted from the period of their departure from Gizeh to the time of their embarkation, conformably to the regulations of the French army; and from the day of their embarkation to that of their landing in France, agreeably to the naval regulations of England.

VIII. The military and naval commanders of the Britiſh and Turkiſh forces ſhall provide veſſels for conveying to the French ports of the Mediterranean the French and auxiliary troops, as well as all French and other perſons employed in the ſervice of the army. Every thing relative to this point, as well as in regard to ſubſiſtence, ſhall be regulated by commiſſaries named for this purpoſe by the General of Diviſion Belliard, and by the naval and military commanders in chief of the Allied forces, as ſoon as the preſent Convention ſhall be ratified. Theſe commiſſaries ſhall proceed to Roſetta or to Aboukir, in order to make every neceſſary preparation for the embarkation.

IX. The Allied Powers ſhall provide four veſſels (or more if poſſible), fitted for the conveyance of horſes, water-caſks, and forage ſufficient for the voyage.

X. The French and auxiliary troops will be provided by the Allied Powers with a ſufficient convoy for their ſafe return to France. After the embarkation of the French troops, the Allied Powers pledge themſelves, that to the period of their arrival on the continent of the French Republic, they ſhall not be in the leaſt moleſted; and on his part, the General of Diviſion Belliard, and the troops under his command, engage that no act of hoſtility ſhall be by them committed, during the ſaid period, againſt the fleet or territories of his Britannic Majeſty, of the Sublime Porte, or of their allies. The veſſels employed in conveying and eſcorting the ſaid troops or other French ſubjects, ſhall not touch at any other than a French port, except in caſes of abſolute neceſſity. The commanders of the Britiſh, Ottoman, and French troops enter reciprocally into the like engagements, during the period that the French troops remain in Egypt, from the ratification of the preſent Convention to the moment of their embarkation. The General of Diviſion Belliard, commanding the French and auxiliary troops, on the part of his government, engages that the veſſels employed for their conveyance and protection, ſhall not be detained in the French ports after the diſembarkation of the troops; and that their commanders ſhall be at liberty to purchaſe, at their

their own expence, the proviſions which may be neceſſary for enabling them to return. General Belliard alſo engages, on the part of his government, that the ſaid veſſels ſhall not be moleſted on their return to the ports of the Allied Powers, provided they do not attempt, or are made ſubſervient to, any military operation.

XI. All the adminiſtrations, the members of the commiſſion of arts and ſciences, and in ſhort every perſon attached to the French army, ſhall enjoy the ſame advantages as the military. All the members of the ſaid adminiſtration, and of the commiſſion of arts and ſciences, ſhall alſo carry with them, not only all the papers relative to their miſſion, but alſo their private papers, as well as all other articles which have reference thereto.

XII. All the inhabitants of Egypt, of whatever nation they may be, who wiſh to follow the French troops, ſhall be at liberty ſo to do; nor ſhall their families, after their departure, be moleſted, or their goods confiſcated.

XIII. No inhabitant of Egypt, of whatever religion, who may wiſh to follow the French troops, ſhall ſuffer either in perſon or property, on account of the connection he may have entered into with the French during their continuance in Egypt, provided he conforms to the laws of the country.

XIV. The ſick, who cannot bear removal, ſhall be placed in an hoſpital, and attended by French medical and other attendants, until their recovery, when they ſhall be ſent to France on the ſame conditions as the troops. The commanders of the Allied armies engage to provide all the articles that may appear really neceſſary for this hoſpital; the advances to be made on this account ſhall be repaid by the French government.

XV. At the period when the towns and forts mentioned in the preſent Convention ſhall be delivered up, commiſſaries ſhall be named for receiving the ordnance, ammunition, magazines, papers, archives, plans, and other public effects, which the French ſhall leave in poſſeſſion of the Allied Powers.

XVI. A veſſel ſhall be provided as ſoon as poſſible by the naval commanders of the Allied Powers, in order to convey to Toulon an officer and a commiſſioner, charged with the conveyance of the preſent Convention to the French government.

XVII. Every difficulty or diſpute that may ariſe reſpecting the execution of the preſent Convention, ſhall be determined in an amicable manner by commiſſioners named on each part.

XVIII. Immediately after the ratification of the preſent Convention all the Engliſh or Ottoman priſoners at Cairo ſhall be ſet at liberty, and the commanders in chief of the Allied Powers ſhall in like manner releaſe the French priſoners in their reſpective camps.

XIX. Officers of rank from the Engliſh army, from his Highneſs the Supreme Vizier, and from his Highneſs the Capitan Pacha, ſhall be exchanged for a like number of French officers of equal rank, to ſerve as hoſtages for the execution of the preſent treaty. As ſoon as the French troops ſhall be landed in the ports of France, the hoſtages ſhall be reciprocally releaſed.

XX. The

XX. The preſent convention ſhall be carried and communicated by a French officer to General Menou at Alexandria, and he ſhall be at liberty to accept of it for the French and auxiliary forces (both naval and military), which may be with him at the above-mentioned place, provided his acceptance of it ſhall be notified to the general commanding the Engliſh troops before Alexandria within ten days from the date of the communication being made to him.

XXI. The preſent convention ſhall be ratified by the commanders in chief of the reſpective armies within twenty-four hours after the ſignature thereof.

Signed in quadruplicate, at the place of conference between the two armies, the 27th of June, 1801, or of the ſiege of Saffar, 1216, or the 8th Meſſidor, 9th year of the French Republic.

(Signed) J. Hope, Brigadier-General.
Osman Bey.
Isaac Bey.
Donzelot, General de Brigade.
Tarayre, Chief de Brigade.

Approved and ratified the preſent convention at Cairo, the 9th Meſſidor, ninth year of the French Republic.

(Signed) Belliard, General de Diviſion.

London Gazette, Oct. 22.

Letter from General Hutchinſon to Lord Hobart.

"*Head Quarters, Camp before Alexandria, Sept.* 5, 1801.

"My Lord,

"I have now the ſatisfaction to inform your lordſhip, that the forts and town of Alexandria have ſurrendered to his Majeſty's troops, who, on the 2d inſtant, took poſſeſſion of the entrenched camp, the heights above Pompey's pillar, the Redoubt de Bain, and the fort Triangular. By the capitulation the garriſon are to be embarked for France in the courſe of ten days, provided the ſhipping is in a ſtate of preparation to receive them.

"The operations againſt the enemy's works commenced on the 17th of Auguſt.

"Major-General Coote embarked with a ſtrong corps on the inundation in the night between the 16th and 17th of Auguſt. He effected his landing to the weſtward of Alexandria with little or no oppoſition, and immediately inveſted the ſtrong caſtle of Marabout, ſituated at the entrance of the weſtern harbour of Alexandria.

"On the eaſt ſide of the town, two attacks were made to get poſſeſſion of ſome heights in front of the intrenched poſition of the enemy. I intruſted the conduct of the attack againſt their right to Major-General Craddock, and that againſt their left to Major-General Moore. Thoſe two officers perfectly executed my intentions and performed the ſervice committed to their care with much preciſion and ability. The action was neither obſtinate or ſevere, and our loſs is but ſmall; but it afforded one more opportunity to diſplay the promptneſs of Britiſh officers, and the heroiſm of Britiſh ſoldiers. A part of General Doyle's brigade, the 30th regiment (but under the immediate command of Col. Spencer), had taken poſſeſſion of a hill in front of the enemy's right. Gen. Menou, who was in perſon in that part

part of the French intrenched camp, directly oppoſite to our poſt, ordered about ſix hundred men to make a ſortie, to drive us from our poſition. The enemy advanced in column with fixed bayonets and without firing a ſhot, till they got very cloſe to the 30th regiment, to whom Col. Spencer gave an immediate order to charge, though they did not conſiſt of more than two hundred men; he was obeyed with a ſpirit and a determination worthy the higheſt panegyric.—The enemy were driven back to their intrenchments in the greateſt confuſion—they had many killed and wounded, and ſeveral taken priſoners.

"On the night between the 18th and 19th, Major-General Coote opened batteries againſt the caſtle of Marabout; an attack was alſo made from the ſea by ſeveral Turkiſh covettes, and the launches and boats of the fleet, under the guidance of the Hon. Capt. Cochrane; great perſeverance and exertions were required to get up heavy guns through a difficult and almoſt impracticable country; but the troops executed this painful and arduous ſervice with ſuch zeal and continued firmneſs, that the fort capitulated in the night of the 21ſt; the garriſon conſiſted of about one hundred and eighty men, and were commanded by a chef de brigade.

"On the morning of the 22d, Major-General Coote marched from Marabout to attack a ſtrong corps poſted in his front, in order to cover the approach to Alexandria; the managements of that excellent officer appear to have been able and judicious, and were attended with the moſt complete ſucceſs; he drove the enemy every where, though ſtrongly poſted, and in a country which oppoſed uncommon obſtacles to the progreſs of troops. The French ſuffered extremely in the action, and retreated in much confuſion, leaving their wounded and ſeven pieces of cannon behind them.

"On the 24th, batteries were opened againſt the Redoubt de Bain; and on the 25th, at night, Major-General Coote ſurpriſed the enemy's advanced poſts, when ſeven officers and fifty men were taken priſoners; this ſervice was gallantly performed by Lieut. Colonel Smith, with the 1ſt battalion of the 20th regiment, and a ſmall detachment of dragoons under the orders of Lieutenant Kelly, of the 26th. The enemy endeavoured to regain poſſeſſion of the ground from which they had been driven, but were repulſed with loſs.

"On the morning of the 26th we opened four batteries on each ſide of the town againſt the entrenched camp of the French, which ſoon ſilenced their fire, and induced them to withdraw many of their guns.

"On the 27th, in the evening, General Menou ſent an aid-de-camp to requeſt an armiſtice for three days, in order to give time to prepare a capitulation, which, after ſome difficulties and delays, was ſigned on the 2d September.

"I have the honour to encloſe you a copy of the capitulation, and alſo a liſt of the number of perſons for whom the enemy have required ſhipping; by this it appears, that the total of the garriſon of Alexandria conſiſted of upwards of 8000 ſoldiers, and 1300 ſailors.

"This arduous and important ſervice has at length been brought

to

to a concluſion. The exertions of individuals have been ſplendid and meritorious. I regret that the bounds of a diſpatch will not allow me to ſpecify the whole, or to mention the name of every perſon who has diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the public ſervice. I have received the greateſt ſupport and aſſiſtance from the general officers of the army. The conduct of the troops of every deſcription has been exemplary in the higheſt degree; there has been much to applaud and nothing to reprehend; their order and regularity in the camp have been as conſpicuous as their courage in the field. To the quarter-maſter-general, Lieut. Col. Anſtruther, I owe much for his unwearied induſtry and zeal in the public ſervice, and for the aid, advice, and co-operation which he has at all times afforded me. Brigadier-General Lawſon, who commanded the artillery, and Captain Bryce, the chief engineer, have both great merit in their different departments. The local ſituation of Egypt preſents obſtacles of a moſt ſerious kind to military operations on an extended ſcale. The ſkill and perſeverance of thoſe two officers have overcome difficulties which at firſt appeared almoſt inſurmountable.

"Lieutenant-Colonel Lindenthal, who has always acted with the Turks, deſerves my utmoſt acknowledgments; his activity and diligence have been unremitted, and he has introduced amongſt them an order and regularity which does him the higheſt honour. . .

"During the courſe of the long ſervice on which we have been engaged, Lord Keith has, at all times, given me the moſt able aſſiſtance and counſel. The labour and fatigue of the navy have been continued and exceſſive;—it has not been of one day or of one week, but for months together. In the bay of Aboukir, on the new inundation, and on the Nile, for one hundred and ſixty miles, they have been employed without intermiſſion, and have ſubmitted to many privations with a chearfulneſs and patience highly creditable to them, and advantageous to the public ſervice.

"Sir Sidney Smith had originally the command of the ſeamen who landed from the fleet; he continued on ſhore till after the capture of Roſetta, and returned on board the Tigre a ſhort time before the appearance of Admiral Gantheaume's ſquadron on the coaſt. He was preſent in the three actions of the 8th, 13th, and 21ſt of March, when he diſplayed that ardour of mind for the ſervice of his country, and that noble intrepidity for which he has been ever ſo conſpicuous. Captain Stevenſon, of the Europa, ſucceeded him, and I have every reaſon to be ſatisfied with his zeal and conduct. The crews of the gun-boats diſplayed great gallantry, under his guidance, in the new inundation; and much approbation is alſo due to the naval officers who acted under his orders.

"Captain Preſland, of the Regulus, has had the direction for many months paſt of all Greek ſhips in our employment, and of thoſe belonging to the commiſſariot. He has been active, zealous, and indefatigable, and merits my warmeſt approbation. I muſt therefore beg leave particularly to recommend this old and meritorious officer to your lordſhip's protection.

"Allow

"Allow me to expreſs an humble hope, that the army in Egypt have gratified the warmeſt wiſhes and expectations of their country. To them every thing is due, and to me nothing. It was my fate to ſucceed a man who created ſuch a ſpirit and eſtabliſhed ſuch a diſcipline amongſt them, that little has been left for me to perform, except to follow his maxims, and to endeavour to imitate his conduct.

"This diſpatch will be delivered to your lordſhip by Colonel Abercromby, an officer of conſiderable ability, and worthy of the great name which he bears. He will one day, I truſt, emulate the virtue and talents of his never ſufficiently to be lamented father.

"I have the honour to be, &c.

"J. HELY HUTCHINSON,
Lieutenant-General."

The Right Hon. Lord Hobart, &c.

TRANSLATION.

ARTICLES *of the* CAPITULATION *propoſed by Abdoullahy Jacques Francois Menou, Gen. in Chief of the French Army now in Alexandria, to the Generals commanding the Land and Sea Forces of his Britannic Majeſty, and of the Sublime Porte, forming the Blockade of Alexandria, dated the 12th Fructidor, Year nine of the French Republic (30th Auguſt 1801).*

Art. I. From the preſent date to the 30th Fructidor, (17th Sept. 1801) there ſhall be a continuation of the truce and ſuſpenſion of arms between the French army and the combined armies of his Britannic Majeſty, and of the Sublime Porte, upon the ſame conditions with thoſe which actually ſubſiſt, with the exception of a regulation, to be amicably ſettled between the reſpective generals of the two armies for eſtabliſhing a new line of advanced poſts, in order to remove all pretext of hoſtility between the troops.

Anſwer.—Refuſed.

Art. II. In caſe no adequate ſuccours ſhould arrive to the French army before the day mentioned in the preceding article, that army ſhall evacuate the forts and entrenched camps of Alexandria upon the following conditions.

Anſwer.—Refuſed.

Art. III. The French army ſhall retire, on the firſt complementary day of the French era, into the city of Alexandria and forts adjacent, and ſhall deliver up to the allied powers the entrenched camp in front of the lines of the Arabs, the fort Le Turc, and the fort Du Vivier, together with their artillery and ammunition.

Anſwer.—In forty-eight hours after the ſigning of the capitulation, namely, on the 2d September, at noon, the entrenched camps, the fort Turc, and that of Du Vivier, ſhall be delivered up to the allied powers. The ammunition and artillery of theſe forts ſhall be alſo delivered up. The French troops ſhall evacuate the city, forts, and dependencies of Alexandria ten days after ſigning the capitulation, or at the time of their embarkation.

Art. IV. All individuals, conſtituting a part of the French army, or attached to it by any relations, military or civil; the auxiliary troops of every nation, country, or religion; or of whatever powers they might have been ſubjects before the arrival of the French, ſhall preſerve their property, of every deſcription, their effects, papers, &c. &c.; which ſhall not be ſubject to any examination.

Anſwer.

Anſwer.—Granted; provided that nothing be carried away belonging to the government of the French Republic, but only the effects, baggage, and other articles belonging to the French and auxiliary ſoldiers, who have ſerved during ſix months in the army of the republic; the ſame is to be underſtood of all the individuals attached to the French army, by civil or military capacities, of whatever nation, country, or religion they may be.

Art. V. The French forces, the auxiliary troops, and all the individuals deſcribed in the preceding article, ſhall be embarked in the ports of Alexandria, between the 5th and the 10th of Vendemiaire, year ten of the republic, at the lateſt, (27th September to the 3d October 1801,) together with their arms, ſtores, baggage, effects, and property of all kinds, official papers, and depoſits, one field piece to each battalion and ſquadron, with ammunition, &c. &c. the whole to be conveyed to one of the ports of the French republic in the Mediterranean, to be determined by the general in chief of the French army.

Anſwer.—The French forces, (the auxiliary troops and all the individuals deſcribed in the 4th article) ſhall be embarked in the ports of Alexandria, (unleſs, after an amicable convention, it ſhould be found more expeditious to embark a part of them at Aboukir,) as ſoon as veſſels can be prepared, the allied powers at the ſame time engaging that the embarkation ſhall take place, if poſſible, ten days after the capitulation ſhall be ſigned; they ſhall receive all the honours of war, ſhall carry away their arms and baggage, ſhall not be priſoners of war, and ſhall moreover take with them ten pieces of cannon from four to eight-pounders, with ten rounds of ſhot to each gun; they ſhall be conveyed to a French port in the Mediterranean.

Art. VI. The French ſhips of war, with their full complement, and all merchant ſhips, to whatever nation or individuals they may belong, even thoſe of nations at war with the allied powers, or thoſe that are the property of owners or merchants who were ſubject to the allied powers before the arrival of the French, ſhall depart with the French army, in order that thoſe that are ſhips of war may be reſtored to the French government, and the merchant ſhips to the owners, or to their aſſignees.

Anſwer.—Refuſed. All veſſels ſhall be delivered up as they are.

Art. VII. Every ſingle ſhip that, from the preſent day to the 30th Fructidor, ſhall arrive from the French republic, or any of her allies, into the ports or roads of Alexandria, ſhall be comprehended in this capitulation. Every ſhip of war or commerce, belonging to France, or the allies of the republic, that ſhall arrive in the ports or road of Alexandria, within the twenty days immediately following the evacuation of that place, ſhall not be conſidered a lawful prize, but ſhall be ſet at liberty, with her equipage and cargo, and be furniſhed with a paſſport from the allied Powers.

Anſwer.—Refuſed.

Art. VIII. The French and auxiliary troops, the civil and military agents attached to the army, and all other individuals deſcribed

in

in the preceding articles, ſhall be embarked on board ſuch French and other veſſels, actually in the ports of Alexandria, as ſhall be in a condition to go to ſea; or on board thoſe of his Britannic Majeſty and of the Sublime Porte, within the time fixed by the fifth article.

Art. IX. Commiſſaries ſhall be named by each party to regulate the number of veſſels to be employed, the number of men to be embarked upon them, and generally to provide for all the difficulties that may ariſe in carrying into execution the preſent capitulation.

Thoſe commiſſaries ſhall agree upon the different poſitions which ſhall be taken by the ſhips now in the port of Alexandria, and thoſe which ſhall be furniſhed by the allied powers, ſo that by a well regulated arrangement, every occaſion of difference between the crews of the ſeveral nations may be avoided.

Anſwer.—All theſe details will be regulated by the Engliſh admiral, and by an officer of the French navy named by the general in chief.

Art. X. Merchants and owners of ſhips, of whatever nation or religion they may be, and alſo the inhabitants of Egypt, and of every other country, who may at the preſent time be in Alexandria, whether Syrians, Copths, Greeks, Arabs, Jews, &c. and who ſhall be deſirous of following the French army, ſhall be embarked with and enjoy the ſame advantages with that army; they ſhall be at liberty to remove their property of all kinds, and to leave powers for the diſpoſal of what they may not be able to take away. All arrangements, all ſales, all ſtipulations, whether of commerce, or of any other nature made by them, ſhall be ſtrictly carried into effect after their departure, and be maintained by the generals of his Britannic Majeſty and of the Sublime Porte. Thoſe who may prefer remaining in Egypt a certain time on account of their private affairs ſhall be at liberty ſo to do, and ſhall have full protection from the allied powers; thoſe alſo who may be deſirous of eſtabliſhing themſelves in Egypt ſhall be entitled to all the privileges and rights of which they were in poſſeſſion before the arrival of the French.

Anſwer.—Every article of merchandize whether in the town of Alexandria, or on board the veſſels that are in the ports, ſhall be proviſionally at the diſpoſition of the allied powers, but ſubject to ſuch definitive regulation as may be determined by eſtabliſhed uſage and the law of nations. Private merchants ſhall be at liberty to accompany the French army, or they may remain in the country in ſecurity.

Art. XI. None of the inhabitants of Egypt, or of any other nation or religion, ſhall be called to account for their conduct during the period of the French troops having been in the country, particularly for having taken arms in their favour, or having been employed by them.

Anſwer.—Granted.

Art. XII. The troops, and all others who may be embarked with them, ſhall be fed during their paſſage, and until their arrival at France, at the expence of the allied powers, and conformably to the rules of the French navy. The

allied powers ſhall ſupply every thing that may be neceſſary for the embarkation.

Anſwer.—The troops and all others who may be embarked with them, ſhall be fed during their paſſage, and until their arrival in France, at the expence of the allied powers, according to the uſage eſtabliſhed in the marine of England.

Art. XIII. The conſuls, and all other public agents of the ſeveral powers in alliance with the French republic, ſhall continue in the enjoyment of all the privileges and rights which are granted by civilized nations to diplomatic agents. Their property, all their effects and papers ſhall be reſpected and placed under the protection of the allied powers. They ſhall be at liberty to retire or to remain as they may think fit.

Anſwer.—The conſuls, and all other public agents of the powers in alliance with the French republic, ſhall be at liberty to remain or to retire as they may judge fit. Their property and effects of any kind, together with their papers, ſhall be preſerved for them, provided they conduct themſelves with loyalty, and conformably to the law of nations.

Art. XIV. The ſick who may be judged by the medical ſtaff of the army to be in a ſtate for removal ſhall be embarked at the ſame time with the army, upon hoſpital ſhips properly furniſhed with medicines, proviſions, and every other ſtore that may be neceſſary for their ſituation; and they ſhall be attended by French ſurgeons. Thoſe of the ſick who may be in a condition to undertake the voyage ſhall be delivered over to the care and humanity of the allied powers. French phyſicians and other medical aſſiſtance ſhall be left for their care, to be maintained at the expence of the allied powers, who ſhall ſend them to France as ſoon as their ſtate of health may permit, together with any thing belonging to them, in the ſame manner as has been propoſed for the reſt of the army.

Anſwer.—Granted. The ſhips deſtined for hoſpitals ſhall be prepared for the reception of thoſe who may fall ſick during the paſſage. The medical ſtaff of the two armies ſhall concert together in what manner to diſpoſe of thoſe of the ſick who, having contagious diſorders, ought not to have communication with the others.

Art. XV. Horſe tranſports for conveying ſixty horſes, with every thing neceſſary for their ſubſiſtence during the paſſage, ſhall be furniſhed.

Anſwer.—Granted.

Art. XVI. The individuals compoſing the inſtitute of Egypt and the commiſſion of arts, ſhall carry with them all the papers, plans, memoirs, collections of natural hiſtory, and all the monuments of art and antiquity collected by them in Egypt.

Anſwer.—The members of the inſtitute may carry with them all the inſtruments of arts and ſcience which they have brought from France, but the Arabian manuſcripts, the ſtatues, and other collections which have been made for the French republic, ſhall be conſidered as public property, and ſubject to the diſpoſal of the generals of the combined army.

General Hope having declared, in conſequence of ſome obſervations

of the commander in chief of the French army, that he could make no alteration in this article, it has been agreed that a reference thereupon ſhould be made to the commander in chief of the combined army.

Art. XVII. The veſſels which ſhall be employed in conveying the French and auxiliary army, as well as the different perſons who ſhall accompany it, ſhall be eſcorted by ſhips of war belonging to the allied powers, who formally engage that they ſhall not, in any manner, be moleſted during their voyage; the ſafety of ſuch of theſe veſſels as may be ſeparated by ſtreſs of weather, or other accidents, ſhall be guaranteed by the generals of the allied forces: the veſſels conveying the French army ſhall not, under any pretence, touch at any other than the French coaſt, except in caſe of abſolute neceſſity.

Anſwer.—Granted. The commander in chief of the French army entering into a reciprocal engagement that none of theſe veſſels ſhall be moleſted during their ſtay in France, or on their return; he equally engaging that they ſhall be furniſhed with every thing which may be neceſſary, according to the conſtant practice of European powers.

Art. XVIII. At the time of giving up the camps and forts according to the terms of the third article, the priſoners in Egypt ſhall be reſpectively given up on both ſides.

Anſwer.—Granted.

Art. XIX. Commiſſaries ſhall be named to receive the artillery of the place and of the forts, ſtores, magazines, plans, and other articles that the French leave to the allied powers, and liſts and inventories ſhall be made out, ſigned by the commiſſaries of the different powers, according as the forts and magazines ſhall be given up to the allied powers.

Anſwer.—Granted. Provided that all the plans of the city and forts of Alexandria, as well as all maps of the country, ſhall be delivered up to the Engliſh commiſſary. The batteries, ciſterns, and other public buildings, ſhall alſo be given up in the condition in which they actually are.

Art. XX. A paſſport ſhall be granted to a French armed veſſel, in order to convey to Toulon, immediately after the camps and forts before mentioned ſhall be given up, officers charged by the commander in chief to carry to his government the preſent capitulation.

Anſwer.—Granted. But if it is a French veſſel, it ſhall not be armed.

Art. XXI. On giving up the camps and forts mentioned in the preceding articles, hoſtages ſhall be given on both ſides, in order to guarantee the execution of the preſent treaty. They ſhall be choſen from among the officers of rank in the reſpective armies: namely, four from the French army, two from the Britiſh troops, and two from the troops of the Sublime Porte. The four French hoſtages ſhall be embarked on board the Engliſh ſhip commanding the ſquadron, and the four Britiſh and Turkiſh hoſtages on board one of the veſſels which ſhall carry the commander in chief, or the lieutenant generals. They ſhall all be reciprocally delivered up on their arrival in France.

Anſwer.—There ſhall be placed

in the hands of the commander in chief of the French army four officers of rank as hoſtages, namely, one officer of the navy, one officer of the Britiſh army, and two officers of the Turkiſh army. The commander in chief ſhall, in like manner, place in the hands of the commander in chief of the Britiſh army four officers of rank. The hoſtages ſhall be reſtored on both ſides at the period of the embarkation.

Art. XXII. If any difficulties ſhould ariſe during the execution of the preſent capitulation, they ſhall be amicably ſettled by the commiſſaries of the armies.

Anſwer.—Granted.

(Signed) KEITH, Admiral.

(Signed) J. HELY HUTCHINSON, Lieutenant General, Commanding in Chief.

(Signed) HUSSEIN, Capitan Pacha.

(Signed) ABDOULLAHY JACQUES FRANCOIS MENOU, General in Chief of the French Army.

(A true Copy.)

JAMES KEMPT, Lieutenant-Col. and Secretary.

"*Camp, Weſt of Alexandria,*

"Sir, *Auguſt* 23.

"Captain Cochrane, with ſeven ſloops of war, having entered into the weſtern harbour of Alexandria on the evening of the 21ſt inſtant, and anchored on my left flank, I immediately determined to move forward, and take as advanced a poſition near the town of Alexandria as prudence and ſecurity would permit.

"The neceſſary arrangements having been made in the morning of the 22d, the troops advanced againſt the enemy, who was ſtrongly poſted upon a ridge of high hills, having his right flank ſecured by two heavy guns, and his left by two batteries containing three more, with many field pieces placed in the intervals of his line.

"The army moved through the ſand-hills in three columns, the guards forming two upon the right near the lake, and Major-General Ludlow's brigade the third upon the left, having the firſt battalion of the 27th regiment in advance; Major-Gen. Finch's brigade compoſed a reſerve, and was deſtined to give its ſupport wherever it might be required.

"In this manner, having our field artillery with the advanced guard, the troops continued to move forward with the greateſt coolneſs and regularity, under a very heavy fire of cannon and ſmall arms, forcing the enemy to retreat conſtantly before them, and driving them to their preſent poſition within the walls of Alexandria.

Major-Generals Ludlow, Earl of Cavan, and Finch, upon this, as upon all other occaſions, have given me all poſſible ſupport, and deſerve every commendation for the preciſion and regularity with which they led on their reſpective columns.

"The exertions of the captains commanding the ſhips of war upon our left, and of the officers commanding the gun-boats upon our right, were attended with the beſt effect; their continued and unremitting fire kept the enemy in check.

"To Captain Cochrane I feel extremely obliged, for his zeal and conſtant readineſs to afford every aſſiſtance in his power. Captain Stevenſon, who commanded

ed the gun-boats upon the lake, alſo calls for my earneſt approbation of his conduct.

" Permit me, Sir, to repeat to you the intrepid and gallant behaviour of the whole of the troops during the affair of yeſterday, which laſted from ſix until ten o'clock in the morning. Their bravery was only equalled by the cool and regular manner in which they advanced under a ſevere and heavy cannonade. Happy am I to add, that our loſs is only trifling, when compared to the advantages we have gained, and the difficulties we had to ſurmount, in a country, which, at every ſtep, afforded the enemy the means of making the moſt deſperate reſiſtance.

" The loſs of the enemy muſt have been conſiderably greater than ours. It is impoſſible for me to aſcertain the numbers. Seven pieces of heavy ordnance were left behind by the French in the hurry of their retreat, and have fallen into our hands.

" I feel much indebted to Lieutenant-Colonel Duncan, quarter-maſter-general, for his judicious arrangements, and for his conduct during the whole of yeſterday; he deſerves my ſincere thanks.

" Encloſed I have the honour to tranſmit a return of the killed and wounded, &c.

" I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) " EYRE COOTE, Major-General.

(A true Copy.)

JAMES KEMPT, Lieutenant Colonel and Secretary.

To Lieutenant-General the Hon. Sir John Hely Hutchinſon, &c. &c. &c.

" *Camp, Weſt of Alexandria,*
" Sir, *Auguſt* 23.

" I have the honour to encloſe the ſummons, as alſo the articles of capitulation of the fort of Marabout.

" The ſpeedy and fortunate reduction of that poſt, ſo important to our fleets, was, I am happy to ſay, effected without any loſs on our ſide, and calls upon me to lay before you the unremitting zeal and attention of Lieutenant-Col. Darby, who, with the 1ſt battalion of the 54th regiment, covered the attack; the very judicious manner in which he poſted the light company of that corps, who, by being placed on an adjoining rock, ſilenced the guns by their muſquetry, greatly accelerated the fall of the fort.

" I alſo feel myſelf indebted for the effectual exertions of Major Cookſon, of the royal artillery, and for the prompt arrangements of Captain Ford, the commanding engineer.

" I beg to tranſmit a return of the priſoners taken, as alſo the ordnance and ſtores found in the fort.

" I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) " EYRE COOTE, Major-General.

(A true Copy.)

JAMES KEMPT, Lieutenant-Colonel and Secretary.

SUMMONS OF THE FORT OF MARABOUT.

" *Camp, Auguſt* 21.

" Sir,

" As, after the event of this day, and the means employed againſt the fort which you command, there remain no hopes of your being able to defend it, or

even to retire into Alexandria, I ſummon you, in the name of humanity, to ſurrender on the terms which ſhall be granted to you; otherwiſe you will here be anſwerable for all the conſequences that may enſue, being determined to employ the whole of the Britiſh and Ottoman forces under my command to compel you to ſurrender.

"I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) "EYRE COOTE, Major-General."

To the Officer commanding Fort Marabout.

ANSWER.

"*Fort Marabout, 3d Fructidor,*
"Sir, *Aug.* 9, 1801.

"I have the honour to lay before you the terms of capitulation which the garriſon of Marabout require; and from the generoſity which characteriſes your nation, I promiſe myſelf that you will agree to them.

"I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) "ETIENNE."

(A true Copy.)

JAMES KEMPT, Lieutenant-Colonel and Secretary.

CAPITULATION OF THE FORT OF MARABOUT.

Art. I. The garriſon demand to march out with the honours of war.

Anſwer.—The garriſon ſhall march out with the honours of war, and after having grounded their arms on the glacis, ſhall be priſoners of war.

Art. II. They ſhall preſerve their baggage.

Anſwer.—Granted.

Art. III. The officers ſhall have their ſwords and ſabres.

Anſwer.—Granted.

Art. IV. The garriſon ſhall be conveyed into France, and treated during the voyage, each agreeably to his rank, conformably to the maritime laws of England.

Anſwer.—Anſwered by the firſt article: the garriſon ſhall be conveyed to France, but ſhall not ſerve till they are exchanged.

Art. V. Such individuals as may have effects at Alexandria, ſhall have full permiſſion to bring them away.

Anſwer.—Anſwered, with the reſtrictions that ſhall be made by the officers commanding the land and ſea forces of England.

Art. VI. An officer ſhall be ſent from the garriſon to the general in chief to communicate to him the preſent capitulation.

Anſwer.—A French officer ſhall be ſent to Alexandria by ſea. A detachment of Britiſh forces ſhall take poſſeſſion of the fort of Marabout, immediately after the ratification of the preſent capitulation. The garriſon ſhall march out to-morrow morning, and after having depoſited their arms on the glacis, ſhall be embarked on Engliſh veſſels.

Done at Fort Marabout, the 3d Fructidor, the 9th year of the French Republic.

(Signed) ETIENNE, the Chief of Battalion.

Ratified, conformably to the powers delegated to me by Major-General Coote, and Capt. Cochrane, of the Royal Navy.

(Signed) CHRIS. DARBY, Lieut. Col. 54th regiment.

(A true Copy.)

JAMES KEMPT, Lieutenant Colonel and Secretary.

"*Camp,*

" *Camp, West of Alexandria,*
" Sir, *Aug.* 26, 1801.

" Being anxious to push my piquets upon the left as far as possible towards the enemy's advanced work, the Redoubt de Bain, I directed Lieutenant-Colonel Smith, with the 1st battalion of the 20th regiment, assisted with a small detachment of the 26th light dragoons, commanded by Lieutenant Kelly, to attack and drive in the French outposts upon the right of their position. He was to be supported by a battalion of infantry, disposed for that purpose on the sand hills.

" Soon after dark last night, Lieutenant-Colonel Smith commenced the attack, by turning the left of the enemy's piquets, and scouring the hills as he advanced.

" The cool and spirited conduct of that officer, and the corps under his command, as also the detachment of the 26th dragoons, is well deserving of praise; not a man attempted to load, and the whole was effected by the bayonet. The loss of the enemy in this affair amounted to upwards of one hundred men, killed, wounded, and taken; of the latter I enclose the return.

" This service was performed on our side with the loss of only three men slightly wounded; and has placed me in a situation to erect a battery within about 600 yards of Redoubt de Bain.

" The enemy, however, extremely exasperated at our success, made several attempts to regain the ground he had lost; with this view he kept up a very heavy fire of cannon and musquetry for about an hour; when, finding all his endeavours ineffectual, he retired, leaving us peaceful possessors of the advantage we had gained in the early part of the night.

" Enclosed is a return of our loss in the latter part of the affair.

" I have the honour to be, &c.
(Signed) " EYRE COOTE, Major-General.

(A true Copy.)
JAMES KEMPT, Lieutenant-Colonel and Secretary.

To Lieut. Gen. the Hon. Sir J. Hely Hutchinson, &c.

Return of the killed, wounded, and missing of the army under the command of Lieutenant-General Sir John Hely Hutchinson, K. B. at the siege of Alexandria. Camp, August 29, 1801.

General total.—13 rank and file, 3 horses, killed; 6 officers, 4 serjeants, 1 drummer, 113 rank and file, wounded.

London Gazette, *Nov.* 17.

Letter from General Hutchinson to Lord Hobart.

" *Head Quarters, Camp before Alexandria, August* 19.

" My Lord,

" The last division of the French troops who surrendered at Cairo, sailed from the bay of Aboukir a few days ago. There have been embarked in all near thirteen thousand five hundred persons. The garrison of Cairo consisted of about eight thousand troops of all descriptions, fit for duty, not including one thousand sick, and a considerable number of invalids. The total amounts to near ten thousand soldiers, amongst whom there was a very small proportion of Greeks and Copts, not more than four or five hundred men: the remainder were all French. The other persons embarked were followers of the

the army, and attached to it in various civil capacities.

Major-Gen. Craddock having been confined at Cairo by illneſs, I entruſted the command of the troops to Major-General Moore, who, during a long march of a very novel and critical nature, diſplayed much judgment, and conducted himſelf in the moſt able and judicious manner. Notwithſtanding the mixture of Turks, Britiſh, and French, the utmoſt regularity was preſerved, and no one diſagreeable circumſtance ever took place. My preſence at Cairo was rendered indiſpenſably neceſſary, by ſome arrangements which I was obliged to make with his highneſs the Grand Vizier.

"Major-General Baird, after having ſtruggled through many difficulties in paſſing the deſert, and from want of boats to deſcend the Nile, has at length arrived at Cairo with the greateſt part of the troops under his command, and I imagine he will reach Roſetta in the courſe of a few days: he has been directed to detach a certain number of troops to Damietta, and to leave a garriſon at Gaza.

"We two days ago commenced our operations againſt Alexandria; as yet no event of any conſequence has taken place; we have loſt a few men, and taken a few priſoners.

"Major-General Coote has been detached with a conſiderable corps to the weſtward, in order to inveſt the town completely on that ſide, and to cut off the communication of the enemy with the Arabs, who have been in the habit of ſupplying them with ſmall quantities of cattle and other kinds of freſh proviſions. General Coote's firſt operations will be directed againſt Marabout, a caſtle on an iſland at the entrance of the old harbour of Alexandria.

"I cannot conclude this letter without ſtating to your lordſhip the many obligations I have to Lord Keith and the navy, for the great exertions they have uſed in forwarding to us the neceſſary ſupplies, and from the fatigue they have undergone in the late embarkation of a conſiderable number of troops and ſtores, who were embarked on the new lake, and proceeded to the weſtward, under the orders of Major-Gen. Coote.

"The utmoſt diſpatch has alſo been uſed in ſending the French troops, lately captured, to France; which, in our preſent poſition, was a ſervice of the moſt eſſential conſequence.

"I have the honour to be, &c.
(Signed) "J. H. HUTCHINSON,
Lieutenant-General.

Extract of a letter from Lieutenant-General the Hon. Sir John Hely Hutchinſon, K. B. to the Right Hon. Lord Hobart.

"*Head Quarters, Camp before Alexandria, Aug.* 19.

"I was honoured with your lordſhip's diſpatches of the 19th May, at Cairo, where I remained to ſettle ſome eſſential buſineſs with his highneſs the Grand Vizier, on the ſubject of the Mamelukes; I have put their affairs in a train of negociation, and hope to bring them to a fortunate iſſue.

"The ſiege of Alexandria will probably be attended with many difficulties; the works towards the eaſt ſide, where we are encamped, are prodigiouſly ſtrong, and can hardly be approached on account of the

the narrowneſs of the ſpace between the lake and the ſea, and the nature of the ground; towards the weſt the works are not ſo ſtrong, but however the difficulties in approaching them are alſo numerous; the corps there is completely in the deſert, the communication with us (by whom they muſt be ſupplied with every thing) is tedious, and the boats employed have a moſt ſevere duty to perform; General Coote has, however, been ſo fortunate as to find water; on the whole, I cannot flatter myſelf that Alexandria will be in our poſſeſſion in a ſhort time, unleſs ſome event takes place, of which we are not at preſent aware.

"The reinforcements from England, Minorca, and Malta are all arrived, except the 48th regiment from the latter place; they are very fine troops, and in a perfect ſtate of health, order, and diſcipline."

Copy of a letter from the Right Hon. Lord Keith, Admiral of the Blue, &c. to Evan Nepean, Eſq.

"*Foudroyant, Bay of Aboukir,*

"Sir, *Sept.* 2, 1801.

"I have the honour and ſatisfaction of acquainting you, for the information of the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty, that the important object of this expedition is fully accompliſhed; a capitulation (of which a copy is incloſed) has been this day ſigned, providing for the delivery to the allies, tomorrow, of the enemy's entrenched camp on the eaſtern ſide of Alexandria, and the fort Triangulaire, and the other important poſts on the weſtern ſide; and for that of the town itſelf, the public effects, and the ſhipping in the harbour, at the expiration of ten days, or ſooner, if the enemy's troops can be ſooner embarked. As ſoon as I can obtain returns of the ſhips and effects, they ſhall be tranſmitted to you. The merchant veſſels are very numerous, and one old Venetian ſhip of the line, with the French frigates Egyptienne, Juſtice, and Régénerée, and ſome corvettes, are known to be in the port.

"Their lordſhips will not fail to have obſerved from my former details, the meritorious conduct of the officers and men who have been from time to time employed on the various duties which the debarkation of the army and a co-operation with them has required. Though opportunities for brilliant exertion have been few ſince the 8th of March, the deſire for participating in it has been unremitted. But the nature of this expedition has demanded from moſt of the officers and ſeamen of the fleet, and particularly from thoſe of the troop-ſhips, bomb-veſſels, and tranſports, the endurance of labour, fatigue, and privation far beyond what I have witneſſed before, and which I verily believe to have exceeded all former example, and it has been encountered and ſurmounted with a degree of reſolution and perſeverance which merits my higheſt praiſe, and gives both officers and men a juſt claim to the protection of their lordſhips, and the approbation of their country. The number of officers to whom I owe this tribute of approbation, does not admit of my mentioning them by name, but moſt of the captains of the troop-ſhips have been employed in the ſuperintendance of theſe duties, and I have had repeated and urgent offers

offers of voluntary service from all. The agents for transports have conducted themselves with laudable diligence and activity in the service of the several departments to which they were attached, and displayed the greatest exertion and ability in overcoming the numerous difficulties with which they had to contend.

"The captains and commanders of the ships appointed for guarding the port, have executed that tedious and anxious duty with diligence and success; during my absence from the squadron the blockade had been conducted much to my satisfaction by Rear-Admiral Sir R. Bickerton; and justice requires me to mention, that when I was with the squadron Captain Wilson, of the Trusty, was unwearied in his attention to the direction of all the duties in this bay.

"The Capitan Pacha has uniformly manifested the most anxious desire of contributing, by every means in his power, to the promotion of the service. Having been generally on shore with his troops, the ships have been submitted, by his orders, to my direction, and the officers have paid the most respectful attention to the instructions they have received from me.

"Captain Sir Sidney Smith, who has served with such distinguished reputation in this country, having applied to be the bearer of the dispatches announcing the expulsion of the enemy, I have complied with his request; and I beg to refer their lordships to that active and intelligent officer for any particular information relative to this or other parts of this country, on which he has had opportunities of making remarks.

"I have the honour to be, &c.
(Signed) "KEITH."

Copy of another letter from the Right Hon. Lord Keith, Admiral of the Blue, &c. to Evan Nepean, Esq.

"*Foudroyant, Bay of Aboukir,*
"Sir, *Sept.* 10.

"You will be pleased to acquaint their lordships that the Capitan Pacha and I have agreed on the enclosed distribution of the vessels of war found in the enemy's possession in Alexandria, of which I trust their lordships will approve.

"I have, &c.
"KEITH."

His highness the Capitan Pacha and Lord Keith have agreed to receive the enemy's ships as under, viz.

CAPITAN PACHA.		LORD KEITH.	
Cause	64	L'Egyptienne	50
Justice	46	Régénerée	32
No. 1, Venetian	26	No. 2, Venetian	26

The Turkish corvettes to be given to the Capitan Pacha; but to be previously valued.

KEITH.

London Gazette, *Nov.* 17.

Letter from the Right Hon. Lord Keith, K. B. Admiral of the Blue, &c. to Evan Nepean, Esq.

"*Foudroyant, off Alexandria,*
"Sir, *August* 27.

"My letter of the 5th instant acquainted you, for the information of their lordships, that the embarkation of General Belliard's corps was carrying into execution with all possible dispatch; but, on account of the difficulty of getting forward the immense quantity of baggage

baggage that they brought with them from Cairo, the operation was protracted till the 8th. The ships of war, as well as the transports, however, were directed to proceed by divisions. The Braakel, with the first division, sailed on the 4th; the Inflexible, Dolphin, and Ulysses, with the second, on the 6th; and the Experiment and Pallas, with the last, on the 10th, carrying with them between thirteen and fourteen thousand individuals of all descriptions.

"The army from Cairo moved on forthwith to the camp before Alexandria; and the general, who did me the honour of spending some days with me while the embarkation of the French was going on, resolved on transporting by the Marcotis, to the westward of Alexandria, a corps of about 5000 men, under the orders of Major-General Coote, to divide the enemy's force and attention, to invest the town closely on that side, and cut off all farther hope of reinforcement or supplies by land. On the 12th, I proceeded with Lieutenant-Colonel Anstruther, the quarter-master-general, to examine the enemy's position on the side of the lake, and the strength of the flotilla that they had assembled there; and having ascertained that their armed force could be easily subdued, and that a debarkation could be effected with little or no difficulty, the general determined to carry the measure into immediate effect. To secure the landing from interruption, Captain Stevenson, of the Europa, who is continued in the command of the flotilla, was forthwith directed to take a station in front of the gun-boats and armed boats which the enemy had assembled on the lake, and drawn up in a line, under the batteries of protection thrown up for their defence, to keep them in check till they could be seized or destroyed. On the evening of the 16th, all the boats of the ships of war and transports in this bay were assembled in the Mareotis, with as many germs as could be collected from the Nile, for the purpose of receiving the troops, who were embarked in the night, and landed without opposition the next morning, under the superintendance of Captain Elphinstone, considerably further to the westward than was intended, the wind not admitting of the boats reaching the shore nearer to the town. The enemy seeing no prospect left of saving their armed boats, set fire to them, and blew them all up in the course of this and the following day, except two or three which have have fallen into our hands; whilst the landing was carrying into effect, Captain Sir William Sidney Smith, of the Tigre, was directed with some sloops of war and armed boats to make a demonstration of attack upon the town.

"On the night of the 17th, Major-General Coote was enabled to establish batteries against Marabout, a small fortified island that protects the entrance into the great harbour of Alexandria, on the western side, and distant from the town about seven or eight miles, which, for many reasons, it was important to possess. Rear-Admiral Sir Richard Bickerton, having the command of the squadron blockading the port, directed armed launches from the ships to co-operate with the troops, and the garrison, consisting of near 200 men, unequal

to farther reſiſtance, ſurrendered as priſoners of war on the evening of the 21ſt; Mr. Hull, midſhipman, and one ſeaman, of the Ajax, were killed on this ſervice, and two ſeamen of the Northumberland wounded.

"On the afternoon of the ſame day, the rear-admiral ordered the Cynthia, Port Mahon, Victorieuſe, and Bon Citoyenne, with three Turkiſh corvettes, to proceed into the harbour under the direction of the Hon. Capt. Cochrane of the Ajax, (a channel having been previouſly ſurveyed with great induſtry and preciſion by Lieutenant Withers of the Kent); and on the morning of the 22d, Major General Coote's detachment moved forward four or five miles on the narrow iſthmus leading to the town, formed by the Mareotis or inundation on the ſouth ſide, and the harbour on the north; Capt. Stevenſon, with the gun veſſels on the lake covering the right flank, and Capt. Cochrane, with the ſloops of war and armed boats, protecting their left. The poſition which the Major General took up, and that occupied by our little ſquadron, which has been ſince reinforced by the Diana, completed the blockade of the town. The rear-admiral gives great commendation to the Hon. Capt. Cochrane, for the zealous and judicious manner in which he executed the ſervice entruſted to him. Soon after our ſhips entered the harbour, the enemy ſunk ſeveral veſſels, between our advanced ſhips and their veſſels in the port, to obſtruct our further progreſs to the eaſtward, and moved their frigates and corvettes from Fig Tree Point cloſe up to the town.

General Menou finding himſelf cloſely preſſed on the eaſtward of the town by the commander in chief, who had carried ſome of the enemy's important redoubts, and eſtabliſhed ſtrong batteries againſt their intrenched lines, and on the weſtern ſide by Major General Coote, who had, during the preceding night, driven in ſeveral of their out-poſts, and advanced cloſe up to an important poſition which the enemy ſeemed conſcious of being unable to defend; ſent out, on the evening of the 26th, propoſals for an armiſtice of three days to arrange terms of capitulation, which I have no doubt will ſoon terminate in the ſurrender of the town.—I have the honour to be, Sir, &c. KEITH.

London Gazette, *June* 2.

Letter from Lieutenant General Trigge to Mr. Dundas, received by Lord Hobart.

"*Martinique, April* 27, 1801.

"Sir,

"I loſe not a moment in having the honour to communicate the information, which has been juſt now received, of the iſlands of St. Euſtatius and Saba having ſurrendered on the 21ſt inſtant to a detachment of the 3d regiment of foot, under the command of Lieutenant Colonel Blunt and Captain Perkins, of his Majeſty's ſhip Arab. The incloſed extract of a letter from Mr. Preſident Thompſon, commanding at St. Chriſtopher's, ordering Lieutenant Colonel Blunt to proceed on that ſervice, and of Lieutenant Colonel Blunt's official letter, acquainting me with the reſult, will explain to your ſatisfaction all ſuch circumſtances

ſtances as you may wiſh to be informed of. I have only to add, that the officers charged with the conducting of the ſervice have acquitted themſelves with ſuch judgment and promptitude as to merit and receive my entire approbation. I have the honour to incloſe to you herewith a copy of the terms on which theſe iſlands were ſurrendered, and have been placed under his Majeſty's government; but am unable to tranſmit by this opportunity the return of ordnance, as there is not ſufficient time at preſent to have it made out correctly.

"THO. TRIGGE, Lieutenant General."

Extract of a letter from Lieutenant Colonel Blunt, of the 3d regiment of foot, to Lieutenant General Trigge, dated St. Euſtatius, April 22.

"I have the honour to incloſe an order addreſſed to me by the preſident of St. Kitt's, in conſequence of which I embarked on board his Majeſty's ſhip Arab, Captain Perkins, and an armed ſchooner, his prize, 100 men of the Buffs, with Lieutenant Brown, and ten men of the royal artillery. We ſummoned the iſland of St. Euſtatius on the morning of the 21ſt, which ſurrendered by capitulation; the terms of which accompany this, and I hope will not be diſapproved by your excellency. They had no proviſions in the garriſon, and very little in poſſeſſion of the inhabitants. From the extent of the batteries it will not be in my power to forward, by this opportunity, Lieutenant Brown's report of the ordnance.

"I am, &c.

"RICH. BLUNT, Lieutenant Colonel Buffs."

Extract of a letter from the Preſident of St. Kitt's to Lieutenant Colonel Blunt, of the 3d regiment of foot, dated Baſſeterre, April 20.

"I have juſt received information that the iſland of St. Euſtatius was evacuated by the French on the 16th inſtant. Under theſe circumſtances, and conſidering that a favourable opportunity preſents itſelf to acquire the poſſeſſion of that iſland, and thereby give ſecurity to the iſlands in its neighbourhood, and recover a number of negroes who have eloped from hence, and which may be loſt by delay, you will therefore embark, with 100 men of the Buffs, on board of his Majeſty's ſhip Arab, Captain Perkins, and take poſſeſſion of the iſland of St. Euſtatius, which you will retain until his Excellency General Trigge's pleaſure thereupon be known.

"I am, &c.

"ROB. THOMPSON."

[Here follow the Articles of Capitulation, which are in the uſual forms. It is ſtipulated, that the perſons, properties, religion, and uſages, of the inhabitants ſhall be reſpected and protected till his Majeſty's farther pleaſure be known. The iſland is to enjoy the ſame privileges as the Britiſh colonies in the Weſt Indies; and commerce to be on the ſame footing as in the other conquered iſlands.]

London Gazette, *Auguſt* 1.

Letter from Rear Admiral Sir J. Saumarez, to E. Nepean, Eſq.

"*On board his Majeſty's ſhip Cæſar, at Gibraltar, July* 6, 1801.

"Sir,

"I have to requeſt you will be pleaſed to inform my Lords Commiſſioners

miſſioners of the Admiralty, that, conformably to my letter of yeſterday's date, I ſtood through the Streights, with his Majeſty's ſquadron under my orders, with the intention of attacking three French line of battle ſhips and a frigate, that I had received information of being at anchor off Algeziras. On opening Cabareta Point, I found the ſhips lay at conſiderable diſtance from the enemy's batteries, and, having a leading wind up to them, afforded every reaſonable hope of ſucceſs in the attack. I had previouſly directed Captain Hood, in the Venerable, from his experience and knowledge of the anchorage, to lead the ſquadron; which he executed with his accuſtomed gallantry; and, although it was not intended he ſhould anchor, he found himſelf under the neceſſity ſo to do, from the wind's failing (a circumſtance ſo much to be apprehended in this country), and to which circumſtance I have to regret the want of ſucceſs in this well-intended enterprize. Captain Stirling anchored oppoſite to the inner ſhip of the enemy, and brought the Pompee to action in the moſt ſpirited and gallant manner; which was alſo followed by the commanders of every ſhip in the ſquadron. Captains Darby and Ferris, owing to light winds, were prevented for a conſiderable time from coming into action: at length, the Hannibal getting a breeze, Captain Ferris had the moſt favourable proſpect of being alongſide one of the enemy's ſhips, when the Hannibal unfortunately took the ground; and, I am extremely concerned to acquaint their lordſhips, that, after having made every poſſible effort with this ſhip and the Audacious, to cover her from the enemy, I was under the neceſſity to make ſail, being at the time only three cables length from one of the enemy's batteries. My thanks are particularly due to all the captains, officers, and men under my orders; and, although their endeavours have not been crowned with ſucceſs, I truſt, the thouſands of ſpectators from his Majeſty's garriſon, and alſo the ſurrounding coaſt, will do juſtice to their valour and intrepidity; which was not to be checked by the fire from the numerous batteries, however formidable, that ſurround Algeziras. I feel it incumbent upon me to ſtate to their lordſhips the great merits of Captain Brenton, of the Cæſar, whoſe cool jndgment and intrepid conduct, I will venture to pronounce, were never ſurpaſſed. I alſo beg leave to recommend to their lordſhips' notice my flag lieutenant, Mr. Philip Dumareſq, who has ſerved with me from the commencement of this war, and is a moſt deſerving officer. Mr. Lamborne, and the other lieutenants, are alſo entitled to great praiſe; as well as Captain Maxwell, of the Marines, and the officers of his corps ſerving on board the Cæſar. The enemy's ſhips conſiſted of two of 84 guns, and one of 74, with a large frigate: two of the former are aground, and the whole are rendered totally unſerviceable. I cannot cloſe this letter without rendering the moſt ample juſtice to the great bravery of Captain Ferris: the loſs in his ſhip muſt have been very conſiderable both in officers and men; but I have the ſatiſfaction

faction to be informed, that his Majeſty has not loſt ſo valuable an officer.

" I am, &c.
" JAMES SAUMAREZ."

The Hon. Captain Dundas, of his Majeſty's polacre the Calpe, made his veſſel as uſeful as poſſible, and kept up a ſpirited fire on one of the enemy's batteries. I have alſo to expreſs my approbation of Lieutenant Janvern, commander of the gun-boats; who, having joined me with intelligence, ſerved as volunteer on board the Cæſar.

[Follows a liſt of the killed, wounded, and miſſing, amounting to 375.]

Letter from Rear Admiral Sir J. Saumarez, dated on board his Majeſty's ſhip Cæſar, Gibraltar Mole, July 10, to E. Nepean, Eſq.

" Sir,

" I herewith incloſe the copy of a letter from Captain Ferris, of his Majeſty's late ſhip Hannibal, which I requeſt you will pleaſe to lay before their lordſhips; and I have only to expreſs my deep regret that his well-meant endeavours to bring his ſhip to cloſe action ſhould have occaſioned ſo ſevere a loſs.

" J. SAUMAREZ."

" Sir, *Algeziras, July 7.*

" I have little more to tell you of the fate of his Majeſty's ſhip Hannibal than yourſelf muſt have obſerved; only, that, from the number of batteries and ſhips, gun-boats, &c. we had to encounter, our guns ſoon got knocked up; and I found it was impoſſible to do any thing, either for the preſervation of the ſhip, or for the good of the ſervice, our boats, ſails, rigging, and ſprings, being all ſhot away; and, having ſo many killed and wounded, which will appear by the annexed liſt, I thought it prudent to ſtrike, and thereby preſerve the lives of the brave men that remained. Had I been ſucceſsful in the view before me, previous to the ſhip taking the ground, my praiſes of the conduct of my officers and ſhip's company could not have exceeded their merits; but I have, notwithſtanding, the ſatisfaction to ſay, that every order was obſerved, and carried into execution, with that promptitude and alacrity becoming Britiſh officers and ſeamen.

" I am, &c. S. FERRIS."

Rear Adm. Sir J. Saumarez, &c.

London Gazette Extraordinary, *Auguſt 3.*

Letter from Sir James Saumarez, Bart.

" *Cæſar, off Cape Trafalgar, July 13.*

" Sir,

" It has pleaſed the Almighty to crown the exertions of this ſquadron with the moſt deciſive ſucceſs over the enemies of their country. The three French line of battle ſhips, diſabled in the action of the 6th inſt. off Algeziras, were on the 8th reinforced by a ſquadron of five Spaniſh line of battle ſhips, under the command of Don Juan Joaquin De Moreno, and a French ſhip of 74 guns, wearing a broad pendant, beſides three frigates, and an incredible number of gun-boats and other veſſels, and got under ſail yeſterday morning, together with his Majeſty's late ſhip Hannibal, which they had ſucceeded in getting off the ſhoal on

which ſhe ſtruck. I almoſt deſpaired of having a ſufficient force in readineſs to oppoſe to ſuch numbers; but, through the great exertions of Captain Brenton, and the officers and men belonging to the Cæſar, the ſhip was in readineſs to warp out of the Mole yeſterday morning, and got under weigh immediately after with all the ſquadron, except the Pompée, which ſhip had not had time to get in her maſts. Confiding in the zeal and intrepidity of the officers and men I had the happineſs to ſerve with, I determined, if poſſible, to obſtruct the paſſage of this very powerful force to Cadiz. Late in the evening I obſerved the enemy's ſhips to have cleared Cabareta Point, and at eight I bore up with the ſquadron to ſtand after them. His Majeſty's ſhip Superb being ſtationed a-head of the Cæſar, I directed Captain Keats to make ſail and attack the ſternmoſt ſhips in the enemy's rear, uſing his endeavours to keep in ſhore of them. At eleven the Superb opened her fire cloſe to the enemy's ſhips; and on the Cæſar's coming up, and preparing to engage a three-decker that had hauled her wind, ſhe was perceived to have taken fire; and the flames having communicated to a ſhip to leeward of her, both were ſoon in a blaze, and preſented a moſt awful ſight. No poſſibility exiſting of offering the leaſt aſſiſtance in ſo diſtreſſing a ſituation, the Cæſar paſſed to cloſe with the ſhip engaged by the Superb; but by the cool and determined fire kept upon her, which muſt ever reflect the higheſt credit on that ſhip, the enemy's ſhip was completely ſilenced, and ſoon after hauled down her colours. The Venerable and Spencer having at this time come up, I bore up after the enemy, who were carrying a preſs of ſail, ſtanding out of the Streights, and loſt ſight of them during the night. It blew exceſſively hard till day-light, and in the morning the only ſhips in company were the Venerable and Thames a-head of the Cæſar, and one of the French ſhips at ſome diſtance from them, ſtanding towards the ſhoals of Conil, beſides the Spencer a-ſtern coming up. All the ſhips immediately made ſail with a freſh breeze; but as we approached, the wind ſuddenly failing, the Venerable was alone able to bring her to action, which Capt. Hood did in the moſt gallant manner, and had nearly ſilenced the French ſhip, when his main-maſt (which had been before wounded) was unfortunately ſhot away; and it coming nearly calm, the enemy's ſhip was enabled to get off without any poſſibility of following her. The higheſt praiſe is due to Capt. Hood, and the officers and men of the Venerable, for their ſpirit and gallantry in the action, which entitled them to better ſucceſs. The French ſhip was an 84, with additional guns on the gunwale. This action was ſo near the ſhore, that the Venerable ſtruck on one of the ſhoals, but was ſoon after got off, and taken in tow by the Thames, but with the loſs of all her maſts. The enemy's ſhips are now in ſight to the weſtward, ſtanding in for Cadiz. The Superb and Audacious, with the captured ſhip, are alſo in ſight, with the Carlotta Portugueſe frigate, commanded by Capt. Crawfurd Duncan, who very handſomely came out with the ſquadron, and has been of the greateſt aſſiſtance to Capt. Keats, in

in ſtaying by the enemy's ſhip captured by the Superb. I am proceeding with the ſquadron for Roſier Bay, and ſhall proceed, the moment the ſhips are refitted, to reſume my ſtation. No praiſes that I can beſtow are adequate to the merits of the officers and ſhips companies of all the ſquadron, particularly for their unremitted exertions in refitting the ſhips at Gibraltar, to which, in a great degree, is to be aſcribed the ſucceſs of the ſquadron againſt the enemy. Although the Spencer and Audacious had not the good fortune to partake of this action, I have no doubt of their exertion, had they come up in time to cloſe with the enemy's ſhips. My thanks are alſo due to Capt. Holles of the Thames, and to the Hon. Capt. Dundas of the Calpe, whoſe aſſiſtance was particularly uſeful to Capt. Keats in ſecuring the enemy's ſhip, and enabling the Superb to ſtand after the ſquadron, in caſe of having been enabled to renew the action.

" I herewith encloſe the names of the enemy's ſhips.

" J. SAUMAREZ."

Evan Nepean, Eſq.

Liſt of the Spaniſh ſquadron that arrived at Cadiz from Ferrol, on the 25th of April, under the command of Don Joaquin De Moreno (Lieutenant General), as Vice Admiral, and proceeded to Algeziras Bay, the 9th of July.

Real Carlos, of 112 guns, Capt. Don J. Eſquerre. San Hermenegildo, of 112 guns, Capt. Don J. Empiran. San Fernando, of 94 guns, Capt. Don J. Malms. Argonaut, of 80 guns, Capt. Don J. Harrera. San Auguſtin, of 74 guns, Capt. Don R. Jopeze. San Antonio, of 74 guns, under French colours, taken by the Superb. Wanton, French lugger, of 12 guns. The admiral's ſhip, the Real Carlos, and the San Hermenegildo, were the two ſhips that took fire and blew up. J. SAUMAREZ.

" *Cæſar, off Trafalgar, July* 14.

" Sir,

" I herewith encloſe, for their lordſhips' further information, the ſtatement I have received from Capt. Keats, to whom the greateſt praiſe is due for his gallant conduct on the ſervice alluded to. Capt. Hood's merits are held in too high eſtimation to receive additional luſtre from any praiſes I can beſtow; but I only do juſtice to my own feelings when I obſerve, that in no inſtance have I known ſuperior bravery to that diſplayed by him on this occaſion.

" J. SAUMAREZ."

Evan Nepean, Eſq.

" *Superb, off Cape Trafalgar, July* 13.

" Sir,

" Purſuant to your directions to ſtate the particulars of the Superb's ſervices laſt night, I have the honour to inform you, that in conſequence of your directions to make ſail up to and engage the ſternmoſt of the enemy's ſhips, at half paſt eleven I found myſelf abreaſt of a Spaniſh three-decked ſhip (the Real Carlos, as appears by report of ſome ſurvivors), which having brought in one with two other ſhips nearly line abreaſt, I opened my fire upon at not more than three cables' length; this evidently produced a good effect, as well in this ſhip as the others abreaſt of her, which ſoon began firing on each

other, and at times on the Superb. In about a quarter of an hour, I perceived the ſhip I was engaging, and which had loſt her fore-top-maſt, to be on fire, upon which we inſtantly ceaſed to moleſt her, and I proceeded on to the ſhip next at hand, which proved to be the San Antonio, of 74 guns, and 730 men, commanded by the Chef de Diviſion Le Rey, under French colours, wearing a broad pendant, and manned nearly equally with French and Spaniſh ſeamen, and which, after ſome action (the Chef being wounded) ſtruck her colours. I learn from the very few ſurvivors of the ſhips that caught fire and blew up, (which, in an open boat, reached the Superb at the time ſhe was taking poſſeſſion of the San Antonio,) that in the confuſion of the action the Hermenegildo, (a firſt rate alſo,) miſtaking the Real Carlos for an enemy, ran on board her, and ſhared her melancholy fate. Services of this nature cannot well be expected to be performed without ſome loſs, but though we have to lament that Lieutenant E. Waller and fourteen ſeamen and marines have been wounded, moſt of them ſeverely, ſtill there is reaſon to rejoice that it is the extent of our loſs. I received able and active aſſiſtance from Mr. Samuel Jackſon, the firſt lieutenant, and it is my duty to repreſent to you, that the officers of all deſcriptions, ſeamen, and marines, conducted themſelves with the greateſt ſteadineſs and gallantry.

"R. G. KEATS."

Sir James Saumarez, Bart. &c.

London Gazette, *Auguſt* 9.

Letter from Viſcount Nelſon, K. B. &c. to E. Nepean, Eſq.

"*On board his Majeſty's ſhip Meduſa, off Boulogne, Aug.* 4.

"Sir,

"The enemy's veſſels, brigs, and flats, (lugger rigged), and a ſchooner, twenty-four in number, were this morning, at day-light, anchored in a line in front of the town of Boulogne; the wind being favourable for the bombs to act, I made the ſignal for them to weigh, and to throw ſhells at the veſſels, but as little as poſſible to annoy the town; the captains placed their ſhips in the beſt poſſible poſition, and in a few hours three of the flats and a brig were ſunk; and in the courſe of the morning ſix were on ſhore, evidently much damaged; at ſix in the evening, being high water, five of the veſſels which had been aground hauled with difficulty into the Mole, the others remained under water; I believe the whole of the veſſels would have gone inſide the pier but for want of water. What damage the enemy has ſuſtained, beyond what we ſee, is impoſſible to tell. The whole of this affair is of no further conſequence than to ſhew the enemy they cannot, with impunity, come outſide their ports. The officers of artillery threw the ſhells with great ſkill; and I am ſorry to ſay that Capt. Fyers, of the royal artillery, is ſlightly wounded in the thigh by the burſting of an enemy's ſhell, and two ſeamen are alſo wounded. A flat gun-veſſel is this moment ſunk.

"NELSON AND BRONTE."

London Gazette, *Auguſt* 18.

Letter from Viſcount Nelſon, K. B. &c. to E. Nepean, Eſq.

"*On*

" *On board his Majesty's ship Meduſa, off Boulogne, Aug.* 16, 1801.

" Sir,

" Having judged it proper to attempt bringing off the enemy's flotilla, moored in the front of Boulogne, I directed the attack to be made by four diviſions of boats for boarding, under the command of Captains Somerville, Cotgrave, Jones, and Parker; and a diviſion of howitzer boats, under Capt. Conn. The boats put off from the Meduſa at half paſt eleven o'clock laſt night in the beſt poſſible order, and before one o'clock this morning the firing began, and I had, from the judgment of the officers, and the zeal and gallantry of every man, the moſt perfect confidence of complete ſucceſs, but the darkneſs of the night, with the tide and half-tide, ſeparated the diviſions, and from all not arriving at the ſame happy moment with Capt. Parker, is to be attributed the failure of ſucceſs; but I beg to be perfectly underſtood, that not the ſmalleſt blame attaches itſelf to any perſon; for, although the diviſion did not arrive together, yet each (except the 4th diviſion, which could not be got up before day,) made a ſucceſsful attack on that part of the enemy they fell-in with, and actually took poſſeſſion of many brigs and flats, and cut their cables, but many of them being aground, and the moment of the battle's ceaſing on board them, the veſſels were filled with vollies upon vollies of muſquetry, the enemy being perfectly regardleſs of their own men, who muſt have ſuffered equally with us, it was therefore impoſſible to remain on board even to burn them: but allow me to ſay, who have ſeen much ſervice this war, that more determined perſevering courage I never witneſſed, and that nothing but the impoſſibility of being ſucceſsful, from the cauſes I have mentioned, could have prevented me from having to congratulate their lordſhips; but although in value the loſs of ſuch gallant and good men is incalculable, yet, in point of numbers, it has fallen ſhort of my expectations. I muſt alſo beg leave to ſtate, that greater zeal and ardent deſire to diſtinguiſh themſelves by an attack on the enemy was never ſhown than by all the captains, officers, and crews of all the different deſcriptions of veſſels under my command. The commanders of the Hunter and Greyhound revenue cutters, went in their boats in the moſt handſome and gallant manner to the attack. Amongſt the many brave men wounded, I have with the deepeſt regret to place the name of my gallant good friend and able aſſiſtant Captain T. Parker; alſo my flag Lieutenant Frederick Langford, who has ſerved with me many years; they were both wounded in attempting to board the French commodore. To Captain Gore of the Meduſa, I feel the higheſt obligations; and when their lordſhips look at the loſs of the Meduſa on this occaſion, they will agree with me, that the honour of my flag, and the cauſe of their King and country, could never have been placed in more gallant hands. Captain Bedford, of the Leyden, with Capt. Gore, very handſomely volunteered their ſervices to ſerve under a maſter and commander; but I did not think it fair to the latter; and I only mention it to mark:

the zeal of thoſe officers. From the nature of the attack, only a few priſoners were made; a lieutenant, 8 ſeamen, and 8 ſoldiers, are all they brought off. Herewith I ſend the reports of the ſeveral commanders of diviſions, and a return of killed and wounded.

"NELSON and BRONTE."

P. S.—Captain Somerville was the ſenior maſter and commander employed.

"*Eugene, off Boulogne,*

"My Lord, *Aug.* 16.

"In obedience to your lordſhip's direction to ſtate the proceedings of the firſt diviſion of boats which you did me the honour to place under my command, for the purpoſe of attacking the enemy's flotilla in the bay of Boulogne, I beg leave to acquaint you, that, after leaving the Meduſa laſt night, I found myſelf, on getting on ſhore, carried conſiderably, by the rapidity of the tide, to the eaſtward of the above-mentioned place; and, finding that I was not likely to reach it in the order preſcribed, I gave directions for the boats to caſt each other off. By ſo doing, I was enabled to get to the enemy's flotilla a little before the dawn of day; and in the beſt order poſſible attacked, cloſe in the pier-head, a brig, which, after a ſhort conteſt, I carried. Previous to ſo doing her cables were cut; but I was prevented from towing her out, by her being ſecured with a chain, and in conſequence of a very heavy fire of muſquetry and grape-ſhot that was directed at us from the ſhore, three luggers, and another brig within half-piſtol ſhot; and, not ſeeing the leaſt proſpect of being able to get her off, I was obliged to abandon her, and puſh out of the bay, as it was then completely daylight. The undaunted and reſolute behaviour of the officers, ſeamen, and marines, was unparalleled; and I have to lament the loſs of ſeveral of thoſe brave men, a liſt of whom I encloſe you herewith.

"P. SOMERVILLE."

Viſcount Nelſon, K. B. &c.

"*Meduſa, off Boulogne,*

"My Lord, *Aug.* 16.

"After the complete arrangement which was made, the perfect good underſtanding and regularity with which the boats you did me the honour to put under my command left the Meduſa, I have an anxious feeling to explain to your lordſhip the failing of our enterpriſe, that, on its outſet, promiſed every ſucceſs. Agreeable to your lordſhip's inſtructions, I proceeded with the ſecond diviſion of the boats under my direction (the half of which were under the direction of Lieut. Williams, ſenior of the Meduſa,) to attack the part of the enemy's flotilla appointed for me, and at half paſt twelve had the good fortune to find myſelf cloſe to them; when I ordered Lieut. Williams, with his ſub-diviſion, to puſh on to attack the veſſels to the northward of me, while I, with the others, run alongſide a large brig off the Mole-head, wearing the commodore's pendant. It is at this moment I feel myſelf at a loſs for words to do juſtice to the officers and crew of the Meduſa who were in the boat with me, and to Lieut. Langford, the officers and crew of the ſame ſhip, who nobly ſeconded us in the barge, until all her crew were killed or wounded; and to the

the Hon. Mr. Cathcart, who commanded the Meduſa's cutter, and ſuſtained the attack with the greateſt intrepidity, until the deſperate ſituation I was left in obliged me to call him to the aſſiſtance of the ſufferers in my boat. The boats were no ſooner alongſide than we attempted to board; but a very ſtrong netting, traced up to her lower yards, baffled all our endeavours; and an inſtantaneous diſcharge of her guns and ſmall arms, from about 200 ſoldiers on her gunwale, knocked myſelf, Mr. Kirby, the maſter of the Meduſa, and Mr. Gore, a midſhipman, with two-thirds of the crew, upon our backs in the boat, all either killed or wounded deſperately; the barge and cutter, being on the outſide, ſheered off with the tide; but the flat-boat in which I was hung alongſide, and, as there was not an officer or man left to govern her, muſt have fallen into the hands of the enemy, had not Mr. Cathcart taken her in tow, and carried her off. Mr. Williams led his ſubdiviſion up to the enemy with the moſt intrepid gallantry, took one lugger, and attacked a brig, while his crews, I am concerned to ſay, ſuffered equally with ourſelves; nearly the whole of his boat's crew were killed or wounded. Lieutenant Pelley, who commanded the Meduſa's launch, and the Hon. Mr. Maitland, midſhipman, were ſeverely wounded; and Mr. William Briſtow, maſter's mate, in the Meduſa's cutter, under Lieut. Stewart, was killed. I now feel it my duty to aſſure your lordſhip, that nothing could ſurpaſs the zeal, courage, and readineſs of every deſcription of officer and man under my command; and I am ſorry that my words fall ſhort of their merits, though we could not accompliſh the object we were ordered to.

"EDWARD T. PARKER."

Lord Viſcount Nelſon, &c.

"*Gannet, Aug.* 16.

"My Lord,

"On the night of the 15th inſt. the third diviſion of boats which I had the honour to command, aſſembled on board his Majeſty's ſhip York, agreeable to your lordſhip's directions, and at 11 *p. m.* by ſignal from the Meduſa, proceeded, without loſs of time, to attack the enemy's flotilla off Boulogne, as directed by your lordſhip; and, as I thought it moſt adviſeable to endeavour to reduce the largeſt veſſel firſt, I loſt no time in making the attack; but in conſequence of my leading the diviſion, and the enemy opening a heavy fire from ſeveral batteries, thought it adviſeable to give the enemy as little time as poſſible, cut the tow-rope, and did not wait for the other boats, ſo that it was ſome little time before the heavy boats could get up; received ſo many ſhots through the boat's bottom, that I ſoon found her in a ſinking ſtate; and, as it was not poſſible to ſtop ſo many ſhot-holes, was obliged, with the men, to take to another boat; and have the pleaſure to acquaint your lordſhip, that I received particular ſupport from the boats of his Majeſty's ſhip York, which ſoon came up with the reſt of the diviſion I had the honour to command; but, finding no proſpect of ſucceſs, and the number of men killed and wounded in the different boats, and the conſtant fire from the ſhore of grape and ſmall arms, thought it for the good of his Majeſty's ſervice to

withdraw the boats between two and three in the morning, as we could not board her, although every effort was made.

"I am, &c.

"ISAAC COTGRAVE."

Lord Viſcount Nelſon, K. B. &c.

"*Iſis, Auguſt* 16.

"My Lord,

"In conſequence of directions received from your lordſhip, I laſt night, on the ſignal being made on board the Meduſa, left this ſhip, with the boats of the fourth diviſion, formed with two cloſe lines, and immediately joined the other diviſions under the ſtern of the Meduſa, and from thence proceeded to put your lordſhip's order into execution, attacking the weſternmoſt part of the enemy's flotilla; but, notwithſtanding every exertion made, owing to the rapidity of the tide, we could not, until near daylight, get to the weſtward of any part of the enemy's line; on approaching the eaſtern part of which, in order to aſſiſt the firſt diviſion then engaged, we met them returning. Under theſe circumſtances, and the day breaking apace, I judged it prudent to direct the officers commanding the different boats to return to their reſpective ſhips.

"I am, &c.

"ROBERT JONES."

P. S. None killed or wounded on board any of the fourth diviſion.

Lord Viſcount Nelſon, K. B. &c.

"*Diſcovery, off Boulogne,*

"My Lord, *Aug.* 16.

"I beg leave to make my report to your lordſhip of the four howitzer boats that I had the honour to command, in the attack of the enemy laſt night. Having led in to ſupport Capt. Parker's diviſion, keeping between his lines until the enemy opened their fire on him, we keeping on towards the pier until I was aground in the headmoſt boat; then opened our fire, and threw about eight ſhells into it, but, from the ſtrength of the tide coming out of the harbour, was not able to keep our ſtation off the pier-head, but continued our fire on the camp, until the enemy's fire had totally ſlackened, and Capt. Parker's diviſion had paſſed without me. I beg leave to acquaint your lordſhip, that I was ably ſupported by the other boats. Capt. Broome and Lieut. Beam, of the royal artillery, did every thing in their power to annoy the enemy. The other officers of artillery were detached in the other four howitzer boats.

"J. CONN."

Lord Viſcount Nelſon, K. B. &c.

Account of officers, ſeamen, and marines, killed and wounded.

Total.—4 officers, 33 ſeamen, 7 marines, killed; 14 officers, 84 ſeamen, 30 marines, wounded.—Total 172.

London Gazette, *Aug.* 25.

Letter from Lord Nelſon to Evan Nepean, Eſq.

"Sir,

"Herewith I tranſmit you a letter which I received from Capt. Roſe, giving me an account of the boats of the ſeveral veſſels under his orders having burnt a quantity of pitch, tar, and turpentine, deſtroyed three gun-boats, taken two launches, and a flat-bottomed boat, about forty-five feet long, and eighteen

eighteen or twenty feet wide, mounted with one braſs eight inch howitzer; this boat ſunk aſtern of the Hound. The buſineſs on the part of our boats, was conducted with much ſpirit; and much praiſe is due to Lieutenant Agaſſiz, of the Hound, and Lieut. L. Veſcont, of the Jamaica, for their brave example on this occaſion.

"I have the honour to be, &c.

"NELSON and BRONTE."

"*The Jamaica at Sea.*

"My Lord, *Aug.* 21.

"I beg leave to acquaint you that yeſterday evening at eight o'clock, being at anchor off Eſtaples, I obſerved a large fire to the S. S. E. and at the ſame time a very heavy cannonade. I immediately got under way with the veſſels under my orders, and ran down to it; about ten I ſpoke Captain Sanadine, of the Hound, who informed me that the fire proceeded from a cargo of pitch and tar belonging to a veſſel wrecked on the coaſt ſome time ago, which the boats of the Hound and Mallard had ſet fire to; and that ſix flat-bottomed boats had come out of Saint Vallery that afternoon which he forced on ſhore and then lay hauled upon the beach.

"I accordingly this morning ſent the boats of the Jamaica, Gannet, and Hound, together with thoſe of the gun-brigs, to endeavour to cut them out, under the direction of Lieut. James Agaſſiz, of the Hound; at the ſame time ſtanding in with the different veſſels, in order to cover the boats from the fire of the military and five field pieces, poſted behind the ſand hill on ſhore.

"I am happy to acquaint your lordſhip that they ſucceeded in bringing off three; the others had been previouſly ſcuttled, ſo as to render it impoſſible to remove them; however, the boats damaged them as much as the time would admit of.

"I cannot ſufficiently praiſe the gallantry and zeal of Lieutenant Agaſſiz of the Hound, and Lieut. L. Veſcont of the Jamaica, with the officers and men employed in this ſervice.

"Annexed I tranſmit a liſt of our loſt; and have the honour to be, &c.

"JONAS ROSE."

Public Acts paſſed in the Firſt Seſſions of the Imperial Parliament.

FEB. 19, 1801.

An act to ſuſpend till the 25th of March ſo much of "the act for preventing the manufacturing of fine flour," as relates to wheat, and to indemnify perſons who had offended againſt it.

FEB. 24.

An act to repeal the act for preventing the manufacturing of fine flour, and to indemnify millers and others.

MARCH 12.

An act for raiſing 28,000,000*l.* by annuities.

An act for iſſuing exchequer bills.

MARCH 24.

For increaſing the rates of poſtage.

For additional duties on bills of exchange, promiſſory notes, inſurances, indentures, leaſes, bonds, and other deeds.

Additional duties on paper, &c.

Additional duty on horſes.

Act

Act for ſettling an annuity on Sir Sidney Smith.

For continuing the duties granted by the Iriſh parliament.

For preventing the making of malt and of corn ſpirits in Ireland.

Act to amend an act of the 36th of the King for permitting bakers to make and ſell certain ſorts of bread.

Mutiny act.

Marine mutiny act.

Act for a bounty on American flour.

Act for amending the Iriſh rebellion law.

For continuing the ſuſpenſion of the habeas corpus in Ireland.

For increaſing field officers in the Iriſh militia.

April 2.

Act for continuing ſeveral expiring laws, viz. for better collecting the duty on imported ſtarch; for permitting importations in neutral bottoms; for authorizing his Majeſty to regulate the trade to the Cape of Good Hope; and for making perpetual the act for preventing the obſtructing, deſtroying, or damaging of ſhips, and the moleſtation of ſeamen.

Act for extending to a further period the act for improvement of commons and waſtes.

April 18.

Act for ſuſpending the habeas corpus.

For regulating the office of maſter of the rolls in Ireland, and for increaſing his ſalary.

For permitting the warehouſing of prohibited Eaſt India goods for the purpoſe of being exported to the Weſt Indies.

For rendering valid indentures of apprenticeſhip of poor children improperly ſtamped, and for indemnifying thoſe who had incurred penalties by executing them.

For better collecting poor-rates.

For indemnifying thoſe whoſe mills might be pulled down by perſons riotouſly aſſembled.

April 30.

Act for raiſing money by a lottery.

For granting duties on timber, ſugar, raiſins, and pepper imported, and on lead exported.

For repealing duties on tea imported into Ireland, and granting additional duties on ſugar and coals imported thither.

Grant for permanent ſervices in Ireland.

Additional duty on ſpirits imported into Scotland, and decreaſe of duty on ſpirits made there from ſugar or molaſſes.

For granting bounties on importation of grain into Ireland.

For reviving an act reſpecting the ſteeping of malt.

For reviving the act againſt ſeditious aſſemblies.

For increaſing the rates of ſubſiſtence on quartering ſoldiers.

May 21.

For allowing the importation of foreign hops.

For enabling the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland to prevent the exportation of proviſions, and for indemnifying thoſe who had already prevented it.

Militia act.

For allowing clergymen to keep one horſe for riding without paying duty.

For exempting elephant oil from duty.

For more effectually preventing forgery of bank notes, &c.

For

For authorizing the importation of rice from the Eaſt Indies into Great Britain and Ireland.

For amending the act to prevent unlawful combinations of workmen.

JUNE 20.

Act for granting certain ſtamp duties in Ireland.

For better ſupporting the workhouſe and foundling hoſpital in Dublin.

For ſettling an annuity on Lady Abercromby, and the two next perſons to whom the title of Baron Abercromby ſhall deſcend.

For granting indulgences with reſpect to duties on the exportation of coffee and ſugar.

For permitting Portugal wines to be landed and warehouſed without payment of duties.

For indemnifying perſons who had omitted to qualify themſelves for offices in Ireland.

For continuing ſeveral laws of the Iriſh parliament, relating to the tobacco trade, the rectifying of ſpirits, improvement of fiſheries, collection of duties on hides, vellum, and parchment, the grant of permits and certificates, the regulation of bounties, and ſome particular branches of revenue.

For continuing the laws for licenſing publicans in Ireland.

For amending and continuing the act for regulating the trade of diſtillers in Ireland.

For continuing the act for encouraging trade in the Iſle of Man.

For rendering valid all acts done in execution of orders of council relating to bills of exchange drawn by perſons in Ruſſia, and to the freights of Ruſſian, Swediſh, and Daniſh ſhips.

For declaring what perſons are incapacitated from being returned members of the Houſe of Commons for Ireland, and what placemen and others ſhall be prevented from voting.

For better preventing the forgery of the notes, &c. of bankers.

For reviving and continuing an act for making certain allowances to adjutants and non-commiſſioned officers of militia.

For making certain allowances to the ſame officers in time of peace.

For explaining and amending the act which repealed that of the 2d of James I. in ſo far as is prohibited the uſe of horſe-hides in making boots and ſhoes, &c.

JUNE 23.

For continuing the act for ſuppreſſion of rebellion in Ireland.

For exempting from certain duties perſons whoſe abſence from Ireland is only occaſional.

Act to remove doubts with reſpect to the eligibility of perſons in holy orders to ſit in the Houſe of Commons.

For further relief of debtors with reſpect to the impriſonment of their perſons.

JUNE 24.

Act for granting to his Majeſty the ſum of 200,000*l.* to be iſſued and paid by the governor and company of the bank, and placed to the account of the commiſſioners for the reduction of the national debt.

For indemnifying ſuch perſons as ſince the 1ſt of February, 1793, have acted in apprehending, impriſoning, or detaining perſons ſuſpected of treaſon or treaſonable practices.

For

For amending the militia laws relating to Scotland.

For altering the laws relative to the importation and exportation of copper, and for charging the duties and drawbacks.

JUNE 27.

For enabling his Majesty to raise 2,000,000*l.*

For raising 6,500,000*l.* by loans or exchequer bills.

For raising 3,000,000*l.* in like manner.

For directing the application of several sums granted by parliament to the Dublin society, and to the farming societies in Ireland.

For granting to his Majesty certain sums of money out of the consolidated funds in Great Britain and Ireland.

For extending the period of preference granted to bodies corporate and individuals for redemption of land tax, and to amend the act for granting an aid by a land tax.

For regulating the drawbacks on sugar exported from Ireland.

For permitting the exportation of tea to Ireland without duty.

For transferring the receipt and management of duties on certificates for wearing hair powder and armorial bearings from the stamp-office to the tax-office.

For issuing commissions, letters of marque, and reprisal, to ships and vessels employed by the boards of customs and excise, &c.

For better payment of fines and forfeitures imposed by justices out of session in England.

For allowing the importation of certain fish from Newfoundland, and the coast of Labrador, and granting a bounty thereon.

For relief of certain insolvent debtors.

For better securing to constables and others the expences of conveying offenders to goal, and for allowing to high constables their charges in certain cases.

For better regulation of public notaries in Scotland.

JULY 2.

Act for granting an additional duty on cards and dice, probates of wills, and certain deeds.

Duty on playing cards imported.

Changing the duty on importation of statues, wrought stone and marble.

For more speedy recovery of debts due to his Majesty in right of the crown.

For better regulating and collecting excise duties.

For collecting the bounties on flour and Indian corn imported into Ireland, and facilitating the recovery of penalties on making malt or distilling spirits.

For further permitting the importation of British hops into Ireland.

For warehousing spirits from British plantations in Ireland.

For facilitating trade between Ireland and America.

For better regulating prize courts in the West Indies.

For continuing several laws relating to Newfoundland and the West Indies.

Irish militia act.

For granting bounties on fish brought to London, Westminster, and other places.

For repealing the tax on salaries, &c. of persons not resident in Ireland for a certain period.

For regulating for a certain period trials of controverted elections for Ireland.

For

For ſtaying proceedings for a certain period, in actions brought againſt clergymen for non-reſidence.

For empowering his Majeſty to regulate the trade of Malta, and declaring that iſland to be part of Europe.

For indemnifying perſons who have acted in ſuppreſſion of inſurrection and rebellion in Ireland.

To authorize judges to whom petitions for certain bills are referred to examine witneſſes on oath.

For ſecuring certain perſons born within the territories of France, and others from impriſonment for debts contracted in parts beyond ſea, other than the dominions of his Majeſty.

For further ſecuring the copies and copy-right of printed books to the authors or their aſſigns.

For conſolidating in one act certain proviſions uſually inſerted in acts of incloſure, and for facilitating the mode of proving the facts required under ſuch acts.

A GENERAL BILL

OF

All the CHRISTENINGS and BURIALS,

From DECEMBER 9, 1800, to DECEMBER 15, 1801.

Christened	Males 9400 / Females 8414	Buried	Males 9661 / Females 9713	Decreased in Burials this Year 3694.

Total Males and Females Christened 17184.—Total Males and Females Buried 19374.

Died under Two Years	5395	—Thirty and Forty	1924	Eighty and Ninety	484
Between Two and Five	2063	Forty and Fifty	2128	Ninety and a Hundred	64
—Five and Ten	843	Fifty and Sixty	1817	A Hundred	1
—Ten and Twenty	639	Sixty and Seventy	1482	A Hundred and One	5
—Twenty and Thirty	1481	Seventy and Eighty	1047	A Hundred and Two	1

DISEASES.						CASUALTIES.	
Abortive & Stillborn	407	Cramp	1	Measles	36	Broken Limbs	1
Abscess	24	Croup	14	Miscarriage	1	Bruised	4
Aged	1562	Despair	1	Mortification	223	Burnt	7
Ague	4	Diabetes	1	Palpitation of Heart	1	Choaked	1
Apoplexy and sudden	238	Dropsy	865	Palsy	79	Drowned	120
Asthma and Phthisic	437	Eaten by Lice	1	Pleurisy	22	Excessive Drinking	5
Bedridden	2	Evil	7	Quinsy	5	Executed *	11
Bleeding	14	All Fevers	2908	Rheumatism	5	Found dead	9
Burften and Rupture	21	Fistula	3	Scurvy	4	Fractured	3
Cancer	57	Flux	10	Small Pox	1461	Killed by Falls, &c.	59
Chicken Pox	2	French Pox	14	Sore Throat	4	Killed themselves	31
Childbed	170	Gout	84	Sores and Ulcers	6	Murdered	4
Colds	6	Gravel, Strangury, and Stone	12	Spasm	4	Poisoned	3
Colick, Gripes, twisting of the Guts	8	Grief	3	Stoppage in the Stomach	6	Scalded	5
Consumption	4695	Headmouldshot, Horshoehead, and Water in the Head	72	Surfeit	1	Starved	5
Convulsions	3931	Jaundice	79	Swelling	3	Suffocated	1
Cough, and Hooping Cough	428	Jaw Locked	4	Teeth	333		
		Inflammatioh	557	Thrush	28	Total	269
		Livergrown	4	Vomiting and Looseness	1		
		Lunatick	127	Worms	9		

* There have been executed in Middlesex and Surry 23; of which number 11 only have been reported to be buried (as such) within the Bills of Mortality.

PRICES

PRICES OF STOCK FOR THE YEAR 1801.

N. B. The highest and lowest Prices which each Stock bore during the Course of any Month, are put down opposite to that Month.

	Bank Stock	3 pr Ct. Reduc.	3 pr Ct. Consol.	4 pr Ct Consol.	5 pr Ct. Navy.	5 pr Ct. 1797.	Long Ann.	Short Ann.	India Stock	India Bon.	S. Sea Stock	Old Ann	New Ann.	Exch. Bills.	Omnium.	Irish 5prCt	Imp. 3prCt	Eng. Lot. Tickets.
January —	162¼	62½	62	80½	96½	97	18½	5½	205½	s.	63½	—	62⅞	1s. pl	2 pr.	94	61½	17 5 0
	149½	55⅛	54¾	73¼	86½	87¼	16½	5	187	5 pr.	62	—	57½	1 dif.	3½dif.	86	54	17 0 0
February —	153½	58⅛	57	77¼	91½	92¼	17¾	5⅜	189	7	62¼	56½	57	Par.	—	88½	57	17 9 0
	150	56¼	55⅛	75⅜	89¾	90¾	17⅛	5¼	184	3 dif.	61¾	55	55½	8 dif.	—	87	54¾	17 2 0
March —	162½	56¼	58½	75½	96½	91¾	17½	5½	194½	3	62¼	56½	55½	12	7 pr.	88¼	57½	21 5 0
	153	55¾	55½	75	90½	90⅞		5⅜	183½	2	—	56⅜	—	3	1½	88	55	17 8 0
April —	170	—	61½	78½	97½	94¼	18⅛	5⅛	200½	2 pr.	66	—	59½	12	10½	91	57½	26 10 0
	159	—	57¼	77¼	94½	92⅞	17⅞	—	192½	—	65¾	—	—	2	3½	90⅜	56¾	15 0 0
May —	169¾	60½	61⅝	79⅝	96⅞	95	18⅜	5⅛	202½	—	67½	59⅞	60¼	7	10¼	92½	58¾	15 12 0
	166	59½	60⅛	77¼	96⅛	93⅞	18⅛	—	199½	—	65¾	—	—	3	8¾	90¼	57½	—
June —	168½	61⅛	62⅝	80	96¾	96	18½	5⅛	203¾	—	66¾	60⅞	—	4	10½	92	60	15 15 0
	166¼	60	60⅞	78¼	95⅜	93⅞	18⅛	—	200	—	—	—	—	3	8¾	90¾	58¾	15 12 0
July —	168	61⅜	62½	80⅞	94	96¾	18½	5¼	201¾	3 pr.	—	61	57⅞	2	10½	93½	60¼	15 15 0
	165¾	58⅜	56	78	92	93	17⅞	5⅛	192	—	—	58⅜	57¾	1	6¼	90	57	—
August —	169½	61½	61⅛	81	96¾	97¾	18⅞	5⅜	199	8 per	—	60⅜	59½	4	10¼	93½	60⅜	16 0 0
	167	59½	58⅛	79¼	93	94½	18⅛	5½	193	6	—	59½	58¼	1	7	90	58¼	15 15 0
September —	168½	61⅛	60⅝	81¼	96⅛	97⅜	18¾	5⅜	195¼	—	—	—	—	2	9¾	—	60	16 0 0
	177	—	58¼	81	93½	97¼	18⅝	—	191½	—	—	—	—	—	6¼	—	57¼	—
October —	190	68⅜	69½	86½	103	100¼	20	5¼	221	—	73	67½	—	12	25¼	100	67¾	16 4 0
	177½	67¼	59¼	85	94	98½	—	5⅛	209½	—	—	—	—	1	7½	98½	59	16 0 0
November —	190¾	67⅞	68⅝	85	103¼	99⅞	19⅞	5¼	215¾	—	—	—	68⅛	16	23	97½	—	16 6 0
	187	66⅜	67⅛	83¾	99	98	19⅝	5⅛	213	—	—	—	67¼	7	21	95½	—	16 4 0
December —	188½	67½	69¼	85⅜	100¼	98¾	19⅞	5¼	218½	—	73¼	—	—	8½	22¼	97⅛	66⅛	16 10 0
	187¼	66¾	67¼	83¼	99¾	97⅞	19½	5⅛	216	—	—	—	—	1	21¼	96	63⅝	16 6 0

METEOROLOGICAL TABLE FOR 1801.

	Thermometer without.			Thermometer within.			Barometer *.			Hygrometer.			
	Greateſt Height.	Leaſt Height.	Mean Height.	Greateſt Height.	Leaſt Height.	Mean Height.	Greateſt Height.	Leaſt Height.	Mean Height.	Greateſt Height.	Leaſt Height.	Mean Height.	Rain.
	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Inches.
1801.													
January - -	52	25	42,0	58	49	53,7	30,21	29,30	29,84	90	66	78,3	1,226
February - -	56	27	40,7	60	47	53,1	30,26	29,16	29,77	85	62	73,9	0,544
March - -	59	31	46,4	61	52	56,4	30,43	29,12	29,87	84	62	73,5	1,108
April - -	65	32	48,9	62	52	57,6	30,38	29,38	30,84	78	50	65,9	0,376
May - - -	71	44	56,7	64	57	60,0	30,16	29,44	29,82	86	52	66,2	1,509
June - - -	80	50	62,3	69	61	63,7	30,20	29,76	30,04	80	53	64,7	0,791
July - - -	79	52	63,9	70	61	65,9	30,12	29,38	29,77	94	57	69,6	3,524
Auguſt - -	79	54	66,1	72	65	68,2	30,24	29,57	30,06	90	55	68,7	1,569
September -	73	47	61,3	66	58	62,8	30,30	29,38	29,89	92	57	73,7	1,264
October - -	65	34	53,2	64	56	60,6	30,34	29,04	29,83	90	63	75,1	1,474
November -	60	26	42,5	62	49	54,8	30,33	28,83	29,71	95	61	79,6	3,294
December -	50	24	38,1	55	45	50,9	30,22	28,65	29,48	94	70	81,2	2,518
Whole Year.			51,8			59,0			29,84			72,5	19,197

* The Quickſilver in the baſin of the Barometer is 81 feet above the level of low water ſpring tides at Somerſet Houſe.

First Report of the Secret Committee of the House of Commons; on the treasonable and seditious practices in Great Britain and Ireland.

Presented April 13, 1801.

THE Committee of Secrecy, to whom the several papers, which were presented (sealed up) to the house, by Mr. Chancellor of the Exchequer, upon the first and second days of this instant April, by his Majesty's command, were referred; and who were directed to examine the matters thereof, and report the same, as shall appear to them, to the house;

Have proceeded, with the utmost diligence, to the consideration of the matters, referred to them; but, from the extent and variety of the information respecting different parts of the united kingdom, which has been laid before them, they are under the necessity of requesting the indulgence of the house, for a short time, before they can submit the result of their investigation on all the points to which it has extended. Your Committee, however, think it incumbent upon them to state, without delay, that they have received the fullest proofs that a dangerous and treasonable conspiracy for the subversion of the constitution and government, which in the year 1798, in concert with a foreign enemy, produced the horrid and sanguinary rebellion in Ireland, and the progress and extent of which, in Great Britain, is detailed in the report of the Committee of Secrecy in the year 1799, has never been abandoned. The hopes and activity of the disaffected were checked, and their intentions frustrated, by the vigilance of government, and by the effect of the laws which were adopted: but their principles and designs remained unchanged, and they have for some time, and more especially of late, been endeavouring to take advantage of the distress occasioned by the high price of provisions, for carrying those wicked designs into effect: It has particularly appeared to your Committee, that the instigators of these proceedings have, on repeated occasions, secretly expressed their wish for the aggravation of those evils, which they every where endeavour to use as a pretext and engine for exciting popular discontent: they appeared to have derived their principal encouragement from the pressure arising from the scarcity; from the hopes of assistance from a foreign enemy upon the invasion of Great Britain or Ireland; and from the expiration of the laws before referred to, which, from the concurrent testimony from different parts of the kingdom, they acknowledge and declare to have been the principal obstacle to their measures. Within a few weeks past, and to the latest period to which the information received by your Committee can apply, their activity has been great and increasing in the metropolis and in other parts of the kingdom; every effort is employed that can tend to disturb the public tranquillity; and recent intelligence has been received from different quarters, which justifies your Committee in believing, that, at this moment, the immediate object of the disaffected is to endeavour, by a sudden explosion, to avail themselves of the interval which may still take place before those laws can

be renewed. The dangerous ſyſtem of a ſecret confederacy, under the obligation of an unlawful oath, which prevailed in Ireland, and afterwards extended itſelf to Great Britain, has been revived with additional precautions, for the purpoſe of eluding detection, and of enſuring concert, ſecrecy and diſpatch; and it appears to be in agitation, ſuddenly, by thoſe means, to call numerous meetings, in different parts of the country, at the ſame day and hour, to an extent which, if not prevented, muſt materially endanger the public peace; and that amongſt the perſons moſt forward in inſtigating theſe criminal proceedings, are ſome of thoſe who had been detained under the ſuſpenſion of the Habeas Corpus Act, and who have been recently releaſed from confinement. Theſe conſiderations your Committee have felt themſelves bound to ſubmit, in the firſt inſtance, to the wiſdom of the Houſe, believing that any delay in ſo doing would be attended with material danger to the country; and for the ſame reaſon, they feel it a duty incumbent on them, to take the firſt moment of ſtating to the Houſe, their ſtrong and unanimous opinion, grounded on the information which they have received, that no time ought to be loſt in renewing thoſe meaſures of precaution, which the wiſdom of the Legiſlature has before adopted; particularly the act for the ſuſpenſion of the proviſions of the Habeas Corpus Act, and the act to prevent ſeditious meetings; which while they remained in force, were attended with the happieſt effects in preſerving the public tranquillity, and which your Committee have the moſt confident hope would have the ſame ſalutary operation, under the preſent circumſtances.

Abſtract of the Second Report of the Committee of the Houſe of Lords, which was delivered to their Lordſhips in April, 1801.

WHEN it became known to ſome of the moſt ſtirring members of the ſociety, which, under the name of the London Correſponding Society, is ſo particularly deſcribed in the former report, that the act for preventing ſeditious meetings had expired, they drew together at firſt in ſmall parties with a degree of caution, changing frequently their place of meeting, and omitting their accuſtomed forms; being ſtill apprehenſive, as they expreſſed themſelves, of the act which had not then expired, for the ſuſpenſion of the Habeas Corpus Act. In this condition various plans were formed in different meetings for reſuming and carrying on with more ſecurity their former practices. Among other devices, one was propoſed and adopted by a conſiderable number, to aſſume the name and appearance of a benefit ſociety.

Thoſe who were thus to take the name of a benefit ſociety had no other purpoſe, but to maſk under the name a political ſociety, formed for purpoſes the moſt flagitious; for it was expreſsly declared, that no fund, raiſed by regular contribution, ſhould form the ſtock of this ſociety, no perſons admitted members but thoſe of democratic ſentiments, who were to receive copies of the rules of a benefit ſociety, not that they ſhould be

be obſerved, but that they might deceive the magiſtrates, in caſe any of the meetings ſhould be ſuſpected; converting thereby, in fraud of the law, an excellent eſtabliſhment for the relief of the ſober and induſtrious poor, into an inſtrument for the deſtruction of ſobriety and induſtry.—Many members of the former Correſponding Society and their friends were in this manner engaged. Others appear to have been at the ſame time concerting a deeper deſign of a ſecret ſociety, which after it had attained a proper maturity, was announced to the benefit ſociety that had been eſtabliſhed about three weeks, and became numerous, by two perſons in the character of delegates from a ſociety of emancipation, and deſiring to know whether the pretended benefit ſociety would connect itſelf with their ſociety. The propoſal was favourably received, and a future meeting appointed, at which they ſhould be furniſhed with the inſtructions of the plan of that ſociety. At that meeting the inſtructions produced in writing, were to this effect: the members to be admitted by a teſt, or declaration on oath, to be ſworn on the Bible, when it can be produced; but it is obſerved, that ſince Paine's Age of Reaſon it is looked on as a mark of inciviſm to keep a Bible. The perſons intruſted to ſwear others, or, in the phraſe of the ſociety, to initiate them, are termed Conductors. They receive a written appointment, with a printed inſtruction, and printed declaration (copies of each of theſe are annexed to this report); ten initiated are allotted to each conductor, who is to make a report of them, at ſtated times, to another officer, called a Superintendant, appointed over every ten Conductors. To each Superintendant a Meſſenger is aſſigned, by whom he is to communicate with the Executive, the names and number of which are only to be known by themſelves, or perhaps to the Meſſengers; but they are ſuppoſed to be perſons of ſuperior conſequence. Signs are inſtituted by which the members may know each other; but it does not diſtinctly appear whether all the initiated, or only the Conductors, are intruſted with the knowledge of the ſigns. The plan, thus explained, was fully approved, and the benefit ſociety agreed to form one indiviſible ſociety, under the name of United Britons. This aſſociation appears to have taken place about the middle of the month of March laſt. Of the practice and habits of this aſſociation, the Committee has received more preciſe information. In their general meetings they are ſomewhat reſerved on the ſubject of religion, for fear of frightening away perſons, who have ſome reſpect for religion (which happily has been the caſe, and has contributed to the detecting of their ſchemes). But it appears to your Committee that a very principal object of their leaders has been to uſe every means in their power to work upon all perſons whoſe religious opinions differ from thoſe of the eſtabliſhment: for which purpoſe the General Executive has recommended it in the ſtrongeſt manner to their followers to mix as much as poſſible with ſuch perſons, and by concealing their own ſentiments, which are adverſe to all religion, and ſeemingly adopting thoſe of the perſons with whom they ſhould communicate, to gain proſelytes to their political deſigns

and thus to promote the execution of their miſchievous and determined purpoſe of overthrowing the conſtitution. In the confidential meetings of the initiated, however, they endeavour to turn the people againſt religion, in order to overthrow the ſtate through the church; obſerving, that if there were no prieſts there would be no king. Amongſt the moſt frequent ſubjects treated in theſe confidential meetings of the initiated, plans of inſurrections to be excited on the pretext of the high price of proviſions, but directed to the ſubverſion of government, have been diſcuſſed, and the means traced out for procuring arms of the moſt dangerous ſpecies. The members are inſtructed to frequent clubs where workmen and ſoldiers reſort, to appear there unconnected, and to hold oppoſite ſides in the queſtions they are inſtructed to raiſe. Their purpoſes are of a more ſanguinary complexion than the ordinary miſchiefs of a mob; for your Committee has had particular information of the time and place, and of ſome perſons attending the meeting within a very recent period, when a plan of aſſaſſinating certain members of Parliament at their own houſes, formed with no inconſiderable degree of contrivance, was propoſed, and ſeemed to meet the general acquieſcence of all the company that it would be meritorious.

It has alſo appeared to your Committee, that ſocieties of a ſimilar formation with this, ſince the period when it became generally known that the act for preventing ſeditious meetings had expired, have been formed in various parts of the country, and after the expiration of the act for ſuſpending the Habeas Corpus Act, aſſumed a bold and daring aſpect. Beſides theſe places, where the operations of ſuch ſocieties have only been known to the vigilant attention of the magiſtrates, and kept down by their prudence and firmneſs, a very dangerous conſpiracy of a ſimilar nature had manifeſted itſelf in ſome parts of the country; which, from all its forms and habits, affords the ſtrongeſt preſumption of mutual intercourſe between thoſe conſpirators and the United Britons; the only apparent difference being, that the meeting in the country, being chiefly connected with manufacturers, is obliged to aſſume a more apparent concern for their intereſt in regard to the dearneſs of living, and oſtenſibly aims at the reduction of the price of proviſions, or the increaſe of the price of labour; whereas the ſociety of United Britons in London does not heſitate to profeſs their wiſh to fruſtrate every plan for the relief of the poor; the high price of proviſions being moſt favourable to their object of exciting inſurrection.

The Committee has further to obſerve, that by moſt certain intelligence it appears that there ſtill exiſts in the dominions of the King's enemies at leaſt two eſtabliſhed committees of traitors to the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, actively employed in carrying on correſpondence, by their agents, with the leaders of theſe ſocieties, and abetting them in the moſt atrocious circumſtances of the crimes they are meditating, and encouraging them by holding out hopes of invaſion.

The Committee has alſo had great reaſon to believe that many of

of the United Iriſh, who, either by the lenity of the government of that country, or by their own apprehenſion of its juſt ſeverity, have taken refuge here, have by all the means they had been uſed to practiſe, ſtimulated and inflamed the minds of the members of theſe meetings to an higher pitch of extravagance, and rendered it more neceſſary to ſubject them to that controul, which, in its former exerciſe, was as uſeful to themſelves as it was ſalutary to the ſtate; for it is remarkable that no reſtriction could be more truly preventive of evil, than the ſtatute in queſtion has proved to be, there having ſeldom occurred an occaſion for enforcing the act during the period of its continuance; it is therefore the unanimous and decided opinion of your Committee, that the bill * now referred to their conſideration ought to paſs into a law.

Appointment of a Conductor.

Fellow-citizen,

The Bx appoints you to act as a Conductor. They expect you will faithfully diſcharge your duty, agreeable to the inſtructions you receive. Health and reſpect.

March 14, 1801. A. M. Z.

Duty of Conductors.

There ſhall be in each department a number of officers, to be called Conductors, who ſhall receive their orders, ſealed, from an officer entitled a Superintendant. Each Conductor is required to call on members to the number of ten, to convey to them the orders of the Executive, to receive from them whatever ſums of money they may chooſe to contribute towards defraying the public expence; as alſo the name and place of abode, ſealed, of all perſons entered as members, or any other communication they may wiſh to tranſmit to the Executive; all of which he ſhall faithfully deliver to the Superintendant. Each member is required to exert himſelf, to the utmoſt of his power, to unite his friends in the bond of brotherhood and affection, which ſhall be done as follows:—On his becoming acquainted with any perſon of good character, who has manifeſted a firm attachment to the cauſe of juſtice and humanity, deſirous of being a member, he ſhall preſent the declaration for his voluntary acceptance; his name ſhall then be returned to the Conductor, who lives moſt contiguous to him, who ſhall faithfully tranſmit to the Superintendant his report, to commence every ſecond Monday.

Declaration.

In the awful preſence of Almighty God, I A. B. do voluntarily declare, that I will endeavour, to the utmoſt of my power, to obtain the object of this union; namely, to recover thoſe rights which the Supreme Being, in his infinite bounty, hath given to all men; and that neither hopes nor fears, rewards nor puniſhments, ſhall ever induce me to inform on, or give evidence, directly or indirectly, concerning the buſineſs of this or of any ſimilar ſociety. So help me God.

* The bill for continuing the ſuſpenſion of the Habeas Corpus Act.

Second Report of the Committee to the Houſe of Commons.

Preſented May 15.

The Committee of Secrecy, to whom the ſeveral papers which were preſented (ſealed up) to the Houſe, by Mr. Chancellor of the Exchequer, upon the firſt and ſecond days of April laſt, by his Majeſty's command, were referred; and who were directed to examine the matters thereof, and report the ſame, as they ſhall appear to them, to the Houſe:—Have proceeded further in their examination of the papers referred to them, and in the inveſtigation and conſideration of other and more recent means of information, which have been furniſhed ſince the period of their firſt Report. Part of theſe ariſing from the oral teſtimony of perſons well acquainted with the ſtate of Ireland, and particularly with the execution of the powers confided in the Lord Lieutenant by the ſeveral acts for the ſuppreſſion of the rebellion in that part of the united kingdom, and who but lately arrived in England, it would have been impoſſible for your Committee to avail themſelves of it, if they had not delayed longer than would otherwiſe have been neceſſary, the Report which they now ſubmit to the conſideration of the Houſe.

The information which, through various channels, has reached your Committee, has developed the views and conduct of the diſaffected in all parts of the united kingdom, as well as on the Continent, ſince the period when the Report was made from the Committee of Secrecy in 1799. Moſt of the ſources of intelligence, both on that occaſion and the preſent, are obviouſly of a nature which, from every conſideration of good faith, humanity, and policy, it would be highly improper to particularize to the Houſe: your Committee have not, however, neglected to examine into the degree of credit to which each of them was fairly entitled: they have inquired into the general conſiſtency of the accounts themſelves; the confirmation received from collateral ſources, from the preciſe coincidence of material facts with information and notice which had been previouſly given; from exiſting and unqueſtionable documents, correſponding with antecedent verbal accounts; and from the confeſſions of the actors themſelves; and have ſeen how far all theſe have been combined through a period of ſeveral years in the communication of any individual. This examination has impreſſed them with full confidence in the accuracy of the information received; and what is now ſubmitted to the Houſe is the reſult of the unanimous opinion of your Committee as to the truth of the facts themſelves, as well as the conſequences which have been deduced from them.

It was not to be expected that perſons who had deeply imbibed the principles of the French Revolution; who were inflamed with the moſt ſanguinary animoſity againſt all the exiſting eſtabliſhments of Church and State; that ſuch of them, particularly of the lower orders of ſociety, whoſe hopes were inſtigated by the proſpect of the plunder of the rich, and the partition of the landed property of the country, and who had been taught to abjure all the reſtraints which divine or human laws have impoſed

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on the paſſions of men; ſhould be induced, by any change of circumſtances or legal coercion, ſuddenly to abandon thoſe principles, and to return to the duties of loyal and peaceable ſubjects; It accordingly appears manifeſt, that, though the exertions of the diſaffected in this country were ſuppreſſed by the vigilance of government acting under the powers entruſted to them by parliament, and by the fear of detection and immediate apprehenſion, yet their diſpoſition remained unaltered; that from the month of May 1799, notwithſtanding the detention of ſeveral of the moſt active members of the late Correſponding Society, others have continued occaſionally to meet, without any form of regular aſſociation, and ſtudiouſly avoiding any conſtant place of aſſembling, or written memorial of their tranſactions. —A principal object at firſt was the collection of money for the relief of the perſons confined under charges of treaſonable and ſeditious practices, with whom they ſeem conſtantly to have preſerved their former connexion.—On the 5th of November 1799, when they began to derive freſh encouragement from the unfavourable events on the Continent, and the evacuation of Holland by the Britiſh troops, a party of them aſſembled to celebrate the anniverſary of *Hardy's* acquittal, on which occaſion they appear firſt to have ventured on a more open avowal of their opinions, and to have indulged in the moſt treaſonable and ſeditious toaſts and ſongs. As yet, however, the miſchief went no farther; and, indeed, during all this period, till late in the laſt year, they ſeem to have deſpaired of any immediate ſucceſs in their projects, for which ſome of them ſuppoſed no favourable opportunity would occur till the reſtoration of peace ſhould, as they hoped, have at once removed the legal reſtraints which now impeded their operations, and brought home ſuch an addition of unemployed hands as would increaſe the exiſting ſcarcity, and add to the prevailing diſcontents.—They felt themſelves, and lamented the effect of the powers entruſted to government by the act for ſuſpending the Habeas Corpus Act: their former leaders were diſperſed and ſecluded, and they apprehended for themſelves a ſimilar fate. Particular events however, of the nature before alluded to, had at different times given ſome encouragement to their views, and diminiſhed their apprehenſions: The ſucceſſes of the enemy in the laſt campaign, the diſappointments of our allies, ſtill more of any enterprize in which this country was more particularly concerned, or any danger which threatened the life or health of their Sovereign, were, as they occurred, a conſtant ſource of ſatisfaction, and of renewed hope and expectation. The health of the Chief Conſul of France, the ſucceſs of his arms, when oppoſed to thoſe of their country; the progreſs of the rupture with the Northern Powers, as a means of impoveriſhing our merchants, and creating diſtreſs and diſcontent among the manufacturers, were among the firſt wiſhes that marked the complexion of their convivial meetings, or expreſſed the malignity of their private reflections. The dearth of proviſions early in the laſt year opened a new field for ſimilar ſpeculations, and the return of it after the laſt harveſt increaſed the inducements and the hope of converting

it to their views; of this, as well as of other public calamities, they were disposed to avail themselves in a way that marks sufficiently the character of those principles which lead the revolutionary enthusiast to overlook, or make him seek to augment the miseries, however extended, of individuals, in the hope of deriving from them the means of subverting existing establishments. They affected, indeed openly, much feeling for the sufferings of the people, and fomented their complaints against the supposed authors of them; but in private they expressed their satisfaction at the continuance of the distress, and were only apprehensive that the cause of the complaint might cease by a return of plenty; they hoped particularly that the scarcity would press hard upon the soldiery, and produce discontent and insubordination; and the better to serve their cause, they did not scruple to hold out the most unwarranted hopes of success in their extensive plans of meditated seduction. They disapproved, indeed, of the disposition to riot which appeared in some places, on account of the scarcity, in the month of September last, as leading to partial and premature insurrection, not sufficiently connected with their own more large and revolutionary views; but they thought a period somewhat later more favourable to their designs, which might be better advanced by a different line of conduct. Under this impression, they promoted a meeting of a most dangerous nature to be held at Kennington Common, on the 9th of November, by a public advertisement, which was stated to government at the time to be issued under their direction: this fact has since been confirmed by a positive deposition upon oath, and by concurrent testimony which has been obtained in consequence of some of the late apprehensions; from all which it also appears that several of the persons above referred to attended, and that the state of the weather alone prevented their being present in greater numbers; other meetings were concerted in different parts of the metropolis or its vicinity, with a view to distract the attention of magistrates, and harass the operations of the military. The first of these, however, failed, in consequence of the information previously afforded to the officers of government, and the presence of magistrates; and the others were prevented by the apprehension of detection, from the reward offered for the conviction of the persons concerned in convening the first. Similar plans were still in agitation in the following month, when a seditious and treasonable hand-bill, in the form of a proclamation, was prepared and circulated by a person lately a leading member of the disaffected societies, and who your Committee have reason to believe was principally concerned in convening the meeting on Kennington Common, a copy of which is annexed to this report.

While such were the views and transactions of the disaffected in England, many of the United Irish, who had either been driven from, or voluntarily quitted their own country, and resorted to London, seem to have resumed their former designs, and to have prepared similar means of carrying them into effect. They certainly boasted of having set on foot the fabrication of those weapons here, which they had used in the disastrous rebellion of their own coun-

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try; and ſeveral pikes, though probably not to the number which they were deſirous their friends ſhould believe, appear certainly to have been made in different parts of the metropolis and its vicinity, and ſhewn on different occaſions among parties of the diſaffected; ſome of thoſe actually engaged in that rebellion undertook to teach the uſe of them; and contracts were actually in agitation with manufacturers, deſcribed to your Committee, for furniſhing the members of the Britiſh Union with daggers at a reaſonable price. No ſpecific place was appointed for the meetings which were held between theſe different deſcriptions of perſons, but ſufficient intimation was conſtantly given to thoſe concerned where they might on moſt occaſions meet the aſſociates of their criminal deſigns.

It was not, however, till the commencement of the preſent year, that a ſettled or combined plan of operations ſeems to have been carried on by any of the perſons above referred to. The act for preventing ſeditious meetings appears to have expired before they were generally aware of the circumſtance; but the knowledge of it, as ſoon as circulated amongſt them, inſpired freſh hopes, and prepared them for leſs concealed operations, though for a time they were checked by the apprehenſion which they expreſſed from the continuance of the law ſuſpending the Habeas Corpus Act: the terror of this prevented their calling general meetings, as had been at firſt ſuggeſted; and it was not till both ſhould be removed that they intended to execute the plan which they had concerted for renewing, in a more dangerous ſhape, their ſecret combinations.

Theſe points gained, a new aſſociation began to be formed; the members of which were bound to each other by an oath, and diſtinguiſhed by a ſign known only to the initiated.

In the formation of this new ſociety, ten men were to have the management of the whole buſineſs, under the title of Executives, who alone held meetings for theſe purpoſes; theſe communicated, by means of a Superintendant, with ten others in each diſtrict, called Conductors, each of whom was to have ten men under him, known only to himſelf; their duty was to ſwear in freſh members, to tranſmit a liſt of their names and places of abode to the Executives, and ſuch money as was collected for the uſe of the ſociety, to the treaſurer. The advantages propoſed from this arrangement were—ſecrecy, from the ſmall number of the Executives, and the celerity in calling large meetings together, through the intervention of the ſubordinate gradation of members, and thus precluding any diſcovery from their aſſociates, by calling them all ſuddenly into action, and having them immediatly under the eye of the principal leaders. A printed addreſs, tending to incite the people to inſurrection, was circulated by ſome of theſe Conductors, whoſe duty was preſcribed in the ſame paper, together with the oath abovementioned, which is inſerted in the Appendix, as alſo another form of the orders given to the Conductors.

The diſcoveries which have been made of ſimilar deſigns, by the ſeizure of papers at fixed places of meeting, induced them to adopt meaſures to defeat in future ſuch means of detection: clubs were formed

formed under the diſguiſe of benefit ſocieties, and in their own it was determined to commit as little as poſſible to writing, to adjourn their meetings to different places, and, according to the plan above-mentioned, to entruſt the management of their deſigns to a very ſelect body, requiring the aſſiſtance of few confidential officers, whoſe duties might be thus ſhortly explained to them, without confiding to the maſs of their aſſociates the actual plans and practices, or even the names of the principal directors. This was the more eaſy, as they no longer affected the diſguiſe of aiming only at the reform of alledged abuſes in the conſtitution or government, which might require long and elaborate diſſertations to explain and enforce. Theſe men wiſhed for no converts but thoſe who, from ſome motive or other, were ready to attempt by force the direct ſubverſion of the Government and Conſtitution of their country. They ſaw in Ireland the example of ſuch a rebellion as they wiſhed to promote here, and they hoped to find in the temporary diſtreſſes of the poorer orders, a motive for engaging in ſuch deſperate attempts. By the commiſſion of what crimes their objects were to be effected, ſeems to to have been a matter of ſmall concern to many of them; private and individual aſſaſſination unqueſtionably was among the meaſures propoſed at ſeveral meetings, as fit to precede or accompany the general riſing: And though your Committee are willing to believe that no great progreſs has been made in preparing for the execution of ſuch atrocious projects, yet it has been diſtinctly proved on oath, that the idea has been frequently thrown out and diſcuſſed, with the deliberate purpoſe of familiarizing it to the minds of the hearers, or preparing them for its adoption, if it ſhould be thought neceſſary.

Near the ſame time, principles of a ſimilar nature were ſtudiouſly promulgated in a ſociety of another deſcription, and diſguiſed by pretexts of a different nature. It was propoſed to meet in convivial parties, as deſcribed by themſelves "after a free and eaſy manner, and without encumbering themſelves with rules, to converſe on the ſubject recommended to them, to provoke inveſtigation, and anſwer objections. The topics they propoſed for diſcuſſion, and recommended for adoption, were ſtated to be contained in a pamphlet publiſhed by one Spence, from whom that ſociety had aſſumed the title of Spenſonians. This recommendation, as well as ſeveral extracts from the work itſelf, will be found in the Appendix, from which it will appear that the principal object of the writer is to recommend the complete extermination of Royalty, Nobility, and Property, for the purpoſe of an equal parochial diviſion of the profits of lands, as the baſis of a "beautiful and powerful new Republic." That this was to be effected by a general inſurrection of the people, for which the revolutionary outrages in France, and the mutiny in our own fleet, were held out as laudable examples."

The act for ſuſpending the Habeas Corpus Act having now expired, all the perſons detained under the ſanction of it, who choſe to enter into recognizances for their future good behaviour, were diſcharged. This was an occaſion of

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too much exultation to the new conſpirators to be paſſed over without ſome mark of diſtinction. A ſupper was accordingly given in honour of thoſe thus liberated, and at which near twenty of them attended.—The temper and objects of thoſe who compoſed this meeting, which was ſolely of a convivial nature, can only be collected from accounts of the public converſation of the company, and the ſentiments conveyed in their toaſts and ſongs with which they were entertained—the latter have been particularly deſcribed to your Committee, and were all of the moſt treaſonable and ſeditious nature; and one of their toaſts was, "The Health of the Chief Conſul of France." The diſcourſe held was ſuited to theſe incentives—plans of inſurrection were openly avowed, and profeſſed to be directed in the firſt inſtance againſt the lives of the chief officers of Government, and to the deſtruction of the Houſe of Correction in Cold Bath Fields. Some of thoſe recently diſcharged avowed their determination to perſiſt in the ſame deſigns, and expreſſed their confidence in the number of their aſſociates, whom they reproached for not having ſooner effected their releaſe by force.

This meeting ſeems to have occaſioned a more confident opinion of their ſtrength, and of the ſucceſs of their ſchemes of ſeduction. They boaſted of the extenſion of their ſociety over different and remote diſtricts of the metropolis. They were not, however, inſenſible to the proceedings of Parliament on the ſubject of the Martial Law Bill in Ireland, which they were apprehenſive might be applied to the ſuppreſſion of their enterprizes here, or, if not, at leaſt that the ſuſpenſion of the Habeas Corpus Act would be renewed, and effectually operate to counteract their deſigns. Under this impreſſion a particular degree of caution was recommended by the Executives, as to the perſons to whom the oath ſhould be adminiſtered—They ſuſpected they were obſerved, and were afraid of being apprehended before their plan was ripe for execution, which they admitted it would not be till they were provided with arms ſufficient for their purpoſe. The ſame apprehenſion operated differently on ſome of the moſt ardent ſpirits of the confederacy, who were ſtill more ſanguine as to the numbers who would join them, and who were deſirous of ſtriking the blow before meaſures could be taken for their ſuppreſſion, and who thought they might ſupply the want of which they complained, by a deſperate attack on ſeveral repoſitories of arms, which would at once deprive the military of the means of reſiſtance, and furniſh themſelves with weapons for attack;—others, not admitted to the ſecrets of the Executives, accuſed them of tardineſs in their operations, and were impatient to be called into action. The more cautious councils, however, prevailed, which were, perhaps, promoted by mutual ſuſpicion, and by the reluctance of ſome, when it came near the point, to engage in outrages of ſuch atrocity.

In the mean time, other meetings, chiefly of a convivial nature, but adapted to the advancement of the ſame objects, continued to be held in various parts of the town, for the expreſs purpoſe (as avowed by one of their aſſociates,) of bring-

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ing together the old members of the Britiſh Union, and of encouraging them to perſevere, by the preſence of their former leaders, now again at large; who on their part agreed to uſe every effort to re-organize that ſociety, and ſome of whom, in furtherance of that plan, appeared at meetings in one diſtrict of the town, as plenipotentiaries from the other. The character of one of the ſociety beforementioned, under the name of "Spenſonians," is ſufficiently marked by toaſts which were given and received with applauſe, and which on that account your Committee have inſerted in their Appendix. On another occaſion, ſome of the more immediate leaders of the new aſſociation met with ſome of the perſons then lately liberated, and one of the moſt active of the latter deſcription gave, under the name of "The tremendous Toaſt," "May the Laſt of Kings be ſtrangled in the bowels of the Laſt of Prieſts!"

At one of the moſt recent meetings a ſupper was given at the expence of ſome unknown patron, to celebrate again the releaſe of the champions of their cauſe; when they were ſtill entertained with the moſt ſeditious ſongs and toaſts, ſufficiently deſcriptive of their attachment to our foreign enemy, and abhorrence to the form of our own conſtitution; ſuch as, "Bonaparte, and Succeſs to the Army of Egypt!"—"The Guillotine, a Cure for the King's Evil!"

The aſſiduity with which theſe perſons attempt to enliſt in their cauſe every claſs of intereſted or viſionary reformers is apparent, not only in the encouragement given to the Spenſonian doctrines of partition of property, which yet they treat as chimerical and abſurd, but alſo in the propagation of religious tenets, which have obtained ſome footing, and which lead (as among the enthuſiaſts in the reign of Charles the Firſt,) to the abrogation of all reſtraint from temporal authority. The doctrine of an approaching Millenium has found many converts, and is glanced at in ſome of the publications already noticed. The leaders of the new aſſociation, many of them ſecretly profeſſing an utter diſbelief in the Chriſtian religion, and even conſidering it as a mark of inciviſm to be poſſeſſed of a Bible, but readily embracing any means of effecting the ſubverſion of all religious eſtabliſhment as a ſtep towards the deſtruction of regal government, willingly lend themſelves to this deluſion, and direct their agents never to advance their own opinions in oppoſition to it, but to reſerve them for the more confidential intercourſe of the deeply initiated, and even to be provided with arguments on both ſides of the queſtion, in order to promote diſcuſſion in places of public reſort, and draw attention to their own doctrines.

On the 19th of April laſt, ſeveral of the perſons above referred to as principals of the new ſociety, were apprehended under a warrant from the Duke of Portland, while holding one of their meetings.—The only papers diſcovered were another printed copy of the paper already referred to, and which had been previouſly tranſmitted to your Committee, and an addreſs ſigned *Hibernicus*, directed to "Britons and Fellow Citizens," inſerted in the Appendix.

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Your Committee have thus detailed the proceedings of the diſaffected carried on in the metropolis, and as directed principally to its diſturbance; but they would afford a very inadequate repreſentation of the extent of the confederacy, if, in proceeding to advert to the ſtate of other parts of the country, and even of Ireland, they omitted to notice the concert which in ſome meaſure pervades the whole, and the ſtriking coincidence of views, and the means of obtaining them. While the diſaffected in London confined themſelves, in the courſe of the laſt autumn, to looſe though violent expreſſions of diſcontent, and endeavoured to evade diſcovery by avoiding any written evidence of their tranſactions, or any certain place of meeting, the ſame precaution was adopted by thoſe of ſimilar principles at Nottingham, accompanied by ſimilar declarations of hopes ariſing from the dearneſs of proviſions, and wiſhes for the aggravation rather than the alleviation of that calamity; and when early in the preſent year a ſyſtematic plan was firſt obſerved here, it firſt began to be rumoured among the diſaffected there.

At the ſame period, ſeditious emiſſaries were firſt detected endeavouring to excite inſurrection among the manufacturers of different parts of Lancaſhire. This was to be done by aſſociating as many as poſſible under the ſanction of an oath nearly ſimilar to that adopted in London, and which, with an account of the ſecret ſign which accompanied it, has been tranſmitted from various quarters to Government, and laid before your Committee. Dangerous meetings were diſguiſed as in London, under the appearance of friendly ſocieties for the relief of ſick members: the perſuaſion of a general revolution ſhortly to take place, and conſequently the inefficacy of all reſiſtance, was ſtudiouſly diffuſed throughout the country, with a view both to excite the diſaffected, and to diſhearten and diſunite the loyal. On the ſame account, the numbers of thoſe engaged in the confederacy were exaggerated, and ſtated ſometimes as amounting to 60,000 trained to military exerciſe, at others, including Ireland, to no leſs than 1,500,000. The diſpoſition of the people in the part of the country alluded to, being previouſly untainted to any extent with ſeditious principles, it was neceſſary to found the hopes of inſurrection chiefly on the preſſure ariſing from the ſcarcity of proviſions. It was this feeling, fomented for other purpoſes by more artful inſtigators, that probably led thoſe who took the oath in queſtion to engage in thoſe ſchemes of inſurrection. The ſeditious emiſſaries well knew, that if they could promote a general riſing of a large proportion of the inhabitants of a populous diſtrict under any pretext, it would be eaſy to draw them on, under more deſperate leaders, to attempt the ſubverſion of every eſtabliſhment of the Conſtitution within their reach, eſpecially if aided by ſimilar exploſions at the ſame time in different parts of the country, and the alarm, or actual exiſtence, of foreign invaſion. Though this was the pretext of diſcontent, they themſelves felt ſo little for the diſtreſſes which they affected to relieve, that they concurred with their aſſociates in other

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places already adverted to; in the wiſh for the aggravation of them, as a more powerful means of exciting popular tumult. The principal of theſe emiſſaries are repreſented as delegated from London, York, Birmingham, Briſtol, Sheffield, and other conſiderable towns, as well as from Ireland, who conducted in private the detail of the conſpiracy, connected with other provincial meetings, and all theſe with one in the metropolis, from whence printed rules for their conduct were expected to be received; and they ſeem to have entertained the ſame deſperate projects of attacking the magiſtrates, and ſeizing the arms of the loyal aſſociations, as were propoſed in London againſt the Government and military force here; and they frequently profeſſed themſelves to be provided with arms, and even uniform cloathing, to a conſiderable extent. At a late period, the buſineſs of theſe ſocieties appears to have been conducted with peculiar caution, by orders iſſued from the head of the diſtrict to two confidential perſons, who aſſociate two others of different claſſes, and having aſſembled in the moſt private manner, iſſue their orders in form of a ticket, to any number whom they think proper to depute on a particular ſervice.

Your Committee have reaſon to believe, not merely from the probability of ſuch a connexion, ariſing from a ſimilarity of meaſures adopted, and the notions entertained on the ſpot; but from the opinion expreſſed by one well acquainted with the progreſs of the conſpiracy, that the Executives in London were in correſpondence with, and probably directed the operations of the emiſſaries in the country.

As the revolutioniſts in London were willing to inliſt under their banners, the religious extravagancies of the day, thoſe in the country availed themſelves of ſimilar prejudices. A ſociety appears to have been formed in part of Yorkſhire, under the title of New Jeruſalemites, whoſe leaders have inſpired them with a belief in the pretended prophecies of Brothers, and who look under his guidance for the ſpeedy commencement of the Millenium.—The views of theſe people ſeem totally unconnected with any political object, though their tenets, leading to an independence on any earthly government, and an expectation of the ſubverſion of the exiſting order of things, would naturally make them indifferent ſpectators at leaſt, if not active inſtruments of any attempt to accompliſh that end.—The profane perverſion of ſcriptural prophecy, attributed to them, and which is noticed in the Appendix, ſufficiently marks the practical danger of ſuch enthuſiaſts, and the uſe which might be made of them in furtherance of any revolutionary ſchemes. Whatever, therefore, might be the objects of the firſt authors of this ſect, the ſcriptural alluſion was adopted by the ſeditious emiſſaries above referred to, and read over to the perſon who was to take the oath, before it was adminiſtered.

The oath above deſcribed was certainly adminiſtered to very large numbers, and the extenſion of it promoted both by offers of money and of military rank in the projected rebellion, to thoſe whoſe exer-

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tions ſhould induce the greateſt number to engage in it. This laſt temptation was particularly addreſſed to the ſoldiery, both of the regular and volunteer corps; to whom a ſet of queries was alſo delivered, a copy of which is inſerted in the Appendix.

The particulars of theſe attempts have been divulged by thoſe on whom they were made, atteſted in legal depoſitions, and one of them has lately been the ſubject of a trial at Lancaſter, in which the fact appears to have been fully proved; but it having been inadvertently ſtated in the indictment, that the oath was adminiſtered in an unlawful aſſembly, inſtead of privately (as was the fact), by a ſingle individual, the proſecution was thus for a time defeated. On the apprehenſion of one of the parties concerned, it ſeems to have been a point for conſideration with his aſſociates, as it had been on ſimilar occaſions in the metropolis, whether they ſhould not ſeize that moment for a general riſing, rather than wait, with the apprehenſion of intermediate detection, till they were better prepared in other reſpects. Though this was not adopted, they announced from time to time a certain period for the inſurrection, which was repreſented as connected with one in Scotland and another in Ireland, all to take place on the ſame day, and which was at laſt appointed for the termination of ſeed-time. Two very numerous popular meetings were meanwhile held in a part of Lancaſhire early in April, apparently calculated to forward theſe deſigns; at one of which a conſiderable number of perſons were obſerved practiſing military exerciſes; but the principal object previous to the general exploſion, if not intended as a part of it, was to convene a general meeting of diſtricts in a central part of the iſland, and particularly of the populous and manufacturing parts of the counties of York, Lancaſter, Cheſter and Derby, near which it was repreſented that a kind of congreſs of delegates, from ſix diſtricts into which the kingdom was divided, had for ſome time been occaſionally ſitting. The lateſt accounts from that part of the country announce, that this aſſembly has actually been held, at which many thouſands from different parts of the country were collected; but the Act for preventing ſeditious meetings having then paſſed, the aſſembly was at length diſperſed by the intervention of the magiſtrates, ſupported by a military force.

Your Committee have abſtained from drawing the attention of the Houſe to any unpremeditated tumults which have unfortunately prevailed in different parts of the country, and particularly in the Weſt of England, on account of the dearneſs of proviſions; conceiving that, although theſe may in their progreſs have been encouraged by the diſaffected, and may have aſſumed an order and concert in their proceedings, from the example of ſecret confederacy, recently practiſed in both parts of the united kingdom, (which ſeems evidently to have formed a part of an extenſive, digeſted, and methodized ſyſtem,) they were originally unconnected with the deſigns traced in this report.

The enterprizes and connections of the new ſociety in the metropolis, were not, however, confined

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to foment the discontents, or encourage the hopes of the disaffected in our own country: they certainly were disposed, if occasion offered, to avail themselves of any assistance that could be derived from the invasion of a foreign enemy, whose aid was solicited by some of their emissaries, both for this country and Ireland, and to whom they held out the hopes of a formidable co-operation from internal insurrection. Towards the end of last year, when, as has been already stated, the hopes of the seditious in England began to revive, it appears that representations were transmitted abroad of the progress of similar discontents in Scotland, by the agents concerned in fomenting them, and that they were described as connected with expected support from the North of England, and particularly with insurrections in London, the plan of which was described "as perfectly organized." On the other hand, hopes were held forth of a projected invasion from Holland on the coasts of England or Scotland, to co-operate with a general insurrection or "explosion," as it was called, to take place at the same moment both in England and Ireland. Early in the present year, when the plan in question is stated as having arrived at maturity in London, an agent from thence appears to have avowed the object of it, without reserve, on the Continent; to have boasted of the progress it had made amongst the suburbs of the metropolis; to have explained the support to be expected from foreign invasion, the design of the insurrection breaking out at the same time in the principal towns of the country, and of the intention of directing the first attack against the Government and Magistrates of the country; and to have communicated these designs, and the means of availing themselves of them, to the Government of the foreign enemy.

Your Committee have next directed their attention to the present situation of Ireland; both as disturbed within and threatened from without, particularly with reference to the necessity of those measures adopted by the parliament of that country before the union for the suppression of the rebellion there, which have since been renewed for a limited period by that of the united kingdom; and also of the manner in which the powers thus given have been exercised, and the effect produced by them. It appears, that though the efforts of the disaffected in that country have happily long ceased to assume the aspect of rebellion, arrayed in the field against the arms of their Sovereign, and though the organization established by the United Irishmen may not have been kept up with any regularity, and that many parts of the kingdom present the usual appearance of peaceful industry and loyal subordination; yet, that at no time have there been wanting in others, demonstrations of the same systematic plan of insurrection, and marked with the same characters of unexampled atrocity. The principal traitors in Dublin continually send their emissaries through the country, to keep up the spirits of the disaffected, by the hopes of support from foreign invasion. About a year since, a new system of association was about to be established, and a new Executive Directory formed in Dublin. This was to originate in a head committee,

Committee, who were to appoint thoſe on whom they could depend to form regiments, of which each colonel was to provide the major and captains, each captain his ſubalterns, and they the private men. The communications were to be verbal, and the buſineſs conducted without elections, debates, or committees. This plot, however, being detected by government, its progreſs was checked, if not entirely ſtopped. It affords a remarkable coincidence with the intelligence above detailed, of what has been paſſing in England, that it appears to have been lately held out to the diſaffected in Ireland, that whenever an inſurrection ſhall take place in that country, which it is intended ſhall be univerſally on the ſame day, a ſimilar exploſion is to be made in ſeveral of the principal towns in England, particularly in London, where they are told the diſaffected are acting on the ſame plans and principles as the United Iriſh. The manner in which the rebellion was originally organized, the ſecret ſprings of the confederacy, which ſet in motion, and directed to every enormity of private and public outrage, ſo large a maſs of the inhabitants, have long been familiar to the Houſe and to the public. The object of it being to diſunite that country from this, by the cooperation of a foreign enemy, it may be imagined that the cauſe will never appear deſperate to thoſe engaged in it, while the continuance of the war ſtill keeps alive the hope of that aſſiſtance, encouraged as it may be from time to time by aſſurances of ſupport from their ally, or at leaſt from thoſe traitors to their country who ſtill form, in the capital of that enemy, a central Committee of rebellion, to inſtigate invaſion on the one hand, and prepare inſurrection on the other. Their emiſſaries are continually paſſing into Ireland for this purpoſe, where two of them are ſuppoſed ſtill to be concealed. The views of this committee, and the means by which they are not aſhamed to endeavour to accompliſh them, will be ſufficiently obvious from the addreſs to the Iriſh ſailors in our fleet, which has been printed in their name, and prepared on the Continent for extenſive circulation. Emiſſaries, on the other hand, have not been wanting from Ireland, to intereſt the French government in ſupport of their cauſe—one particularly has lately paſſed over to the Continent, and opened a direct communication with the enemy, accrediting himſelf with them as being deputed by a great body of the landed intereſt of his country, whom he repreſents as being, like himſelf, ſo diſſatisfied with the Union, that they would engage in any concert with France to procure the means of eſtabliſhing, under the guarantee of that power, ſome new form of repreſentative government. With this view he affords them all the information in his power, of the ſtate of the country, and of the force employed to protect it; and ſuggeſts the amount of that which he recommends to be ſent againſt it. He ſtipulates, however, with his propoſed allies, for the aſſurance of their property to all the preſent poſſeſſors, in oppoſition to any claim of the catholics, whom he ſtates ſtill to look forward with hopes of eſtabliſhing a Popiſh aſcendancy; and it appears that he has been

been given to underſtand, that both the late Directory, and one of the principal miniſters of the preſent Government of France, had coincided in the juſtice and propriety of that ſtipulation.

The peculiarity of this ſituation of Ireland, both in its internal and external relations, would undoubtedly juſtify extraordinary meaſures of precaution, which ſeem called for, not more by attention to the ſecurity of the government at large, than to the happineſs and even exiſtence of the loyal part of the community. The ſyſtem of terror originally adopted by the leaders of the United Iriſh, who firſt publicly recommended aſſaſſination, and then formed committees for the purpoſe of concerting and directing it, has been continued to the preſent hour, ſometimes, as will be ſeen hereafter, with the ſame enormities; at others, with the leſs fatal, though ſcarcely leſs cruel, exceſſes of inhuman beatings and floggings. The oſtenſible objects to which theſe outrages were directed have been different, and are now more frequently, in the firſt inſtance, thoſe of lowering rents, abolition of tithes, regulation of wages, and price of proviſions, than thoſe of an alteration in the form and conſtitution of government. This ſyſtem could only be counteracted by the apprehenſion of prompt and efficacious puniſhment for the guilty, and the ſenſe of ſecurity and protection for the innocent.—The regular courſe of law affording only periodical occaſions of trial, and providing in the interval no effectual means for protecting the witneſſes from ſeduction or intimidation, or the jurymen from outrage, was found inadequate to the preſſure of the caſe; while the extenſion of the miſchief, and the uncertainty where it might next break out into action, required a remedy equally prompt and univerſal.

It appears from the minutes of courts martial held at Rathdrum, Limerick, Clonmell, Wexford and Leixlip, that during the year 1800, the counties of Wicklow and Wexford were infeſted by bodies of rebellious banditti, acting under the orders of regular leaders, and perpetrating from time to time, with every circumſtance of aggravation, the crimes of robbery, burglary, and murder:—that in the counties of Tipperary and Limerick, the practice of breaking into houſes, and cruelly beating or flogging the owners with rods made of thorns, in order to fix an arbitrary and inadequate price on the neceſſaries of life, frequently ending in, or accompanied with premeditated acts of murder, was very prevalent; and had ſpread ſuch terror over the whole country in which it prevailed, as would have baffled all the exertions of the ordinary magiſtracy, if not counteracted by the vigour and energy of the new juriſdiction. The peculiar ſituation of that diſtrict, and the effect of the meaſures adopted to tranquillize it, are ſo fully and ſatisfactorily detailed in the evidence of Mr. Ormſby, a very eminent barriſter, who was deputed by the Lord Lieutenant to preſide at the courts-martial which were to ſit at Limerick, and from whom your committee have been enabled to procure a degree of information, which no other perſon was ſo competent to ſupply, that they wiſh rather to refer to his account, than to impair the preciſion of it by incorporating parts of it in

the body of their Report. They have alſo added, in their Appendix, the evidence of Capt. Bloomfield, aſſiſtant quarter-maſter-general in the ſame diſtrict during that period. Some particulars, however, ariſing out of thoſe trials, ſeem ſo peculiarly characteriſtic of the ſpirit which ſtill unfortunately prevails in that country, that they are deſirous of ſubmitting them to the attention of the Houſe.

It appears eſtabliſhed by ſatisfactory proof, that when a deſperate conſpiracy was formed, for ſurpriſing and maſſacreing a detachment of his Majeſty's troops ſtationed at Cappaghwhite, a principal inducement avowed by thoſe engaged in it, for undertaking ſo hazardous an enterprize, was to demonſtrate the readineſs of that part of the country to engage in rebellion, as a pledge to others, with whom they had not before co-operated, of their readineſs to join them, when they ſhould have reſumed their former treaſonable proceedings; for they thought, as they themſelves expreſſed it, "That Leinſter would never riſe till Munſter would be up, as Munſter did not riſe when Leinſter was up." On another occaſion, the mode by which private aſſaſſination is planned and directed, was clearly developed. The perſons concerned, to the number of fourteen or ſifteen, who from their acts muſt be conſidered as principal conductors of theſe enormities, are found meeting in mid-day, as if by accident, at ſome public-houſe, where they occupy a room upſtairs, and without ſuſpicion enter upon their conſultation of proſcription. One of them preſides as chairman; and each is called upon for informations againſt any loyal ſubjects, for acts which may have incurred their diſpleaſure. The chairman then puts the queſtion, which is determined by holding up of hands, and ſentence of death is regularly paſſed, if the verdict of guilty is pronounced. The mode of execution is then diſcuſſed, whether by a large number to be collected from the neighbourhood, or by a ſelect body of twenty-one, to be collected in parties of ſeven, each from diſtant and remote parts of the country. Other circumſtances have occurred, expreſſive of the terror produced by the apprehenſion of ſuch or the like outrages, and of the impediments neceſſarily produced by it to the courſe of legal inveſtigation. The information of a perſon, who had ſince died of the ſevere beating he had received from one of theſe nocturnal gangs, was produced in evidence againſt them. It was proved by the magiſtrate before whom it was taken, that nothing could induce him to give any account of the perſons concerned, till (at the end of ſome weeks,) he was convinced of his approaching death, and then, at the riſk of the ſame danger to his wife and children, who did all in their power to prevent it, made the diſcloſure. In another inſtance, the perſon beat, not only at the time prevented his daughter from naming the man concerned, putting, as ſhe expreſſed it, his "bloody hand on her mouth, and bidding her hold her tongue;" but on the trial itſelf appeared ſo much under the influence of the ſame terror, as to contradict, with reſpect to the identity of the perſon concerned, the poſitive teſtimony of two of his daughters, whoſe general veracity

neither he nor any other perſon impeached. The motives which lead to the adoption of this ſyſtem of terror, as well as the effect of it, may indeed be eaſily conceived, when it is conſidered that in many inſtances the outrages are committed without any diſguiſe by perſons perfectly well known to the ſufferer, and frequently his immediate neighbours.

In the preſent year, but few inſtances of courts-martial, deciding upon offences committed within that period, have been tranſmitted to your Committee, and thoſe chiefly for the trial of outrages committed in the Wicklow mountains and in the neighbourhood of Dublin. But they have received from the reports of magiſtrates and general officers in moſt parts of the country, up to the lateſt period, accounts which have appeared ſo fully authenticated, and ſo material in themſelves, that they have thought it proper to inſert ſeveral extracts from them in the Appendix to their Report. The nature of much of this, however, as connected with the general ſafety of the Empire, has laid your Committee under ſome difficulty as to the mode of ſubmitting it to the Houſe, leſt, by endeavouring to enable them to appreciate the danger in order to provide for the prevention of it, they ſhould facilitate, either to the foreign or domeſtic enemies of the country, the means of augmenting it; they have thought it moſt prudent therefore to avoid in general the particular deſcription of the counties or diſtricts referred to, as well as the names of the magiſtrates and officers from whom the information is derived.

From the reſult of this it appears, that, in one county, notwithſtanding the general tranquillity that prevails, there is one diſtrict which ſtill perſeveres in legiſlating for itſelf, and enforcing obedience to its own laws. That in another barony in the ſame county, the frequent practice of killing cattle in the night, is repreſented, in the opinion of all the magiſtrates, "as connected with the rebellion which ſo lately prevailed in the country." And recently, a paper has been found upon a man in another barony in the ſame county, dated 24th January, 1801, containing, amongſt other things, ſome oaths expreſſed in terms which deſerve very particular attention.

That a ſimilar diſpoſition exiſts in part of the adjoining county, where it is ſtated, that "nothing but the ſtrongeſt meaſures of government can put down the unquenched flame of rebellion, while any expectation is entertained of French aid;" and that the ſame county is ſtill infeſted with gangs of armed robbers, who commit frequent exceſſes. That the practice of proſcribing new tenants of lands, and fixing the rent of them by public notice in ſome fictitious name, ſtill prevails, and has been recently enforced by atrocious acts of murder; that in the perpetration of it, the ſame mode appears to have been adopted, which has been before noticed in the Appendix, as facilitating ſimilar outrages, by conveying the gang to or from a conſiderable diſtance—by carrying off, for that purpoſe, the beſt horſes they can find. And your Committee think it material to obſerve, that this practice of horſe-ſtealing, which has been prevalent to a great degree in different parts of Ireland,

appears to have proceeded, not ſo much from the motives which lead to particular acts of theft or robbery in other countries, as from a ſyſtematic deſign in the diſaffected, to acquire the means of more readily executing their atrocious projects againſt the government of the country, as well as againſt the lives and property of individuals, whom they may have marked out as their victims.

That, in another adjoining county, the practice of flogging, to induce an arbitrary cheapneſs of proviſions, often attended with robbery, ſtill prevails, conducted in ſome inſtances by a banditti of two hundred men armed and mounted. That a difficulty is found in procuring the aſſiſtance of the magiſtrates; and that, in conſequence of theſe outrages, the corps of yeomanry are ordered on permanent duty. And this information comes from a general officer, who had, at the beginning of the ſame month, repreſented the general tranquillity of that part of the country.

That two counties, in another province, have been ſubject to depredations of the moſt alarming kind, accompanied with murder where reſiſtance was found or expected. A general tendency to diſorder, among the lower claſs, is ſtated to exiſt; and the diſpoſition to rebellion itſelf not to have been extinguiſhed.

That in another county, though diſturbed by no murders or plunder of fire-arms, and though the ordinary courſe of law has there been found competent to bring to trial and capital conviction not leſs than twenty at the laſt aſſizes; yet that no juries would have ventured to give the verdicts they did, but for the protection afforded them under the Martial Law Act. That ſtill apprehenſions are entertained of projected miſchief, for which the lower orders are ſuppoſed not to be unprepared. That in a part of the county, a new aſſociation has lately been formed, formerly called "Defenders," but now diſtinguiſhed by the name of "*Finiſh-alls.*"

That in another county, for a year paſt, one whole barony has been tributary to and in poſſeſſion of an armed banditti of about fifty perſons, under two known leaders, who regularly exerciſe their men, ſtation their pickets, and march, to the ſound of a horn, to the commiſſion of all ſorts of outrages, and declare their intention of perſiſting till a general riſing may enable them to overturn the exiſting conſtitution and government.

From part of another province ſimilar repreſentations are made of the ſtate of the public mind; and actual information has been received, of a gang of one hundred and ſeventy men, embodied and practiſing regular exerciſe with poles repreſenting pikes, adapted to a body formed three deep, and calculated to reſiſt the charge of cavalry; and that in many diſtricts the country remains organized as before the rebellion; and that through the whole province means have lately been taken of communicating with the former leaders of the United Iriſh.

Other inſtances have occurred, where the proceedings appear to your Committee to be too notorious to require the caution which they have hitherto uſed in concealing the name of the place. Among theſe it has appeared, that out-

ſtanding rebels ſtill continue their depredations in the county of Wicklow; that though when military poſts were eſtabliſhed in the mountains laſt ſummer, they divided themſelves into ſeveral parties, yet a connection is ſtill kept up between them, and they frequently join, and ſometimes change places. That innumerable robberies were committed by them during the laſt winter, though few perſons had fortitude enough to give information or even to confeſs any knowledge of the perſons concerned, when examined by magiſtrates for that purpoſe, owing chiefly to the terror inſpired by the murder of four witneſſes, who were all ſhot in one pariſh toward the end of 1799 and beginning of 1800: that known leaders of the former rebellion, who have either availed themſelves of the pardon, or eſcaped from juſtice, are ſtill at large, and conſidered as a rallying point for the ſeditious on any future opportunity of inſurrection; one of whom had the audacity to propoſe a treaty with the magiſtrates for his ſurrender, on the terms of remiſſion of the ſentence under which his brother was to ſuffer for an atrocious crime, but which he afterwards refuſed to fulfil.

The robbery of the mail in Kildare, in the month of April laſt, by a gang of eighteen or nineteen armed men, who commenced their attack by a volley of muſquetry, is a ſtriking inſtance of the manner in which theſe outrages are committed; and a recent and well known tranſaction of the moſt atrocious nature, in the county of Tipperary, proves that the ſyſtem of ſecret proſcription and delegated aſſaſſination is ſtill in force, ſupported either by the concurrence of extenſive conſidency, or the effects of general intimidation. Your Committee refer to the murder of Mr. Price, who having taken a farm againſt the wiſhes of thoſe who take upon them to regulate the rents of land, received a written intimation, which appears, from the evidence of a Member of this Houſe, to have been to the following purport;

"Liberty Hall.

"Take notice, that you have been tried and convicted of having taken —— Farm—You have been ſentenced to death—You are to give up the farm, otherwiſe the warrant for your execution is in the hands of the executioner.

"Given at the Council Chamber."

This account, the Member received from the brother of the deceaſed, who ſhewed him another letter to the ſame effect, which was ſerved on a tenant of Mr. Price at the ſame time, who in conſequence fled the country. Mr. Price was within a few days, in the open fields, at noon, fired at and murdered by a ſingle individual, who was ſuffered to depart at his leiſure, without any endeavour being made to detain him, though many people were at work at no great diſtance.

Having already ſtated the grounds of the neceſſity for reſorting to the meaſure authoriſed by the Martial Law Act, and noticed the effects which have enſued from its adoption, your Committee have only to ſubmit to the Houſe an account of the manner in which it appears to have been carried into effect. They have been furniſhed with minutes of forty courts-martial held under the authority of that

law

law in the year 1800, at which ſeventy priſoners were tried; and of fourteen in the preſent year, at which twenty-four were tried. They find the court was, in none of thoſe inſtances, conſtituted of leſs than five, and in moſt of ſeven officers, in one of nine, and in another of twelve: that at Limerick, where there were only five, Mr. Ormſby, above referred to, preſided as Judge Advocate, whoſe conduct is completely detailed in the Appendix: that, in other inſtances, a profeſſional man alſo attended; in ſome, a Captain acted as Judge Advocate: that in one, in which an Enſign acted as ſuch, the Court conſiſted of a Lieutenant Colonel, two Captains, and four Lieutenants. That at Rathdrum, the only place where no one attended as ſuch, the Judges were, a field Officer, and ſix Captains. That the ſentences were in all caſes tranſmitted to the Lord Lieutenant, who appears frequently, in caſes of difficulty, to have referred them to the Law Officers; and who always ſignified his confirmation or alteration of the ſentence in his own hand writing. The reſult of the above-mentioned fifty-four ſentences upon the ninety-four priſoners is as follows:

Sentence of Courts Martial.	Perſons.
Acquitted	24
Impriſonment	2
Fine of 100*l.*	1
Whipping	9
Service abroad	5
Tranſportation	19
Death	34
	94

Ultimate Sentence.	
Releaſed	1
Releaſed	1
Remitted	1
Reduced 200 laſhes to 100	1
Do. 500 do. to 75	5
Ordered for general ſervice	3
Remitted	2
Changed for tranſportation	12
Pardoned	2
	30

On the whole of this part of the ſubject, and on a full conſideration of the exiſting evil, of the adequate remedy, and of the means of adminiſtering it, your Committee are unanimouſly of opinion, that they ſhould be inſenſible to every ſuggeſtion of preventive policy and protecting legiſlation, if they did not earneſtly recommend to the Houſe the continuance of the law in queſtion.

Your Committee having thus laid before the Houſe the reſult of their inveſtigation into the matters referred to them, deem it an indiſpenſable duty, before they conclude, to call the particular attention of the Houſe to a conſideration which appears to them of the moſt urgent importance, with a view to the efficacy of the meaſures adopted for counteracting the dangerous and deſperate projects which they have deſcribed.

They have already ſtated, that much of the information which has enabled the government from time to time to detect and guard againſt theſe projects, is of a nature, which

cannot ever, without extreme inconvenience or danger, be diſcloſed. The ſafety of individuals, who, reſting on the faith of government, have, with great hazard to themſelves, contributed, by their ſecret communications, to avert the public danger, would too probably, in many inſtances, be ſacrificed by ſuch a diſcloſure. Many of the ſecret channels of authentic information, from which ſo much advantage has been derived at critical periods, would be cloſed for the future; and the effect intended by the legiſlature, in renewing the ſuſpenſion of the Habeas Corpus Act, would be, in a great degree, if not wholly, defeated; while ſources of intelligence would be laid open to the obſervation of our foreign and domeſtic enemies, which it is highly material to the permanent intereſts of the public carefully to conceal.

The peculiar caution adopted by the preſent conſpirators, and noticed in the former part of this Report, by which the knowledge of their plans and operations, and even of their places of meeting, is endeavoured to be confined to a very ſelect body, who avoid as much as poſſible all written evidence of their tranſactions, affords at this time an additional motive for preſerving the means of diſcovery. It is obvious, therefore, that the greateſt inconvenience and miſchief might ariſe from any proceeding which would ſubject the government to the indiſpenſable neceſſity of making public the information and evidence on which they muſt in many inſtances have acted, in the exerciſe of the powers entruſted to them, of committing and detaining perſons for ſuſpicion of treaſon and treaſonable practices. On the other hand, your Committee are aware, that without bringing forward ſuch evidence, it would be impoſſible for the government to exhibit and explain the true grounds of their conduct, ſo as to juſtify themſelves againſt a charge, however ill-founded it might be, of any undue exerciſe of thoſe powers. It is indeed true, (as has been already ſtated,) and it has been moſt ſatisfactory to your Committee to obſerve, that the information on which government in the firſt inſtance proceeded, has been confirmed by ſo many collateral and cotemporary ſources of poſitive information, as well as by ſubſequent facts, as to leave no doubt of its authenticity. But while theſe circumſtances of confirmation ſhew in the ſtrongeſt manner the value and importance of the information thus obtained, and the advantage which has been derived to the public ſecurity from the uſe made of it, they furniſh additional reaſon for not ſuffering particulars of ſo delicate and perilous a nature to be made public. At the ſame time the Committee think it right to call the attention of the Houſe, to the comparatively ſmall number of perſons detained, and to the effect happily produced in preſerving the peace of the country, in ſpite of that reſtleſs and perſevering ſpirit which under ſo many trying circumſtances has laboured to diſturb it. This conſideration of itſelf furniſhes a ſtrong preſumption that theſe powers have, on the whole, been cautiouſly and ſparingly, but at the ſame time judiciouſly exerciſed; But your Committee beg to have

have it underſtood, that their opinion does not reſt on this general preſumption; they have thought it a material part of their duty to inveſtigate, carefully and minutely, the grounds on which the ſeveral perſons who were in cuſtody have been apprehended and detained: and they are bound in conſequence to ſtate their deliberate opinion, that the warrants for apprehenſion were not iſſued but upon ſuch ground of ſuſpicion as at leaſt juſtified bringing the parties for examination; that, according to the reſult of ſuch examination, and further inquiry, they were either diſcharged or bailed, or finally committed; and that ſuch commitments were in all caſes founded either on ſuch clear and poſitive charges, ſupported by oath, or by authentic documents, or on ſuch grave and ſolid grounds of ſuſpicion ariſing out of the circumſtances of the caſe, as abundantly warranted the proceedings; and that government could not have forborne in any inſtance the exerciſe of thoſe powers, without a criminal and dangerous neglect and diſregard of the public peace and ſafety.

Under theſe circumſtances, your Committee cannot forbear ſubmitting to the wiſdom of the Houſe, the propriety of ſuch an act of indemnity as may protect all perſons concerned in theſe commitments from the effects of any legal proceeding, without ſubjecting them to the neceſſity, either of ſuffering for a conduct in itſelf meritorious, or of diſcloſing, in their own defence, thoſe particulars, which every conſideration of humanity, good faith, and policy, muſt render it their duty to conceal.

Papers *preſented to the Houſe of Commons by Lord* Hawkeſbury *reſpecting* Egypt.

No. I.

Secret Order to Vice-Admiral Lord Keith, dated 15th Dec. 1799.

By the Commiſſioners for executing the office of Lord High Admiral of Great Britain and Ireland, &c.

WHEREAS the Right Hon. Lord Grenville, one of his Majeſty's Principal Secretaries of State, has acquainted us, by his letter of this day's date, that a diſpatch has been received from Lord Elgin, his Majeſty's Ambaſſador at Conſtantinople, ſtating that the Commander of the French army in Egypt had made propoſals to the Turkiſh government, offering to evacuate that country, upon condition of being ſuffered to return unmoleſted to France; that the Turkiſh government appeared diſpoſed to acquieſce in this offer, and that application had been made to his lordſhip, requeſting him to grant paſſports for this purpoſe: and whereas, in conſequence of this information, Lord Grenville has ſignified to us his Majeſty's commands, that inſtructions ſhould be given to the Commander in Chief of his Majeſty's fleet in the Mediterranean, enjoining him not to conſent, on any account, to the return of the French army to France, or to their capitulating in any other manner than jointly to the Allied Powers whoſe forces are employed againſt them, or upon any other terms than that of giving up their arms and ſurrendering as priſoners of war to the Allied Forces ſo employed: your lordſhip is hereby required and directed, in purſuance

of

of his Majesty's commands as above signified, to govern yourself accordingly, and on no account to consent to the return of the French army in Egypt to France, or to their capitulating, excepting on the conditions above specified.

In case of the surrender of the army on those terms, your lordship is on no account to admit of the return to France of the officers, or any part of the army, on an engagement not to serve until exchanged; the fallacy of all such engagements, and the bad faith with which they have been observed by the enemy, having been proved by repeated instances, particularly in the case of the seamen taken in the battle of the Nile, and afterwards landed in Egypt: but in any such capitulation, to take care that a stipulation be made for the actual detention of the officers and men, as prisoners of war, in some part of the territories of the Allied Powers, until they shall be exchanged; that the vessels of every description, belonging to the enemy, in the port of Alexandria, shall also be surrendered, and be divided amongst the Allies, in proportion to the naval force which each of them may have employed at that time in the blockade of Alexandria, or in any other operations against the enemy.

If it should so happen, that his Majesty's Ambassador at Constantinople should have granted passports before his Majesty's pleasure in this respect can have been signified to him, your lordship is in such case to direct the commanders of his Majesty's ships of war under your orders, who may fall in with any vessels having on board any of the enemy's troops, and being furnished with such passports, to declare to the commanding officer of such troops, that the said passports are of no validity, not being given, as the laws of war require, by persons having any authority for that purpose; but that in this case they should not exercise any other act of hostility against such ships, or the troops therein embarked, than what may be necessary in order to compel the vessel to return with the troops to Alexandria.

Your lordship is to communicate these determinations by a flag of truce, with as little delay as possible, to the French army in Egypt; unless you, or the officer employed by you for that purpose, shall have certain information that the whole negotiation has been broken off, and that there is no longer any question of such separate and unauthorised capitulation.

Given under our hands the 15th December, 1799.

SPENCER,
J. GAMBIER,
W. YOUNG.

Right Hon. Lord Keith, K. B. Vice Admiral of the Red, &c. &c. &c. Mediterranean.

By command of their lordships,
EVAN NEPEAN.

No. II.

Secret Order to Vice Admiral Lord Keith, dated 28th March, 1800.

By the Commissioners for executing the office of Lord High Admiral of Great Britain and Ireland, &c.

The Right Hon. Lord Grenville, one of his Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State, having, in his letter of this day's date, acquainted us, that in consequence of

of the information contained in the diſpatches lately received from your lordſhip, the Earl of Elgin, and Sir Sidney Smith, relative to the capitulation of the French army in Egypt, his Majeſty had been pleaſed to ſignify his commands, that inſtructions ſhould be tranſmitted to your lordſhip, expreſſing his Majeſty's diſapprobation of the terms entered into by the ſaid capitulation, thoſe terms appearing to his Majeſty to be more advantageous to the enemy than their ſituation entitled them to expect, and being likely to prejudice the intereſts of the Allies, by reſtoring to the French government the ſervices of a conſiderable and diſciplined body of troops; that beſides this objection to the terms, his Majeſty does not conſider Capt. Sir Sidney Smith as having been authoriſed either to enter into, or to ſanction any ſuch agreement in his Majeſty's name, that officer having had no ſpecial authority for that purpoſe, and the caſe not being one in which the Captain commanding his Majeſty's ſhips on the coaſt of Egypt, ought to have taken upon himſelf to enter into an agreement of this nature, without the ſanction of his commanding officer; but that, as the General commanding the enemy's troops appears to have treated him as a perſon whom he *bona fide* conceived to poſſeſs ſuch authority, and as a part of the treaty was immediately to be executed by the enemy, ſo that, by annulling this tranſaction, (in as far as his Majeſty's officer was a party thereto,) the enemy could not be replaced in the ſame ſituation in which he before ſtood, his Majeſty, from a ſcrupulous regard to the public faith, has judged it proper that his officers ſhould abſtain from any act inconſiſtent with the engagements to which Capt. Sir Sidney Smith has erroneouſly given the ſanction of his Majeſty's name.

And whereas Lord Grenville has at the ſame time acquainted us, that with this view he ſhall tranſmit to the Earl of Elgin his Majeſty's commands to ſettle with the Porte the form of a paſſport to be given in the name of his Majeſty, not as a party to the capitulation, but as an ally to the Porte; and that it is his Majeſty's further pleaſure the ſaid paſſports, as well as thoſe which may have been in the interval (however informally) granted by Sir Sidney Smith, are to be reſpected by his Majeſty's officers; but that although, from the conſideration above-mentioned, his Majeſty does not think proper to obſtruct the execution of this treaty by the Porte in the manner therein ſtipulated, he does not feel himſelf bound to authorize his officers to take any active part in it, or to furniſh any convoy or tranſports for its execution, or to take any other ſhare in carrying it into effect; yet, if any application ſhould be made to your lordſhip, for liberty to ſend cartel ſhips from France to Egypt, for the tranſport of the army under the capitulation, your lordſhip is to grant ſuch paſſports accordingly, under ſuch reſtrictions and precautions as you may judge neceſſary, according to circumſtances. To prevent this liberty being abuſed to any other purpoſe, we do, in purſuance of his Majeſty's commands, as above ſignified, hereby require and direct your lordſhip to govern yourſelf accordingly, and to give the neceſſary orders in conſequence to the com-

commanders of his Majeſty's ſhips and veſſels under your command, taking care at the ſame time to apprize Capt. Sir Sidney Smith of his Majeſty's pleaſure on the ſubject of his proceedings herein; and in caſe your lordſhip ſhould ſee any ground to apprehend any intention on the part of the Turks, or of the Ruſſians, to prevent the execution of the capitulation, or to commit any act of hoſtility againſt the French army, either before or after its embarkation, we do farther direct your lordſhip, in ſuch caſe, to uſe your utmoſt endeavours to perſuade them to all ſuch meaſures as may be moſt conſiſtent with the faithful obſervance of the engagement contracted with the enemy.

Given under our hands the 28th March, 1800.

SPENCER,
J. GAMBIER,
W. YOUNG.

To the Right Hon. Lord Keith, K. B. Vice Admiral of the Red, &c. &c. &c.

By command of their lordſhips,
EVAN NEPEAN.

No. III.
Is the French original, of which

No. IV.
Is a tranſlation:

Convention for the evacuation of Egypt, concluded between Citizens Deſſaix, General of Diviſion, and Pouſſielque, Adminiſtrator General of Finance, Plenipotentiaries on the part of the General in Chief Kleber; and their Excellencies Muſtapha Reſchid Effendi Tefterdar, and Muſtapha Raſſiche Effendi Reinſal Kiuttah, Miniſters Plenipotentiary on the part of his Highneſs the Supreme Vizier.

The French army in Egypt, wiſhing to give a proof of its deſire to ſtop the effuſion of blood, and to terminate the unhappy difference which has ariſen between the French Republic and the Sublime Porte, conſents to evacuate Egypt agreeably to the terms of the preſent Convention, hoping that this conceſſion may lead to the general pacification of Europe.

Art. I. The French army will withdraw itſelf, with arms, baggage, and effects, to Alexandria, Roſetta, and Aboukir, in order to be there embarked and ſent to France, as well in its own ſhips, as in thoſe it may be neceſſary for the Sublime Porte to furniſh for this purpoſe; and in order that theſe ſhips may be the more ſpeedily prepared, it is agreed, that one month after the ratification of the preſent Convention, a Commiſſary with a ſuite of fifty perſons ſhall be ſent on the part of the Sublime Porte to the caſtle of Alexandria.

Art. II. There ſhall be an armiſtice in Egypt during three months, counting from the date of ſignature of the preſent Convention; and in caſe of the truce expiring before the ſaid ſhips to be furniſhed by the Sublime Porte ſhall be ready, the truce ſhall be prolonged until the embarkation be completely effected. It is underſtood, that all poſſible means ſhall be employed to prevent the tranquillity of the army and inhabitants who are the objects of this truce from being diſturbed.

Art. III. The tranſportation of the French army ſhall take place conformably to the regulations of the Commiſſaries named for that purpoſe by the Sublime Porte, and by the General in Chief Kleber;

and

and if, at the embarkation, any diſcuſſion ſhould ariſe upon this ſubject between the Commiſſaries, another ſhall be named by Commodore Sir Sidney Smith, who ſhall decide the difference according to the maritime regulations of England.

Art. IV. The forts of Cathié and Salahié ſhall be delivered up by the French troops on the eighth day, or at fartheſt on the tenth day after the ratification of the preſent Convention; the town of Manſoura ſhall be evacuated on the fifteenth day; Damietta and Belbeys on the twentieth day: Suez ſhall be evacuated ſix days previous to the evacuation of Cairo; the other places ſituated on the eaſtern bank of the Nile ſhall be evacuated on the tenth day: the Delta ſhall be evacuated fifteen days after the evacuation of Cairo; the weſtern bank of the Nile and its dependencies ſhall remain in the hands of the French until the evacuation of Cairo: and moreover, as theſe places are to be occupied by the French army until the troops ſhall have retired from Upper Egypt, the ſaid weſtern bank and its dependencies need not be evacuated till the expiration of the truce, if it ſhould be impoſſible to evacuate them ſooner. The places evacuated by the army ſhall be delivered to the Sublime Porte in the ſtate they are now in.

Art. V. The town of Cairo ſhall be evacuated in the ſpace of forty days, if it be poſſible, and at the fartheſt in forty-five days, counting from the day of the ratification of the preſent Convention.

Art. VI. It is expreſsly agreed, that the Sublime Porte ſhall take ſpecial care that the French troops from the different places on the weſtern Bank of the Nile, who ſhall retire with arms and baggage towards their head-quarters, ſhall not be diſturbed or moleſted during their march, in their perſons, their property, or their honour, either by the inhabitants of Egypt, or by the troops of the Imperial Ottoman army.

Art. VII. In conſequence of the above article, and to prevent all diſſenſion or hoſtilities, meaſures ſhall be taken to keep the Turkiſh troops always at a ſufficient diſtance from the French troops.

Art. VIII. As ſoon as the preſent Convention ſhall be ratified, all the Turks, and people of other nations without diſtinction, who are ſubjects of the Sublime Porte, and are impriſoned or detained in France, or that are in the power of the French in Egypt, ſhall be ſet at liberty; and reciprocally all Frenchmen detained or impriſoned in the towns and ports of the Ottoman Empire, as well as all perſons of whatever nation they be, who are attached to the French legations and conſulſhips, ſhall be alſo ſet at liberty.

Art. IX. The reſtitution of the property and poſſeſſions of the inhabitants and ſubjects on both ſides, or the reimburſement of their value to the proprietors, ſhall commence immediately after the evacuation of Egypt, and ſhall be ſettled at Conſtantinople by Commiſſaries named reſpectively for that object.

Art. X. No inhabitant of Egypt, of whatever religion he may be, ſhall be moleſted, either in his perſon or property, on account of the connections he may have had with the French whilſt they occupied Egypt.

Art.

Art. XI. The neceſſary paſſports, ſafeguards, and convoys, to ſecure the return of the French army to France, ſhall be furniſhed, as well by the Sublime Porte, as the other Allied Courts, namely thoſe of Ruſſia and Great Britain.

Art. XII. The Sublime Porte and her Allies promiſe that the French army ſhall not be in anywiſe moleſted, from the time of its embarkation, until its return to the Continent of France; and General Kleber and the French army on their parts promiſe not to commit any hoſtility during the above time, either againſt the fleets or territories of the Sublime Porte, or her Allies; and that the ſhips which convey the ſaid army ſhall not ſtop on any other coaſt but that of France, except in caſe of abſolute neceſſity.

Art. XIII. In conſeqnence of the truce of three months above ſtipulated with the French army for the evacuation of Egypt, the contracting parties agree, that if during the ſaid truce any French ſhips ſhould enter the port of Alexandria, unknown to the Commander of the allied fleets, they ſhall quit it, after having obtained the neceſſary ſupplies of water and proviſions, and return to France, being furniſhed with paſſports from the Allied Courts; and in caſe any ſuch ſhips ſhould be in want of repairs, thoſe only may remain until their repairs ſhall be completed, and ſhall depart immediately after for France, in like manner as aforeſaid, by the firſt favourable wind.

Art. XIV. The General in Chief, Kleber, may immediately ſend an aviſo to France, to which the neceſſary ſafeguards ſhall be granted, in order that the ſaid aviſo may adviſe the French government of the evacuation of Egypt.

Art. XV. It being acknowledged that the French army will require daily ſubſiſtence during the three months in which it is to evacuate Egypt, and for three other months, to be reckoned from the day of its embarkation, it is agreed that the neceſſary quantities of corn, meat, rice, barley, and ſtraw, ſhall be furniſhed according to the eſtimate now delivered by the French Plenipotentiaries, as well for the time it ſhall remain, as for its voyage; ſuch portion of the above quantity as the army may have taken out of its magazines, after the ratification of the preſent Convention, ſhall be deducted from the quantity to be furniſhed by the Sublime Porte.

Art. XVI. From the day of the ratification of the preſent Convention, the French army ſhall not levy any contribution whatever in Egypt; but, on the contrary, it ſhall relinquiſh to the Sublime Porte the ordinary contributions that ſhall remain to be levied until its departure, as well as the camels, dromedaries, ſtores, guns, and other articles belonging to it, which it may not think proper to take away; as alſo the magazines of corn proceeding from contributions already levied, and finally the magazines of proviſions. Theſe objects ſhall be examined and valued by the Commiſſaries ſent to Egypt for this purpoſe, by the Sublime Porte, and by the Commander of the Britiſh forces, conjointly with the perſons appointed by the General in Chief, Kleber, and received by the firſt, at the rate of valuation

tion ſo made, to the amount of three thouſand purſes *, which will be neceſſary to accelerate the movement and embarkation of the French army. And if the objects above-named ſhould not produce this ſum, the deficit ſhall be advanced by the Sublime Porte, as a loan, which ſhall be reimburſed by the French government, on the drafts of the Commiſſaries appointed by the General in Chief, Kleber, to receive the ſaid ſum.

Art. XVII. The French army having ſome diſburſements to make in evacuating Egypt, it ſhall receive, after the ratification of the preſent Convention, the ſum above ſtipulated, in the following order; namely,

On the 15th day . . 500 purſes.
On the 30th day . . 500 purſes.
On the 40th day . . 300 purſes.
On the 50th day . . 300 purſes.
On the 60th day . . 300 purſes.
On the 70th day . . 300 purſes.
On the 80th day . . 300 purſes.
On the 90th day . . 500 purſes.

Each purſe of five hundred Turkiſh piaſtres, which ſhall be received as a loan from the perſons appointed for this purpoſe by the Sublime Porte: and to facilitate the execution of the above arrangement, the Sublime Porte ſhall ſend Commiſſaries to Cairo, and to the other towns occupied by the armies, immediately after the exchange of the ratifications.

Art. XVIII. The contributions which the French may have levied after the date of the ratifications, and before the notification of the preſent Convention in different quarters of Egypt, ſhall be deducted from the amount of the three thouſand purſes above ſtipulated.

Art. XIX. To facilitate and accelerate the evacuation of the ports, the navigation ſhall be free during the three months truce, for the French tranſport ſhips which are in the ports of Egypt, from Damietta and Roſetta to Alexandria, and from Alexandria to Damietta and Roſetta.

Art. XX. The ſecurity of Europe requiring the greateſt precautions to prevent the contagion of the plague being carried thither, no perſon having or ſuſpected of having that malady ſhall be embarked; but thoſe afflicted with it, or with any other diſorder that will not permit their being embarked within the time agreed upon for the evacuation, ſhall remain in the hoſpital where they may then be, under the ſafeguard of his Highneſs the Supreme Vizier, and ſhall be taken care of by French phyſicians, who ſhall remain with them until their recovery permits of their departure, which ſhall take place as ſoon as poſſible; and the Articles XI. and XII. of this Convention, ſhall be applied to them in like manner as to the reſt of the French army; and the Commander in Chief of the French army engages to give the ſtricteſt orders to the officers commanding the troops embarked, not to permit the ſhips to diſembark them in any other ports but ſuch as ſhall be indicated by the phyſicians, as affording the greateſt facilities to perform the neceſſary and cuſtomary quarantine.

Art. XXI. All difficulties which may ariſe, and which may not have been foreſeen in the preſent Con-

* A purſe is about £. 40 ſterling; 3000 amount to about £. 120,000, at a medium.

vention,

vention, ſhall be terminated amicably between the Commiſſaries delegated for this purpoſe, by the Supreme Vizier, and by the General in Chief, Kleber, in ſuch manner as may facilitate and accelerate the evacuation.

Art. XXII. The preſent Convention ſhall not be valid until after the reſpective ratifications, which ſhall be exchanged within eight days, after which ratifications the preſent Convention ſhall be religiouſly obſerved by both parties.

Done, ſigned and ſealed with our reſpective ſeals, at the Camp of Conference near El-Ariſch, the 4th Pluvioſe, 8th year of the French Republic, 24th January, 1800 (O. S.) and the 28th of the moon Chaban, in the year Hegira, 1214.

(Signed)

The General of Diviſion, DESSAIX,
The Adminiſtrator General of Finance, POUSSIELQUE,
Plenipotentiaries from the General in Chief, KLEBER,
And their Excellencies.

MUSTAPHA RESCHID EFFENDI, Hiuttab. Teſtudar, and
MUSTAPHA RASSICHE EFFENDI, Reijou,
Plenipotentiaries from his Highneſs the Supreme VIZIER.

A true Copy.
(Signed) *C. Pouſſielque. Deſſaix.*

Certified tranſlation from the Original delivered to me by the French Commiſſioners,
W. SIDNEY SMITH.

No. V.

Mr. Smith's and Sir Sidney Smith's Full Powers.

GEORGIUS R.

Georgius Tertius, Dei Gratiâ Magnæ Britanniæ, Franciæ, et Hiberniæ Rex, Fidei Defenſor, Dux Brunſvicenſis et Luneburgenſis, Sacri Romani Imperii Archi Theſaurarius et Princeps Elector, &c. omnibus et ſingulis ad quos præſentes hæ literæ pervenerint ſalutem! CUM in præſenti rerum publicarum ſtatû tam nobis quam auguſtiſſimo et invictiſſimo Principi Sultano Selim Turcici Regni Dominatori Potentiſſimo Imperii Orientis Monarcho, è re communi viſum ſit, tractatum inire quo amicitia inter nos firmeter et augeatur, atque mutuæ ſecuritati melius conſulatur et provideatur; cumque ad hoc opus per agendum et ad exoptatum exitum per ducendum operâ uti duxerimus perquàm fidelium et delectorum nobis Gulielmi Sidney Smith, Regii Militaris Ordinis de Enſe Equitis, et in exercitu regio noſtro navali præfecti, ac etiam Johannis Spencer Smith, Armigeri, Miniſtri Plenipotentiarii noſtri partes hoc tempore apud aulam ſupradicti auguſtiſſimi et invictiſſimi Principis Sultani Selim ſubſtinentis, virorum probatæ nobis fidei, ac in rebus gerendis induſtriæ ſolertiæ et prudentiæ. Sciatis igitur, quod Nos eoſdem, vel eorum quemvis quem ad aulam ſupradicti invictiſſimi Principis adeſſe contigerit, conſtituimus, fecimus, et ordinavimus, ac per præſentes conſtituimus fecimus et ordinamus noſtros veros certos et indubitatos Commiſſarios Procuratores et Plenipotentiarios, vel Commiſſarium Procuratorem et Plenipotentiarium: Dantes et concedentes iiſdem conjunctim, vel

eorum

eorum cuivis ſeparatim quem ſcilicet ad aulam ſupradicti invictiſſimi Principis adeſſe contigerit, omnem et omnimodam facultatem poteſtatem et auctoritatem pro nobis et noſtro nomine cum miniſtro miniſtriſve ex parte ſupradicti auguſtiſſimi et invictiſſimi Sultani Selim, plenâ itidem poteſtate munito vel munitis congrediendi et colloquendi ac de prædicti tractatus conditionibus tractandi et conveniendi, eaque omnia quæ ita conventa et concluſa fuerint pro nobis et noſtro nomine ſignandi, ac eadem mutuo extradendi recipiendique; reliquaque omnia ad opus ſupradictum debitè exequendum factu neceſſariæ præſtandi perficiendique, tam amplo modo et formâ ac noſmet ipſi ſi intereſſemus facere et præſtare poſſemus, ſpondentes, et in verbo regio noſtro promettentes, nos quæcunque vi præſentium concludi et ſignari contigerint, rata grata et accepta omni meliori modo habituros; neque paſſuros unquam ut in toto vel in parte à quopiam violentur, aut ut illis in contrarium eatur. In quorum omnium majorem fidem ac robur, præſentibus manû noſtrâ regiâ ſignatis, magnum noſtrum Magnæ Britanniæ ſigillum apponi fecimus.—Dabantur in palatio noſtro Divi Jacobi triceſimo die menſis Septembris, anno Domini 1798, regnique noſtri triceſimo octavo.

No. VI.

Copy of Inſtructions to Sir Sidney Smith and Mr. Smith.

Downing-ſtreet, 3d Oct. 1798.

Gentlemen,

Having laid before the King the projet tranſmitted to me by Mr. Smith, of a Treaty of Alliance between his Majeſty and the Ottoman Porte, his Majeſty has judged proper to furniſh you with his full powers to treat and conclude this important buſineſs.

His Majeſty having been informed, by the confidential communication made to him by his Imperial Majeſty the Emperor of Ruſſia, of the ſtate of the negotiation between the Court of Peterſburgh and the Ottoman Porte, has judged that it will be better, on account both of the friendſhip ſubſiſting between his Majeſty and the Emperor of Ruſſia, and of that public and oſtenſible union which ſhould ſubſiſt between Powers acting in concert againſt the common enemy, to give to the new treaty rather the form of an acceſſion on the part of his Majeſty to the alliance between the two Courts abovementioned, than that of a diſtinct and ſeparate negotiation.

Moſt of the points of difference which you will find between the contre-projet I now ſend you, and the projet tranſmitted to me by Mr. Smith, have reference to this reſolution; the principal object in framing the contre-projet having been to adhere, as cloſely as poſſible, to the form and even to the expreſſions of the Ruſſian treaty, as far as they were applicable to the local circumſtances of his Majeſty's dominions.

I have no other obſervation than this to make on the ſubject of the Preamble and the firſt Article; the engagement to make common cauſe in the preſent war, which was contained in the firſt article of the projet tranſmitted by Mr. Smith, being the ſubject of one of the ſucceeding articles in the contre-projet.

The ſecond article, as well as all the others as far as the eighth,

are framed conformably to thoſe in the Ruſſian treaty, which treat on the ſame ſubjects. The variations, where there are any, are founded on principles ſo evident, that his Majeſty does not think they can meet with any difficulty.

In the ninth article, you will obſerve the terms which are made uſe of, on the ſubject of the naval forces which his Majeſty has conſented to employ for the defence of the coaſts of the Ottoman Empire, and to aſſiſt in offenſive operations againſt the enemy, either in Egypt or elſewhere.

From the ſtate of uncertainty in which we ſtill remain, with reſpect to the details of the action which has taken place between the Britiſh and French fleets, (although the known ſuperiority of his Majeſty's navy, and the concurrent teſtimony of ſo many different reports, afford the beſt hopes of a complete ſucceſs,) it is as yet impoſſible to take a definitive reſolution with regard to the number and the force of the ſhips of the line and others, that it will be neceſſary to leave in the ſeas of the Levant for the purpoſes above-mentioned.

But you are authoriſed to give the moſt diſtinct and poſitive aſſurances, that it is his Majeſty's intention to maintain the ſuperiority of his maritime force, wherever that of the enemy may be found; and by this means to provide, in concert with his Allies, for the defence of the coaſts of the Ottoman Empire, and alſo for acting offenſively againſt the enemy wherever it is poſſible, and particularly in Egypt. It is evident that the number of ſhips of the line neceſſary for theſe purpoſes, will depend on the force of the French ſquadron; and that if the latter is weak, (as in fact there is great reaſon to hope that it has been very much reduced by the event of which I have ſpoken,) it would be injurious inſtead of being beneficial to the common cauſe, if his Majeſty employed, without any object, in thoſe diſtant ſeas, a uſeleſs force, which might elſewhere ſerve ſo effectually in diſconcerting the plans of the enemy.

The explanations on this ſubject muſt therefore be confined to general though very diſtant and poſitive aſſurances; but you will eaſily be enabled to remove all uneaſineſs, (if any could ariſe on this ſubject,) by pointing out what his Majeſty has already done for the Ottoman Porte, in ſending a ſhip, like that commanded by Sir Sidney Smith, deſtined in all caſes to act in concert with his Majeſty's Allies in the Levant; and to which will alſo, for the preſent, be added another ſhip of the line, with a proportionable number of ſmaller ſhips; ſuppoſing even it ſhould turn out that the French ſquadron has been entirely deſtroyed, or obliged to withdraw itſelf from thoſe ſeas. If, on the contrary, any conſiderable French ſquadron ſhould ſtill remain there, a Britiſh force, as nearly as poſſible equal, if not ſuperior, would, as I have already ſaid, be ſent thither. You will acquaint the Sublime Ottoman Porte with the nature of the inſtructions given to Sir Sidney Smith, to provide for the full execution of the engagements to be entered into according to the propoſed contre-projet, by co-operating in the defence of the coaſts of the Ottoman Empire, and in the very important object

object of carrying on offenſive operations againſt the enemy in Egypt; always concerting with the Ruſſian admirals, in order to act with all poſſible vigour againſt the navy, commerce, and army of the enemy.

You will add to theſe explanations, that it is alſo his Majeſty's intention to maintain in the Mediterranean a conſiderable fleet, to be ſtationed there, and by cruizing off the coaſts of Italy and France, to fulfil the double object of recovering, if poſſible, the important poſt of Malta, which in the hands of the French will be a conſtant ſource of uneaſineſs to all the other Powers, and to prevent new reinforcements being ſent from the port of Toulon to the expedition of Bonaparte. The great importance of the laſt of theſe objects cannot eſcape attention; and it may be provided for, with much greater certainty, by blocking up the port of Toulon, than by cruizing in the Levant. There is every reaſon to hope, that if this can be accompliſhed, the French General, having all his communications cut off, muſt neceſſarily yield to the united efforts of the various means of annoyance, which may eaſily be employed againſt him by the Ottoman Porte, if acting with energy and deciſion.

You will obſerve in the treaty between the Court of Peterſburgh and the Ottoman Porte, that, as was naturally to be expected, there is no proviſion for ſubjecting the officers of one of the contracting parties to ſerve under the command of the other. This caution, which the circumſtances of the caſe naturally called for on the part of the Court of Peterſburgh, muſt evidently apply, with at leaſt equal force, to the caſe of the preſent alliance; and indeed I hardly expect that any claim which might be in contradiction to it will be brought forward. At all events you will adhere to that line which has been adopted, as I have already obſerved to you, by the Court of Peterſburgh.

[*N. B.* The Proclamation of Sir Sidney Smith has not been found in any of the Public Offices.]

IRISH PARLIAMENT ANNUITANTS.

THE annuities voted by the Parliament of Ireland to the ſeveral perſons under-named, "for their reſpective lives, to the amount affixed to their reſpective names," net, without any deduction or abatement whatſoever, as a compenſation for their reſpective loſſes by reaſon of the diſcontinuance of their emoluments or offices as officers or attendants of the Houſes of Parliament:

John Earl of Clare, Lord Chancellor, Speaker	£. 3973	3	4
John Earl of Mayo, Chairman of the Committees	1443	6	0
Edmond Henry, Lord Glentworth, Clerk of the Crown in Chancery	379	10	0
William Meek, Eſq. Clerk of the Parliament.....	2705	16	0
Thomas Lindſay, Eſq. Uſher of the Black Rod	964	9	9
Edward Weſtby, Thomas Walker, William Hornn, and S. King, Eſqrs. Maſters in Chancery ..... each	104	4	2
Joſeph Gayer, Eſq. Deputy Clerk of the Parliament ...	631	13	4
Thomas Bourchier, Eſq. Deputy Clerk of the Crown in Chancery	101	2	1
Joſeph Gregg, Eſq. Clerk Aſſizes	786	12	4
Joſeph Griffith, Eſq. Reading Clerk	293	3	1
Henry Minchin, Eſq. Serjeant at Arms	314	2	2
Richard Cr. Smith, jun. Eſq. Committee Clerk	231	6	0
Edward Fenner, Eſq. Journal Clerk	287	7	6
B. Connor, Eſq. Yeoman Uſher	243	16	6
W. Walker, Eſq. Add. Clerk	70	0	0
T. R. O'Flaherty, Clerk in the Parliament Office.....	74	10	8
W. Corbet, Door-keeper to the Speaker's Chamber....	105	0	4
C. W. Jolly, J. Polden, P. Martin, W. Graham, P. Thompſon, and G. Payn, Door-keepers ....each	92	2	8
P. Long, W. Cavendiſh, M. Quinan, and J. Tobin, Meſſengers .....each	91	13	9
Mrs. Albini Taylor, Keeper of the Parliament-houſe..	877	18	9
Mary Foſter, Houſe-keeper	472	18	11
Mary Ann Foſter, Houſe-maid	30	9	6
Sir Chicheſter Forteſcue, Ulſter King at Arms	290	19	5
Philip O'Brien, Gate-keeper.....	42	6	8
Rd. Taylor, Keeper of the Speaker's Chamber	50	0	0
Henry Welbore, Viſcount Cliſden, Clerk of the Council	181	13	4
Henry Upton, Eſq. Dep. do.	104	8	11
Jo. Patrickſon, Eſq. Dep. Clerk of the Council, Uſher of the Council Chamber, and Solicitor for Turnpike Bills	421	9	5
Mr. Wm. M'Kay, Aſſiſtant Clerk of the Council	100	17	0
John Ebbs and Elizabeth Grant, Door-keeper and Council-office-keeper	14	8	2
John Dwyer, Eſq. Sec. to the Lord Chancellor	29	2	8
John Beresford, Eſq. Purſe-bearer to do.	14	11	4

Right

Right Honourable John Foſter, Speaker of the Houſe of Commons	£.5083	8	4
Andrew Bowen, Water Porter	4	11	0
Henry Alexander, Eſq. Chairman of the Committees of Supply and Ways and Means	500	0	0
Sir G. Fitzgerald Hill, Bart. Clerk of the Houſe	2263	13	2½
Edward Cook, Eſq. Clerk of the Houſe in Reverſion	500	0	0
John M'Clintock and Wm. F. M'Clintock, Eſqrs. Serjeants at Arms, including 100*l.* on the Civil Liſt	1200	0	0
Ed. Treſham, Clerk Aſſiſtant	594	6	10
G. F. Winſtanley, and Jonathan Rogers, Committee Clerks, each	250	0	0
D. Ellis, Superin. Engroſſing Clerk	140	0	0
C. H. Tandy, Engroſſing Clerk	398	7	0
T. Richardſon, Aſſiſt. do.	150	0	0
Wm. Ratferty, Clerk in the Chief Clerk's Office, Clerk of the Minutes, and Clerk of the Fees	470	0	0
H. Coddington, Eſq. Dep. Serjeant at Arms	350	0	0
James Corry, Eſq. Clerk of the Journals and Records	660	0	0
John Smith, Aſſiſtant do.	230	0	0
R. Connor, Attending Clerk	60	0	0
Mr. Hume, Clerk of the Brief	100	0	0
John Judd, Aſſiſt. Clerk in the Chief Clerk's Office	63	6	8
J. L. Foſter, Eſq. Speaker's Sec.	10	0	5
G. Dunleavy, Meſſenger	68	0	0
R. Burnſide, and R. Fleming, Back Door-keepers each	48	0	0
John Dogherty, and D. Smith, Meſſengers each	46	0	0
L. Dunlevy, R. Grace, R. Garland, E. Byrne, D. Brenan, H. Gahan, J. Brown, A. Carſon, P. Ferrall, J. Morley, G. Shirley, M. Dalton, and J. King, each	36	0	0
J. Banen, do.	51	18	6
W. Brown, Diſtributor of Votes	130	0	0
Sarah Connor, Houſe-keeper	401	13	2
John Kennedy, and John Walker, Front Door-Keepers, each	168	4	9½
Mary Connor, Houſe Attendant	4	11	0
T. Seavers, Firelighter	11	7	6
R. Watham, do.	6	16	6
Lord Viſcount Glentworth, Clerk of the Crown and Hanaper	131	8	6½
T. Bourchier, Dep. do.	52	5	6
John Beresford, Eſq. Purſe Bearer to the Lord Chancellor	83	18	9
Mrs. Albini Taylor, Keeper of the Parliament Houſe	140	0	0

An ACCOUNT *of* GOLD *coined at his Majesty's Mint, from Michaelmas* 1796 *to the present Time; distinguishing the Quantity coined in each year.*

YEAR,	Quantity coined in Pounds Weight.	Value.
1796—from Michaelmas	3,480	£. 162,603 0 0
1797	42,810	2,000,297 5 0
1798	63,510	2,967,504 15 0
1799	9,630	449,961 15 0
1800—to 29th November	4,065	189,937 2 6
TOTALS	123,495	5,770,303 17 6

HAWKESBURY, *Master.*

Mint Office, 20th November 1800.

RETURN *to an Order of the House of Commons, for An Account of the Amount of the* PUBLIC FUNDED DEBT *of the Kingdom, at the following Periods: viz. at the Beginning of years* 1700, 1710, 1720, 1730, 1740, 1750, 1760, 1765, 1770, 1775, 1780, 1785, 1790, 1791, 1792, 1793, 1794, 1795, 1796, 1797, 1798, 1799, *and* 1800.

		FUNDED DEBT.
At the Beginning of the Years	1730	£. 47,705,122
	1740	44,072,024
	1750	72,178,898
	1760	88,341,268
	1765	127,564,821
	1770	126,963,267
	1775	122,963,267
	1780	142,113,264
	1785	226,260,805
	1790	238,231,248
	1791	238,231,248
	1792	233,831,248
	1793	238,231,248
	1794	244,481,248
	1795	260,157,773
	1796	285,767,670
	1797	327,071,369
	1798	394,159,046
	1799	424,159,046
	1800	451,699,919

Memorandum:

The Books of the Exchequer not being found to contain Accounts of the Public Debt for the years 1700, 1710, or 1720, the above is therefore the best Return that can be made to the Order of the House of Commons.

JAMES FISHER.

Exchequer, 29th December 1800.

An ACCOUNT of the Amount of BANK OF ENGLAND NOTES *in Circulation, on an Average of every three Months, from the* 25th *day of March* 1797, *in the Years* 1797, 1798, 1799, *and* 1800; *diſtinguiſhing the Amount of Notes below the Value of Five Pounds.*

AMOUNT of Bank of England Notes of FIVE POUNDS *each, and upwards.*

			1797.	1798.	1799.	1800.
From	25th December	to 25th March	£. 11,385,180	£. 11,585,210	£. 13,433,420	
	25th March	to 25th June	£. 10,113,030	11,290,610	12,118,690	13,490,720
	25th June	to 25th September	9,762,130	10,294,150	12,155,360	13,374,870
	25th September	to 25th December	10,411,700	10,711,690	12,335,920	13,388,670

AMOUNT of Bank of England Notes of TWO POUNDS, *and* ONE POUND *each.*

			1797.	1798.	1799.	1800.
From	25th December	to 25th March	£. 1,658,300	£. 1,627,250	£. 1,686,640	
	25th March	to 25th June	£. 990,850	1,933,830	1,601,570	1,722,800
	25th June	to 25th September	1,066,750	1,821,490	1,604,580	1,855,540
	25th September	to 25th December	1,230,700	1,730,380	1,671,040	2,062,300

N. B. The Amount of Notes for the laſt Quarter, in the year 1800, can only be made out to the 6th inſtead of the 25th of December.

WM. WALTON, *Acct. Gen.*

Bank of England, 15*th December* 1800.

An ACCOUNT of the Amount of the Duties on COALS for Ten Years, from the Year 1790; distinguishing each Year, and what Part thereof arises from the Port of London.

	Amount of Duties on									
	EXPORTATION.				COASTWAYS.				TOTAL Amount of DUTY Received.	
	London.			All other Ports.	London.		All other Ports.			
	£.	s.	d.	£. s. d.	£.	s. d.	£.	s. d.	£.	s.
1790	570	3	3½	110,959 0 8¾	335,177	5 5½	175,768	13 8¾	622,475	3 2½
1791	475	10	1	117,481 12 1¾	365,712	10 2¾	187,976	5 0¾	671,645	17 6¼
1792	638	3	8	110,547 13 10	378,150	1 1¼	220,015	3 0¼	709,351	1 7½
1793	717	15	4	97,385 11 7¾	356,259	12 0	217,914	8 11¼	672,277	7 11
1794	591	18	6	91,900 7 3	348,423	6 2	187,661	9 10½	628,577	1 9½
1795	733	1	8	79,175 8 0	404,241	8 5	216,610	7 2¾	700,760	5 3¾
1796	1,031	8	0	88,810 16 2	348,302	4 10¼	209,262	11 0¼	647,407	0 0½
1797	1,209	3	4	81,753 3 3¾	404,818	6 8	226,014	17 2¼	713,795	10 6
1798	1,622	5	5	88,004 8 7¼	861,247	7 8	218,659	6 0	669,533	7 8¼
1799	1,212	12	8	84,523 8 5	409,869	19 4	238,072	10 11¾	733,678	11 4¾

Inspector General's Office, Custom House,
24th November 1800.

WILLIAM IRVING,
Inspector General of Imports and Exports of Great Britain.

An Account of the Totals of Customs, Excise, Stamps, and Incidents, and Duties, pro. Annis, 1793, 1794, 1795, 1796, 1797, 1798, 1799, and 1800; in the Years ending 10th October 1799, and 10th October 1800.

TOTALS:	1799.			1800		
Total of Customs, Excise, Stamps and Incidents, Prior to the Year 1793	£.14,284,149	3	5¼	12,771,375	0	10¼
Proportionate Part of Duties on Sugar, now annually granted	786,438	13	5¾	1,241,780	18	9¾
Additional Duty on Malt ..... Do.	18,790	0	0	280,040	0	0
Duty on Tobacco ..... Do.	163,356	0	0	436,168	0	0
	£.15,252,733	16	11	14,729,363	19	8
Total of Duties ..... per ann. 1793	292,347	14	1¼	303,213	4	6½
Do. 1794	728,208	2	9	654,315	9	9
Proportionate Part of Duties on Sugar, now annually granted	170,040	14	10¾	268,493	3	6½
Total of Duties ..... per ann. 1795	1,519,782	11	2¾	1,504,846	8	8½
Do. 1796	1,265,748	6	10¼	1,347,732	8	7¾
Do. 1797	2,649,716	18	10¼	2,591,042	7	10
Proportionate Part of Duties on Sugar, now annually granted	159,413	4	11	251,712	7	0¼
Total of Duties ..... per ann. 1798	709,638	2	8	730,147	19	10½
Do. 1799	164,853	18	10	221,546	4	3
Do. 1800	1,800	0	0	188,003	13	4
	£.22,912,483	13	0¾	22,790,417	7	2

GROSVENOR CHARLES BEDFORD.

Exchequer, 28th Day of November 1800.

Note.—In order to shew the real amount of Taxes before and since the War, the Produce of Duties on Sugar, Tobacco, and Malt, now annually voted, are added to the Old Duties and to the New ones, of which they were respectively a Part while they were perpetual.

An ACCOUNT *of the Amount of Bank of England Notes in circulation, on an Average of every Month, from the 25th October,* 1800; *distinguishing the Amount of Notes below the Value of Five Pounds.*

Amount of Bank of England Notes of Five Pounds each and upwards.

From 25th October to 25th November, 1800	-	£. 13,816,700
25th November to 25th December	-	13,133,500
25th December to 25th January, 1801	-	13,845,800

Amount of Bank of England Notes of Two Pounds and One Pound each.

From 25th October to 25th November, 1800	-	£. 2,061,700
25th November to 25th December	-	2,148,700
25th December to 25th January, 1801	-	2,519,400

WILLIAM WALTON,
Accountant General.

Bank of England,
6th February, 1801.

London, Victualling-Office, 6th February, 1801.

An ACCOUNT *of the following Species of Provisions purchased in Great Britain and Ireland, for his Majesty's Service, from the commencement of the present War to the 31st December last; distinguishing the Quantities purchased in each Year, with the Average Prices paid for the same.*

YEAR.	PLACE.	BEER.				BUTTER.				CHEESE.			
		Tuns.	Average Price per Tun.			Cwts.	Average Price per Cwt.			Cwts.	Average Price per Cwt.		
			s.	d.	Decimal Parts of a Penny.		s.	d.	Decimal Parts of a Penny.		s.	d.	Decimal Parts of a Penny.
1793	Great Britain	36,431	59	11.	2	11,784	66	4.	5	14,041	48	9.	92
	Ireland -	439	64	2.	35	212	61	2.	26	217	43	3.	2
1794	Great Britain	44,239	59	11.	65	12,166	66	9.	12	16,025	48	0.	63
	Ireland -	706	67	11.	33	360	63	8.	96	414	50	0.	92
1795	Great Britain	47,202	71	4.	9	23,780	75	8.	—	19,102	52	1.	53
	Ireland -	369	66	9.	72	772	64	2.	37	905	45	9.	21
1796	Great Britain	48,335	71	8.	6	23,569	76	3.	11	18,377	51	7.	14
	Ireland -	349	77	11.	17	609	71	4.	16	391	54	4.	35
1797	Great Britain	58,365	60	7.	4	16,997	79	8.	28	28,573	55	2.	63
	Ireland -	551	78	0.	5	1,078	70	10.	34	890	50	6.	16
1798	Great Britain	60,067	60	3.	71	19,308	71	6.	57	29,360	53	5.	73
	Ireland -	540	77	2.	53	1,240	74	1.	2	1,364	59	10.	7
1799	Great Britain	60,372	68	6.	26	24,862	80	7.	89	21,562	50	9.	55
	Ireland -	292	76	4.	1	961	79	3.	84	1,093	62	9.	16
1800	Great Britain	63,506	89	10.	93	21,984	104	8.	87	28,439	82	2.	31
	Ireland -	186	81	8.	64	595	106	7.	—	634	70	4.	31

JOHN MARSH,
G. P. TOWRY,
JOHN RODNEY.

R. S. MOODY,
W. BOSCAWEN,

An

An ACCOUNT *of the Amount of the Payments into the Exchequer, in the Years ending January 5th,* 1800, *and January 5th,* 1801, *on the Duties on Beer, and on the Duty on Malt, which was permanent till made annual by the 38th Geo. III. chap.* 60.

YEARS, ending 5th January,	BEER.	MALT, which was permanent till made annual by the Act of 38th Geo. III, chap. 60.
	£.	£.
1800 - -	2,252,801	772,212
1801 - -	1,909,353	153,462

An ACCOUNT *of the Amount of Duties on Britiſh and Foreign Spirits impoſed before* 1792; *paid into the Exchequer in the Years ending January 5th,* 1800, *and January 5th,* 1801: *diſtinguiſhing each Year.*

YEARS, ending 5th January.	Britiſh Spirits.	Foreign Spirits.	Total of both.
	£.	£.	£.
1800 -	728,454	904,158	1,632,612
1801 -	603,193	927,595	1,530,788

An ACCOUNT *of the Net Revenue of the Post-Office paid into the Exchequer, exclusive of Parliamentary Pensions and Grants, from the Year* 1760 *to* 1800, *both inclusive, distinguishing each Year.*

		£.	s.	d.
The Years ending 5th April.	1761	36,400	0	0
	1762	36,400	0	0
	1763	36,400	0	0
	1764	46,400	0	0
	1765	88,100	0	0
	1766	100,400	0	0
	1767	105,400	0	0
	1768	109,400	0	0
	1769	110,400	0	0
	1770	105,400	0	0
	1771	100,100	0	0
	1772	118,400	0	0
	1773	149,400	0	9
	1774	147,400	0	0
	1775	153,400	0	0
	1776	165,100	0	0
	1777	141,400	0	0
	1778	118,400	0	0
	1779	121,400	0	0
	1780	121,400	0	0
The Years ending 5th April.	1781	142,400	0	0
	1782	103,100	0	0
	1783	148,400	0	0
	1784	177,400	0	0
	1785	225,100	0	0
	1786	264,000	0	0
	1787	254,000	0	0
	1788	274,000	0	0
	1789	300,000	0	0
	1790	361,000	0	0
	1791	325,000	0	0
	1792	340,484	3	9½
	1793	384,000	0	0
	1794	392,000	0	0
	1795	421,000	0	0
	1796	442,000	0	0
	1797	500,000	0	0
	1798	632,000	0	0
	1799	683,000	0	0
	1800	699,000	0	0

And taking a whole year to 5th January, 1801, 716,000*l.* 0*s.* 0*d.*

An ACCOUNT *of Annual Average Remittances from Scotland, from the Year* 1760 *to* 1800.

The 1st Ten Years Average Remittances from Edinburgh,					
	to 5th April, 1770	–	£. 9,534	15	10
2d ditto,	to 5th April, 1780	–	13,649	10	5
3d ditto,	to 5th April, 1790	–	25,815	7	1
4th ditto,	to 5th April, 1800	–	51,420	4	3

THOMAS CHURCH,
Deputy Accomptant-General.

March 20, 1801.

ACCOUNTS

I.

An ACCOUNT *of the Expence attending the Army maintained by this Country, including Militia and all other Corps, for the Years* 1793, 1794, 1795, *and* 1796; *distinguishing each Year, and Horse and Foot:—So far as the same can be made up at the War Office.*

	1793.			1794.			1795.			1796.		
	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
Horse – – – –	608,139	2	6½	973,468	12	9½	1,214,327	18	7½	1,607,711	1	1
Foot, Militia, and other Corps	4,972,075	9	7½	10,164,461	10	6	14,409,974	12	9	12,871,669	9	1
Total for each Year –	5,580,214	12	2	11,137,930	3	3½	15,624,302	11	4½	14,479,380	10	2

N. B. The charge attending the Horse has been separated in every case where it could be clearly distinguished; where it could not, it is included in the charge above stated for the Infantry.

C. YORKE.

War Office, 23d March, 1801.

II.

An ACCOUNT *of the Expence of the Army, including Militia and all other Corps, for the Years* 1779, 1780, 1781, 1782; *distinguishing each Year, and Horse and Foot:—So far as the same can be made up at the War Office.*

	1779.			1780.			1781.			1782.		
	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
Horse – – – –	360,189	16	4	392,318	17	6	393,291	17	7	387,981	6	3
Foot, Militia, and other Corps	7,422,542	1	2	8,653,250	4	6	8,777,077	17	6¼	7,953,818	19	5½
Total for each Year –	7,782,731	17	6	9,045,569	2	0	9,170,369	15	1¼	8,341,800	5	8½

N. B The charge attending the Horse has been separated in every case where it could be clearly distinguished; where it could not, it is included in the charge above stated for the Infantry.

War Office, 23d March, 1801.

C. YORKE.

III.

An ACCOUNT *of the Number of Troops maintained by this Country in the Years* 1793, 1794, 1795, *and* 1796; *distinguishing each Year, and the Number of Horse and Foot:—So far as the same can be made up at the War Office.*

	1793.	1794.	1795.	1796.
Horse – – –	13,222	19,135	23,158	32,901
Foot – – –	121,959	190,010	252,473	184,674
Total for each Year –	135,181	209,145	275,631	217,575

C. YORKE.

War Office, 23d March, 1801.

IV.

An ACCOUNT *of the Number of Troops maintained by this Country, including Militia and all other Corps, for the Years* 1779, 1780, 1781, *and* 1782; *distinguishing each Year, and Horse and Foot:—So far as the same can be made up at the War Office.*

	1779.	1780.	1781.	1782.
Horse – – –	7,033	7,834	7,765	7,352
Foot, Militia, and other Corps – –	165,768	173,967	174,732	177,022
Total for each Year –	172,801	181,801	182,497	184,374

C. YORKE.

War Office, 23d March, 1801.

No. I.

ACCOUNT *of the* TOTAL PRODUCE *of the* TAX UPON INCOME, *for the Year ending the 5th of April* 1801, *as far as the ſame can be made up and eſtimated; diſtinguiſhing the Amount in conſequence of Aſſeſſments by the Commercial Commiſſioners.*

Amount of Aſſeſſments, as far as the ſame can be made up and eſtimated—

By Commiſſioners for General Purpoſes, and Commiſſioners of Appeal	£.4,348,313	0	0
By Commercial Commiſſioners	1,394,837	0	0
Amount of Voluntary Contributions received from the 1ſt January 1800, to the 1ſt January 1801	79,591	19	4
	£.5,822,741	19	4

About one-fifth of the ſum aſſeſſed by Commercial Commiſſioners ariſes from property not derived from trade.

H. PARKER.

Office for Taxes, March 23, 1804.

No. II.

ACCOUNT *of the* NET PRODUCE *of the* PERMANENT TAXES, *&c. of Great Britain, taken for two Years, ending respectively the 5th January* 1800, *and 5th January* 1801.

	1800.			1801.		
Total of Customs, Excise, Stamps, and Incidents, prior to the year 1793	£. 14,117,698	s. 14	d. 7¼	£. 12,358,158	s. 2	d. 11½
Add proportionate part of duties on Sugar now annually granted	1,141,317	13	2¾	1,236,455	1	1
Additional duty on Malt, do.	222,145	0	0	155,986	0	0
Duty on Tobacco	261,948	0	0	443,940	0	0
	15,743,109	7	10	14,194,539	4	0½
Total of duties 1793	314,086	6	7½	294,260	7	6
Ditto 1794	689,433	6	1½	655,297	3	9½
Add proportionate part of duties on Sugar now annually granted	246,771	7	8¾	267,341	12	8¼
Total of duties 1795	1,611,424	11	11¼	1,452,691	11	3½
Ditto 1796	1,334,444	8	4¾	1,315,421	9	6
Ditto 1797	2,628,109	9	3½	2,642,708	4	7½
Add proportionate part of duties on Sugar now annually granted	231,348	3	6	250,632	15	7¼
Total of duties 1798	732,576	7	10½	730,207	19	3½
Ditto 1799	260,491	5	9	186,462	9	7½
Ditto 1800	.....			284,052	13	4
	23,791,794	15	0¾	22,273,615	11	4½

In order to shew the real amount of the Taxes imposed before and since the War, the produce of the duties on Sugar, Tobacco, and Malt, now annually voted, are added to the old duties and to the new ones of which they were respectively a part while they were perpetual.

No. III.

ACCOUNT *of the* NET PRODUCE *of the* PERMANENT TAXES *of Great Britain, for the Year ending 5th April* 1801; *distinguishing each Quarter, and the Taxes imposed in each Year, since the Year* 1792.

	In the QUARTERS ended												In the YEAR ended		
	5th July 1800.			10th October 1800.			5th January 1801.			5th April 1801.			5th April 1801.		
	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
Total of Customs, Excise, Stamps, and Incidents, prior to the year 1793	3,199,332	6	0½	3,213,400	16	3½	3,119,276	17	7½	2,529,220	13	3	12,061,227	13	2½
Proportionate part of Sugar now annually granted - -	200,743	19	10	541,356	4	2¾	349,553	2	0¼	329,120	12	1	1,420,773	18	2
Additional duty on Malt do. do.	24,205	0	0	47,683	0	0	79,301	0	0	30,015	0	0	181,204	0	0
Duty on Tobacco - - do. do.	92,558	0	0	99,645	0	0	106,364	0	0	121,389	0	0	419,956	0	0
	3,516,836	5	10½	3,902,085	0	6¼	3,654,494	19	7¾	3,009,745	5	4	14,083,161	11	4½
Total of Duties for 1793 -	97,239	0	0	51,540	14	6¼	78,050	5	5¾	60,903	4	10	287,733	4	10
Do. - 1794 -	142,561	13	4½	141,052	12	4½	184,749	19	4½	174,727	3	3½	643,091	8	5
Proportionate part of Sugar, now annually granted - -	43,404	2	2½	117,049	19	9½	75,579	0	11¾	71,161	8	6	307,194	11	5¾
Total of Duties for 1795 -	381,724	19	8½	434,271	13	1½	332,652	17	6½	274,837	9	9½	1,423487	0	2
Do. - 1796 -	382,167	17	6⅓	341,028	4	7	345,079	15	4¾	220,810	9	3	1,289,086	6	9
Do. - 1797 -	868,682	16	4¼	518,192	10	6¾	826,292	12	4	457,610	3	1⅝	2,670,785	2	4¼
Proportionate part of Sugar, now annually granted - -	40,691	7	0	109,734	7	3¾	70,855	7	2	66,713	13	6	287,994	14	11¾
Total of Duties for 1798 -	195,152	0	0	153,374	0	0	183,978	0	0	220,020	6	11	752,524	6	11
Do. - 1799 -	27,159	13	6	70,463	6	9	58,731	8	7½	35,050	11	4½	191,405	0	3
Do. - 1800 -	108,223	0	0	74,296	13	4	96,049	0	0	131,558	0	0	410,126	13	4
	5,803,842	15	6½	5,913,089	2	10¼	5,906,520	6	6½	4,723,137	15	10⅜	22,346,590	0	10¾

Exchequer, 28th April 1801.

No. IV.

An ACCOUNT *of the Actual Eſtimated* EXPENCE *of* COLLECTING *the Tax on Income, for the Years* 1799 *and* 1800.

Poundage to the clerks, collectors and receivers, computed on 4,540,745*l.* being the amount of the aſſeſſment, by the commiſſioners for general purpoſes	£. 99,504	0	0
Sum paid for incidental expences in the execution of the Act under the commiſſioners for general purpoſes	5,334	0	0
Sum paid for incidental expences, including the allowances to officers and clerks under the commercial commiſſioners, and expences of collection and receipt	18,756	0	0
Amount of incidental expences incurred under the commiſſioners of appeal, as far as the ſame can be made out from the accounts hitherto received	3,580	0	0
Probable amount of further expences under the commiſſioners of appeal from accounts not yet received	1,000	0	0
Sums paid to aſſeſſors	4,620	0	0
Eſtimated amount of further ſums to be paid to aſſeſſors	600	0	0
Allowances to ſurveyors in England	4,180	0	0
Amount of certificates for allowances to ſurveyors and aſſeſſors in Scotland	3,196	0	0
Printing, ſtationary, and other incidental expences in this office, in the execution of the Acts, are eſtimated at	11,850	9	3
TOTAL not amounting to $6\frac{1}{2}d.$ in the pound on the whole ſums aſſeſſed	£. 152,620	9	8

The ſubſequent year being juſt expired, no accounts have been received at this Office, from which any ſtatement of the actual expences of collecting the Income Tax for the year 1800 can be made up; but from the beſt judgment we can form, there ſeems no reaſon to ſuppoſe that the amount will exceed the charges of management for the year 1799, as above ſtated.

WILLIAM LOWNDES.
BARNE BARNE.
EDWARD MEADOWS.
HORACE HAYES.

Office for Taxes, April 1801.

No. V.

ACCOUNT *of* MONIES *advanced for* PUBLIC SERVICES *from the Civil Liſt, (not being part of the Ordinary Expenditure of the Civil Liſt,) and which had not been replaced by Parliament on the 5th of January* 1801; *ſpecifying the General Heads of Service for which any of the ſaid Monies were advanced, and the total Amount of the advance on each head reſpectively.*

	£.	s.	d.
To Bernard Cobbe, Eſq. for additional allowance to Clerks in the Office for auditing the public accounts	1,655	4	0
Matthew Martin, Eſq. towards carrying into effect a plan for enquiring into the mendicity of the metropolis	500	0	0
Edward Ogle, Eſq. et al. for expences incurred upon a Plan for the improvement of the port of London	253	12	7
Thomas Brodie, Eſq. for continuing the Index to the Journals of the Houſe of Lords	116	16	0
Bernard Cobbe, Eſq. to diſcharge fees on paſſing public accounts	3,500	0	0
George Roſe, Eſq. for expences at the Parliament-Office in Seſſion 1800	374	4	8
William Chinnery, Eſq. to pay bills drawn on account of New South Wales, due in the year 1800, being the exceſs of the ſum granted by Parliament for that ſervice	6,756	10	5
James Wyatt, Eſq. to pay artificers employed in various works about the Houſes of Parliament	2,000	0	0
William Pollock, Eſq. to pay fees on paſſing a commiſſion, appointing commiſſioners to inquire into the ſtate of the Coldbath-Fields Priſon	175	3	2
William Chinnery, Eſq. for medicines ſent to New South Wales	895	16	0
Lord Walſingham, for his attendance as Chairman of the Committee of the Houſe of Peers, in the Seſſion 1799–1800	2,701	9	0
Thomas Foden, Eſq. towards enabling him to proſecute a diſcovery made by him, of a paſte as a ſubſtitute for wheat flour	500	0	0
Charles Abbot, Eſq. for ſundry perſons employed by the Select Committee of the Houſe of Commons to inquire into the ſtate of the public records	1,095	0	0
George Whittam, Eſq. for making an Index to the Votes of the Houſe of Commons	220	0	0
Samuel Dunn, Eſq. for making an Index to the Journals of the Houſe of Commons	300	0	0
John Clementſon, Eſq. for his attendance in the Houſe of Commons in the Seſſion 1799–1800	224	10	0

 Carried forward, £. 21,268 5 10

Brought forward, £.	21268	5	10
To Jeremiah Dyſon, Eſq. to make good the deficiency of his allowance as clerk aſſiſtant of the Houſe of Commons during the Seſſion 1799–1800	385	2	0
Henry Thornton, Eſq. for the relief of the poor of the pariſhes of Saint Matthew, Bethnal Green, Mile-End New Town, and Chriſt Church, Spital Fields	4,115	0	0
Charles Roſſi, being the ſecond payment, for erecting a monument in St. Paul's Cathedral to the memory of Captain Faulkener	1,480	14	0
Charles Bragge, Eſq. for his ſervice to the Houſe of Commons	1,301	9	0
£.	28,550	10	10

Whitehall, Treaſury Chambers, 15th April 1801. N. VANSITTART.

No. VI.

ACCOUNT *of the* DISTRIBUTION *of the ſum of* 1,395,414*l.* 2*s. being part of the ſum of* 1,400,000*l. granted to his Majeſty, to enable his Majeſty to fulfil ſuch engagements, and to take ſuch meaſures, as the exigency of affairs may require; paid by the Right Honourable the Pay Maſter General of his Majeſty's Forces.*

Remitted to Mr. Wickham, on account of his Majeſty's ſervice abroad				£. 200,00	0 0
Remitted abroad to enable his Imperial Majeſty to replace magazines which have been taken by the enemy				150,000	0 0
To Bills of Exchange drawn by Daniel Bayley, Eſq. from Peterſburgh, for public ſervices				68,363	12 0
To C. R. Broughton, Eſq. for the ſervice of the Queen of Portugal	116,293	13	4		
To William Smith, Eſq. treaſurer of the ordnance, for gunpowder delivered from the ordnance ſtores for the ſervice of ditto	27,675	0	0		
To Joſeph Rademaker, Eſq. for the purchaſe of ſundry articles of ſtores	10,000	0	0		
				153,968	13 4
To bills of exchange drawn by John Erſkine, Eſq. comiſſary General in the Mediterranean, for public ſervices				82,841	19 11
To ditto drawn by George Warden, Eſq. deputy commiſſary-general in Portugal and the Mediterranean, for ditto				114,500	0 0
Carried over, £.				769,674	5 3

Brought over £.	769,674	5	3
To bills of exchange drawn by Alexander Fernandes, Esq. assistant commissary-general in Portugal and the Mediterranean, for public services.....	81,492	3	5
To ditto drawn by George Burgman, assistant commissary-general in ditto, for ditto.....	38,450	7	4
To ditto drawn by Henry Motz, commissary-general in ditto.....	31,410	0	0
To H. Motz, Esq. commissary-general to the forces under Sir Ralph Abercrombie, for contingent expences.....	5,000	0	0
To dollars consigned to Mr. Commissary Motz, for public services.....	20,000	0	0
To bills of exchange drawn by Messrs. Thornton and Power, from Hamburgh, for public services.....	51,017	6	0
To ditto drawn by Alexander Cockburn, Esq. consul at Hamburgh, for ditto.....	6,810	0	0
To ditto drawn by General T. Trigge, for the expences incident to public service within his command.....	250,000	0	0
To ditto drawn by Colonel Ramsay, on account of the Swiss corps.....	141,560	0	0
£.	1,395,414	2	0

No. VII.

ACCOUNT *of the several sums of* MONEY *advanced by way of* LOAN *or* SUBSIDY *to different States, from the commencement of the present War: together with an* ACCOUNT *of the* INTEREST *received on such sums as have been advanced by way of Loan.*

Issued for the service of Prussia, in 1794.....£.	1,223,891	10	6
Do. of Sardinia, in 1793, 4, 5, and 6.....	*500,000	0	0
Do. of the Emperor, in 1795 and 6.....	†6,220,000	0	0
Do. ditto, in 1797.....	700,000	0	0
Do. of Portugal, in 1797.....	247,205	0	0
Do. ditto, in 1798.....	120,013	13	9
Do. of Russia, in 1799.....	825,000	0	0
Do. of the Emperor, Elector of Bavaria, &c.....	500,000	0	0
Do. of the Emperor.....	1,066,666	13	4
Do. of Russia.....	545,494	0	0
Do. of Bavaria.....	501,017	6	0
Do. of the Emperor, to enable his Imperial Majesty to replace magazines which had been taken by the enemy at Stockach.....	150,000	0	0
£.	12,599,288	2	10

Whitehall Treasury Chambers,
June 29, 1801.

N. VANSITTART.

* The Subsidies voted for the King of Sardinia amounted to 600,000*l.*; of which 100,000*l.* remaining unissued, a payment has been made, since the month of October 1800, to the agent of his Sardinian Majesty, at the rate of 4000*l.* per Month.

† The interest received on the above-mentioned Loans to the Emperor of Germany, amounts to 935,573*l.* 19*s.* 2*d.*

Memorandum—A ſum of 153,968*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* which appears in the account preſented to the Houſe of Commons, of the diſtribution of the Vote of Credit for 1,400,000*l.* for the year 1800, to have been iſſued for the ſervice of the Queen of Portugal, was furniſhed in various ſupplies of military ſtores.

No. VIII.

ACCOUNT *of the* EXPENCE *attending the* ARMY *maintained by this Country, including Militia and all other Corps, for the Years* 1793, 1794, 1795, *and* 1796; *diſtinguiſhing each Year, and Horſe and Foot; ſo far as the ſame can be made up at the War Office.*

	1793.	1794.	1795.	1796.
	£.	£.	£.	£.
Horſe	608,139	973,468	1,214,327	1,607,711
Foot, Militia, & other Corps	4,972,075	10,164,461	14,409,974	12,871,669
Total for each year	5,580,214	11,137,929	15,624,301	14,479,380

N. B. The charge attending the Horſe has been ſeparated in every caſe where it could be clearly diſtinguiſhed; where it could not, it is included in the charge above ſtated for Infantry

ACCOUNT *of the* NUMBER *of* TROOPS *maintained by this Country, in the Years* 1793, 1794, 1795, *and* 1796; *diſtinguiſhing each Year, and the number of Horſe and Foot; ſo far as the ſame can be made up at the War Office.*

	1793.	1794.	1795.	1796.
Horſe	13,222	19,135	23,158	32,901
Foot	121,959	190,010	252,473	184,674
Total for each year	135,181	209,145	275,631	217,575

No. IX.

ACCOUNT *of all subsisting* PENSIONS, *granted by the Crown during pleasure or otherwise, and payable at the* EXCHEQUER; *specifying the amount of such Pensions respectively, and the times when, and the persons to whom, and for whose benefit, such Pensions were granted.*

PENSIONS *formerly paid by the* PAYMASTER *of* PENSIONS.

Andrews, Catherine (now Nott) —— (per annum)	£.	100	0	0
Aſpenwall, Magdalen ——	—	150	0	0
Arnold Margaret ——	—	500	0	0
Burwell, Mary (now Lady Mary Churchill)	—	200	0	0
Burdenell, Robert ——	—	131	0	0
Brudenburgh, Dorothy ——	—	40	0	0
Barlow, Sophia ——	—	50	0	0
Barlow, Maria ——	—	50	0	0
Barlow, Louiſa ——	—	50	0	0
Barlow, Catherine (now Mrs. Thiſtlethwaite)	—	50	0	0
Buckworth John ——	—	131	0	0
Brudenell, Auguſta ——	—	131	0	0
Blake, Robert ——	—	125	0	0
Biſhop, Colonel Thomas ——	—	400	0	0
Balcarras, Earl of ——	—	300	0	0
Chamberlayne, Betty Clerk ——	—	66	13	4
Chamberlayne, Caroline ——	—	66	13	4
Cowper, Spencer, Repreſentatives of, for the Life of his Daughter Jane Cowper ——	—	230	0	0
Creſſenner, Elizabeth ——	—	500	0	0
Colebrook, Dame Mary ——	—	400	0	0
Clarke, Frances ——	—	100	0	0
Corbett, Major Moſes ——	—	250	0	0
Carver, Mary ——	—	50	0	0
Dent, Catharine (widow) ——	—	80	0	0
Dent, Catharine (ſpinſter) ——	—	30	0	0
Dent, Sophia ——	—	30	0	0
Dent, Caroline ——	—	30	0	0
Dent, Cotton ——	—	30	0	0
Dutton, Patentia ——	—	131	0	0
Dunmore, Counteſs of ——	—	400	0	0
Elliot, Robert, in truſt for Eleanor Eden, now Lady Auckland ——	—	796	0	0
Foldeſay, Michael ——	—	40	0	0
Fanquier, Francis ——	—	300	0	0
Falkland, Lord, and John Law, or either of them; in truſt for the four daughters of the late Colonel Carey	—	400	0	0
Faucett, Suſannah, during the lives of her two daughters		400	0	0

Fraſer,

Fraſer, William	£.200	0	0
Greville, Fulk	730	0	0
Gardener, Charlotte	65	0	0
Howard, Mary	100	0	0
Howard, Lady Mary	150	0	0
Howard, Lady Elizabeth	150	0	0
Hope, Henry	200	0	0
Hill, Frances	80	0	0
Harnage, Dorothea	20	0	0
Harnage, Anne	20	0	0
Harnage, Mercy	20	0	0
Harnage, Mary	20	0	0
Jenkinſon, Elizabeth (now Cornwall)	250	0	0
Jean, Thomas	200	0	0
Knyphauſen, General William	393	0	0
Knox, Lætitia	600	0	0
Laufac, Henrietta	20	0	0
Laurenzie, Erneſtine	200	0	0
Laye, Ann	120	0	0
Meuron, Suſan de	393	0	0
Middleton, Elizabeth	195	0	0
Onſlow, Arthur, in truſt for Poley, George, Walton, and Arthur Onſlow	300	0	0
O'Hara, Jemima	100	0	0
Popham, Catherine	200	0	0
Peyton, Sir Yelverton	250	0	0
Porten, Mary	300	0	0
Pownall, Mary	600	0	0
Palmer, William Finch, in truſt for the Honourable Brydget Byng	131	0	0
Randall, Suſannah, Martha and Elizabeth	50	0	0
Renard, Louis Peter	200	0	0
Rochford, Earl of	1000	0	0
Schutz, George	500	0	0
Salgas, Maria, Louiſa, and Roſe	60	0	0
Schaw, James	150	0	0
Skinner, Heſter	100	0	0
Smith, John	100	0	0
Serle, Ambroſe (for 31 years from the 5th of July 1776)	393	0	0
Ditto	131	14	0
Swanton, Amma	300	0	0
Suſſex, Lord, Rep. of, and Robert Burton, in truſt for Mrs. Durell	500	0	0
St. John, Henry	131	0	0
Thomas, Gertrude	100	0	0
Vernon, Charles	300	0	0
Walters, Margaret	200	0	0
Wetteſtein, Luke, in truſt for Sir Luke Schaub's Daughters	200	0	0
Willis, James	150	0	0

Williams

Williams, Charles —	£.263	0	0
Yates, Lady —	250	0	0

In Lieu of Apartments at Somerset Place.

Burdon, Elizabeth —	33	15	0
Freemantle, Maria —	45	0	0
Faucett, General Sir William —	57	10	0
Holt, Jane —	33	15	0
Melborne, Chriſtopher —	45	0	0

PENSIONS *formerly paid at the* TREASURY.

Alt, Chriſtina —	50	0	0
Alt, Henrietta —	50	0	0
Alt, Maria —	50	0	0
Audley, Lord —	500	0	0
Bliſs, Joſeph —	40	0	0
Broughton, Bryan —	100	0	0
Bradſhaw, Elizabeth —	500	0	0
Bradſhaw, Lawrence —	100	0	0
Bradſhaw, Auguſtus Hill —	100	0	0
Bliſs, Jonathan —	150	0	0
Burdett, Sir Charles —	200	0	0
Bowlby, Lady Mary —	200	0	0
Beawes, Mercy —	100	0	0
Cawthorne, Joſeph —	100	0	0
Clark, Harley —	40	0	0
Cockburne, Dame Auguſta Ann —	600	0	0
Chambers, Frances —	18	18	0
Delaval, Edward Huſſy —	300	0	0
Dodd, John —	150	0	0
Durant, William —	54	12	0
Davies, Henry —	70	0	0
Davies, Eſther —	40	0	0
Faddy, Peter —	50	0	0
Fielding, Mary —	50	0	0
Forbes, Lucy —	20	0	0
Finch, Ann —	50	0	0
Fawkener, Elizabeth —	200	0	0
Goldie, Sophia —	100	0	0
Gower, Counteſs (Marchioneſs of Stafford) —	300	0	0
Green, John —	200	0	0
Gunn, Ann —	20	0	0
Guy, John —	160	0	0
Hay, Elizabeth —	25	0	0
Hamilton, James —	200	0	0
Jea[illegible], Reverend Thomas —	200	0	0
Kelly, Elizabeth —	100	0	0
Kelynge, James —	50	0	0
Kilſhaw, Reverend Richard —	100	0	0
Lind, Maria Henrietta —	30	0	0
Lind, Mary —	50	0	0

Lloyd, Ann (ſpinſter)	—	£.	50	0 0
Lenox, Alexander	—		100	0 0
Lake, Ann	—		50	0 0
Luxmore, Henry	—		100	0 0
Lind, Lætitia	—		50	0 0
Mayor, John	—		650	0 0
Maſter, Mary	—		50	0 0
Miller, John	—		25	0 0
Morriſon, Mary	—		300	0 0
Macdonald, Roderick	—		18	18 0
Mein, John	—		200	0 0
Maclean, Col. Allen, in truſt for Mrs. Hawkins's children			50	0 0
Machie, Charlotte	—		25	0 0
Nicholaides, Stephanus	—		80	0 0
Otway, Meliora	—		100	0 0
Petch, Mary	—		80	0 0
Pierard, Francis	—		50	0 0
Planta, Joſeph	—		120	0 0
Richmond, Robert	—		40	0 0
Ramus, George	—		200	0 0
Robinſon, Lucy	—		30	0 0
Roche, Elizabeth	—		50	0 0
Reide, George	—		200	0 0
Speer, William	—		200	0 0
Speed, Mary Ann	—		100	0 0
Stonchewer, Richard	—		600	0 0
Smith, Frances Richmond	—		25	0 0
Villion, Elizabeth	—		100	0 0
Venner, Samuel	—		200	0 0
Vacchini, John	—		30	0 0
Watſon, Elizabeth	—		20	0 0
Whitefoord, Caleb	—		200	0 0
Williams, Lieut. William	—		100	0 0
Watkins, John	—		150	0 0
PENSIONS *to the late* QUEEN CAROLINE'S *Servants.*				
Alms-Houſe at Hanover	—		10	3 8
Gibſon, George	—		100	0 0
Hoyn, Counteſs	—		50	0 0
PENSIONS *to the late* PRINCESS *of* WALES'S *Servants.*				
Bridge, William	—		19	9 6
Brett, William	—		50	0 0
Bowlby, Lady Mary	—		285	0 0
Bully, John	—		100	0 0
Cadman, Richard	—		56	14 0
Cameron, Dougald	—		39	0 0
Dalton, Thomas	—		30	0 0
Duval, Phillip	—		250	0 0
Davies, Jane	—		10	0 0
Evelyn, Auguſta (now Mrs. Jenkins)	—		412	0 0

Egerton,

Egerton, Uriana Margaret	—	£.	372	10 0
Egerton, Mary	—		131	10 0
Griffiths, John	—		200	0 0
Ditto	—		100	0 0
Heineker, Dorothy, (now Mrs. Munro)	—		121	13 0
Harris, John	—		42	15 0
Hutchinſon, Thomas	—		39	0 0
Hand, John	—		39	0 0
Hamilton, Phillippa (now Lady Fuſt)	—		31	10 0
Irby, A. G. E. (now Lady Walſingham)	—		372	10 0
Jackſon, Jane	—		65	0 0
Love, Richard	—		3	0 0
Ludby, Edward, for Edward and Thomas Godfrey, £.10 each	—		20	0 0
Maitland, Hon. Alexander	—		209	0 0
Muller, Chriſtopher	—		25	4 0
Metan, William	—		27	6 0
Newton, Sarah	—		50	0 0
Neville, Catharine	—		372	10 0
Nicholay, Chriſtopher	—		173	10 0
Paſchal, Ann Elizabeth	—		21	0 0
Ramus, Charles	—		28	10 0
Ruſhton, Henry	—		52	14 6
Ruſhton, James	—		19	9 6
Ritſo, George	—		50	0 0
Ditto,	—		100	0 0
Scott, William	—		475	0 0
Short, Edward	—		33	0 0
Street, Anthony	—		38	0 0
Schawer, John	—		39	0 0
Scott, Henrietta	—		12	12 0
Thomas, Charles Naſſau	—		131	10 0
Viney, Walter	—		42	15 0
White, Peggy	—		2	12 6
Watts, William	—		300	0 0
Ditto	—		80	0 0
Ditto,	—		80	0 0
Watſon, Elizabeth	—		20	0 0
Ward, Robert	—		95	0 0

PENSIONS *by* SIGN MANUAL, *with their Dates.*

Antrobus, Edmund, and Coutts Trotter, in truſt for Eleanor Molleſon, July 20, 1793	—		300	0 0
Arnold, Benedict, and Thomas Morriſon, Eſqrs. in truſt for Edward Shippen Arnold, James Robertſon Arnold, Sophia Matilda Arnold, and George Arnold, 100*l.* each, do.	—		400	0 0
Allen, Frances Anne, Jan. 20, 1795	—		65	0 0
Boland, Quaſhy, July 26, 1783	—		27	0 0
Brockſbank, Ann, March 4, 1783	—		200	0 0

Barnes,

Barnes, John, and Joseph White, in trust for Theodore Roſe, Feb. 9, 1785 —	£.	300	0 0
This Penſion was granted in conſideration of George Roſe, Eſq. having relinquiſhed the yearly ſum of 400l. net, granted to him in purſuance of an Addreſs to the Houſe of Lords.			
Brown, Charlotte, Dec. 11, 1786 —		100	0 0
Bremer, Ann, do. —		53	16 0
Brooks, Lydia, July 6, 1798 —		100	0 0
Bates, Ann, March 14, 1787 —		11	16 0
Butler, Elinor, July 2, 1788 —		50	0 0
Beauclerk Henrietta, Sept, 4, 1789 —		100	0 0
Beauclerk, Charlotte, do. —		100	0 0
Beauclerk, Martha, do —		100	0 0
Beauclerk, Ann, do —		100	0 0
Bunbury, Henry, Feb. 24, 1795 —		500	0 0
Butler, Lady Elinor, Nov. 6, 1792 —		100	0 0
Balmer, Dorothy, July 9, 1795 —		50	0 0
Burghall, George, March 13, 1793 —		300	0 0
Burke, Right Honourable Edmund, Rep. of, during the life of Mrs. Burke, Sept, 20, 1794 —		1200	0 0
Browell, Henry, and Robert Henderſon, in truſt for the ſix children of James Fallowfield, July 9, 1795 —		56	0 0
Burges, Sir James Bland, July 1, 1796 —		1200	0 0
Byron, Catherine Gordon, Oct. 2, 1799 —		300	0 0
Bearcroft, Clare St. George, May 9, 1800 —		200	0 0
Call, Sir John, and John Roberts, Eſq. in truſt for Sarah Bates, July 20, 1793 —		500	0 0
Cathcart, Elizabeth, Baroneſs, Oct. 16, 1798 —		500	0 0
Cooke, Penelope Ann, July 20, 1793 —		150	0 0
Cooke, Eliza, do. —		175	0 0
Cooke, Maria, do. —		175	0 0
Chriſtie, Ann, June 14, 1783 —		31	0 0
Ditto, April 16, 1794 —		18	11 0
Cumberland, Lady Albinia, July 1, 1794 —		400	0 0
Chamberlayne, Thomas Clerk, March 3, 1783 —		250	0 0
Chamberlayne, Betty Clerk, and Caroline Chamberlayne, July 6, 1793 —		66	13 4
Colleton, Lucy Cordelia, June 27, 1789 —		25	0 0
Coulſon, Mary, (widow) Jan. 20, 1795 —		35	0 0
Coutts, Thomas, Eſq. in truſt for Lady Auguſta Murray, July 27, 1796 —		1200	0 0
Cranſton, Henry, in truſt for James Lord Cranſton, March 6, 1799 —		300	0 0
Davies Mary, May 2, 1798 —		16	0 0
Davy, Elizabeth, July 20, 1793 —		32	10 0
D'Ivernois, Sir Francis, Oct. 7, 1800 —		200	0 0
Edgcombe, Peggy, March 29, 1797 —		196	0 0
Eden, Dame Caroline, Dec. 23, 1785 —		100	0 0

Eden,

Eden, Sir Frederick, Dec. 11, 1786	—	£. 100	0	0
Elliot, Mary, Dec. 9, 1789 ——	—	69	0	0
Elphinſtone, Lady, for herſelf and two daughters, June 25, 1790 ——	—	300	0	0
Ewart, Elizabeth, (widow) Nov. 10, 1694	—	645	0	0
Ditto, in truſt for John Ewart, do.	—	121	0	0
Ditto, in truſt for Elizabeth Ewart, do.	—	121	0	0
Ditto, in truſt for Mary Ewart, do	—	121	0	0
Erſkine, Mary Henrietta, July 11, 1797	—	400	0	0
Folger, Timothy, and his Wife, May 21, 1793	—	169	0	0
Francis, Frances, Oct. 9, 1793 ——	—	60	0	0
Francis, Elizabeth, do. ——	—	60	0	0
Fordyce, John, and William Fullarton, Eſqrs. in truſt for George Hamilton Gordon, July 20, do.	—	200	0	0
Fawkener, William, Sept. 6, do. ——	—	300	0	0
Flint, Ann, (widow) Oct. 9, do. ——	—	66	0	0
Ditto, in truſt for the two eldeſt of her eight children, do.		66	0	0
Fitzgerald, Lord Robert, March 12, 1801	—	800	0	0
Greeme, Mary, June 27, 1789 ——	—	100	0	0
Gilbert, Etienne, Clerk, Aug. 23, 1791	—	100	0	0
Goddard, Charles, Eſq., to be wholly or proportionately ſuſpended agreeable to the amount of any office he may hold, April 3, 1799 ——	—	850	0	0
Gower, Earl, and Sir Archibald M'Donald, in truſt for Gertrude Phillipine de Kutzleben, May 21, 1800		130	0	0
Green, Elizabeth, (widow) March 12, 1801	—	200	0	0
Haſlam, Sarah Ann, December 11, 1786	—	32	14	0
Hamilton, Dame Caſſandra, June 29, 1787	—	100	0	0
Holdſworth, Elizabeth, June 27, 1789	—	300	0	0
Hamilton Mary, May 7, 1790 ——	—	80	0	0
Halifax, Robert, and Catharine Halifax, widow; in truſt for Gertrude, Charlotte, Marianne, Caroline, Catherine, and Elizabeth Halifax, 60*l.* per ann. each, Sept. 2, 1793		360	0	0
Hobart, Henry, and Richard Cumberland, Eſqrs. and the ſurvivor of them; in truſt for Elizabeth Margaret Cumberland, July 1, 1794 ——	—	100	0	0
Ditto, ... Ditto; in truſt for Albinia, Elizabeth Cumberland, do. ——	—	100	0	0
Hollingſworth, John, and Andrew Hollingſworth; in truſt for Sarah Adams, Dec. 22, 1795	—	300	0	0
Hort, Sir John, Sept. 28, 1796 ——	—	1000	0	0
Hyde, Rev. George Hooton, July 19, 1797	—	50	0	0
Howell, Anne, June 10, 1799 ——	—	16	0	0
Hereford, Lord and Lady, and the ſurvivor of them, May 29, 1800 ——	—	900	0	0
Hewgill, Elizabeth, March 14, 1801	—	300	0	0
Huſkiſſon, William, May 17, 1801	—	1200	0	0
Johnſtone, Deborah Charlotte (now Nugent), July 2, 1788		300	0	0
Jardine, Chriſtine, Oct. 7, 1800 ——	—	125	0	0
Kyte, Loretta Maria, (widow) April 21, 1790	—	150	0	0

Lloyd,

Lloyd, Ann, (ſpinſter), April 2, 1788	—	£.	50	0	0
Lockman, Arabella Dorothea, Feb. 24 1792	—		33	10	0
Lemprier, John, and Elizabeth Bandinell, his wife, ſeverally and ſucceſſively, Oct. 24, 1798	—		200	0	0
Lewhellin, Ann, May 2, 1798	—		16	0	0
Leſlie, Lord, Aug. 14, 1799	—		500	0	0
Livingſton, Edmund, Oct. 7, 1800	—		500	0	0
Lloyd, John, May 4, 1801	—		50	0	0
Moncton, Suſanna, April 29, 1785	—		200	0	0
Maclean, Jane, Nov. 10, 1785	—		150	0	0
Maclean, Jane, Sept. 28, 1786	—		150	0	0
Moyle, Iſabella and Mary, Aug. 7, 1789	—		150	0	0
Maclain, Rev. Archibald and Henrietta Ann Maclean Nov. 13, 1790	—		100	0	0
Morland, William, for the life of Harriet Bernard, Oct. 2, 1792	—		554	0	0
Miles, William Auguſtus, July 20, 1793	—		300	0	0
Morley, Jane, (widow) Jan. 20, 1794	—		50	0	0
Mudge, Thomas, Jan. 13, 1798	—		130	0	0
Maclaine, Harriet Anne, Feb. 7, 1798	—		200	0	0
Mordaunt, Lady Mary, Sept. 2, 1797	—		400	0	0
Maclaine, Charles Anthony, Eſq. June 11, 1800	—		130	0	0
Mordaunt, Lady Mary, Oct. 24, 1800	—		400	0	0
Mitchel, Rev. William, Jan. 19, 1801	—		130	0	0
Maurice, Robert Clerk, Oct. 14, 1800	—		300	0	0
Mallet du Pan, Mrs. Frances, Oct. 9, 1800	—		200	0	0
Montford, Lord Thomas, Oct. 8, 1800	—		600	0	0
Munday, Rev. Robert, Oct. 20, 1800	—		90	0	0
Miller, Ann, (widow) March 12, 1801	—		130	0	0
Noel, Maria, June 27, 1789	—		100	0	0
Nott, Charlotte Georgina Auguſta, Oct. 2, 1799	—		150	0	0
Nott, Auguſta, do.	—		150	0	0
Oſborn, Sir George, and John Ley, Eſq. in truſt for Jane Wraxhall, July 20, 1793	—		400	0	0
Pierſon, Sarah, June 21, 1786	—		27	10	0
Pierſon, Frances, do	—		27	10	0
Pierſon, Mary, do	—		27	10	0
Pierſon, Diana Ann, do.	—		27	10	0
Ponſonby, Sarah, July 2, 1788	—		50	0	0
Poole, Sir Ferdinando, Dec. 24, 1782	—		670	0	0
Pierſon, Rev. Thomas, March 14, 1801	—		130	0	0
Ramſden, Frêcheville, March 4, 1783	—		300	0	0
Reideſell, Frederick Adolphus Baron de, Feb. 9, 1785			265	0	0
Ritſo, Louiſa, June 27, 1787	—		250	0	0
Robinſon, Catherine Gertrude, Oct. 9, 1793	—		600	0	0
Rivers, James, April 21, 1794	—		446	0	0
Rowe, Sukey, Dec. 24, 1782	—		270	0	0
Roſs, James Tyrrell, Nov. 17, 1797	—		250	0	0
Scarſdale, Lord, May 7, 1790	—		1200	0	0

Sundius, Chriſtopher, July 4, 1790	—	£.	100	0 0
Sneyd, Jeremy, Sept. 18, 1798 ——	—		336	0 0
Sneyd, Elizabeth, Sept. 18, 1793 ——	—		336	0 0
Sutton, Captain Evelyn, Jan. 20, 1794	—		250	0 0
Starbuck, Samuel, and his wife, May 21, 1793	—		169	0 0
Sutton, Thomas Manners, George Dawning, and Matthew Beachcroft, Eſqrs. ; in truſt for Mary Ann Herries, April 17, 1799 ——	—		300	0 0
Ditto, in truſt for Iſabella Maria Herries, do.	—		150	0 0
Ditto, in truſt for Catherine Herries, do.	—		150	0 0
Ditto, in truſt for Julia Mary Herries, do.	—		150	0 0
Swinburn, Mary, Oct. 16, 1800 ——	—		60	0 0
Spiegel, Van de Digna Johanna, March 14, 1801	—		500	0 0
Smith, Ann, May 4, 1801 ——	—		50	0 0
Villiers, Right Hon. John, and William Garthſhore, in truſt for Lady Louiſa Paget, Feb. 1, 1801	—		300	0 0
Webſter, William, his wife and the ſurvivor, Sept. 25, 1794 ——	—		65	0 0
Woodcock, Aldborough, in truſt for Lady Margaret Fordyce, repreſentatives of, July 2, 1788	—		150	0 0
Woodford, Sir Ralph, Baronet, Aug. 22, 1798	—		200	0 0
Williams, Mary, Sept. 4, 1789 ——	—		100	0 0
Wrightſon, John, and the Repreſentatives of Thomas Gibbons, in truſt for Dame, M. J. Perriot, Sept. 17, 1789			60	0 0
Willis, Thomas Clerk, Nov. 5, 1790	—		400	0 0
Walters, Margaret, Oct. 9, 1793 --	—		248	0 0
Walpole, Hon. Thomas, July 20, 1793	—		500	0 0
Whitefoord, Caleb, do ——	—		200	0 0
Walſingham, Lord, in truſt for George and Thomas de Grey, and the ſurvivor, July 27, 1794	—		1200	0 0
Wilſon, Dr. James, Dec. 21, 1798 --	—		250	0 0
PENSIONS *by* PATENT.				
Ainſlie, Sir Robert, Sept. 8, 1796 --	—		1000	0 0
Douglas, Right Hon. Sylveſter, (Contingent Penſion) March 21, 1795 ——	—		600	0 0
Ditto, during the Life of himſelf and Frederick Sylveſter, North Douglas, and the ſurvivor of them	—		600	0 0
Fraſer, William, Dec. 12, 1789 ——	—		1200	0 0
Hamilton, Sir Charles, June 11, 1790	—		200	0 0
Knox, William, Dec. 10, 1790 —	—		600	0 0
Morgan, Maurice, Nov. 25, 1782 ——	—		350	0 0
Robinſon, John, April 1, 1782 ——	—		1000	0 0
Sutton, Sir Richard, (Baronet) Jan. 5, 1769	—		564	0 0
St. Albans, Duke of, (from 16th February, 1787, to 10th October, 1803,) May 9, 1789 ——	—		1000	0 0
Skinner, Sir John, March 14, 1800 --	—		2000	0 0
Watſon, Brooke, in truſt for his wife, Sept. 19, 1788			557	10 0
Willis, John, M. D. Jan. 29, 1791 —	—		717	0 0
Willis, Rev. Francis, do. ——	—		1000	0 0

PENSIONS *to late* FOREIGN MINISTERS.

William Money, for ſervices performed in foreign parts, Feb. 2, 1776	£.	100	0 0
John Oſborn, late Envoy Extraordinary to Dreſden, Dec. 26, 1775		800	0 0
Sir Robert Gunning, late do. and Plenipotentiary to Peterſburgh, Nov. 20, 1776		1000	0 0
Horace, St. Paul, late Envoy Extraordinary to Stockholm, July 9, 1779		600	0 0
Joſeph Fry, Charge d'Affaires at Bruſſels, Dec. 24, 1781		200	0 0
Benjamin Langlois, Secretary of Embaſſy at Vienna, March 9, 1782		875	0 0
John Millequet, Charge d'Affaires at Dreſden, Aug. 27, 1784		250	0 0
George Cooke, Conſul General at Tripoli, Nov, 24, 1785		248	0 0
Nathaniel Daviſon, do Algiers, Jan. 27, 1786		360	0 0
Lewis Dutens, Charge d'Affaires at Turin, Feb. 16, 1787		300	0 0
Sir J. Stepney, Envoy Extraordinary at Berlin, July 15, 1788		800	0 0
Lord Torrington, Miniſter Plenipotentiary at Bruſſels, May 17, 1793		1684	0 0
Charles Keene, Charge d'Affaires at Stockholm, June 26,		250	0 0
Sir Ralph Woodford, Envoy Extraordinary at Copenhagen, Dec. 8, 1774		800	0 0
Charles Logie, Conſul General at Algiers, May 30, 1794		460	0 0

The following are to continue until otherwiſe provided for in his Majeſty's Service, or until determined by Warrant from his Majeſty.

Lord Malmeſbury, late Ambaſſador Extraordinary to the States General of the United Provinces, Jan. 28, 1797	£.	2300	0 0
Thomas Walpole, late Envoy Extraordinary to the Elector Palatine, June 26, 1797		800	0 0
Major General Gardner, late Miniſter Plenipotentiary to the Court of Warſaw, Feb. 7, 1798		600	0 0
Francis James Jackſon, late Secretary of Embaſſy and Miniſter Plenipotentiary to Spain, and nominated Ambaſſador to the Ottoman Porte, Oct. 23,		1000	0 0
Charles Henry Fraſer, late Reſident with the Hans Towns, April 3, 1799		900	0 0
John Coleman, Eſq. late Charge d'Affaires at Hamburgh, Dec. 23		120	0 0
Right Honourable John Trevor, lat Envoy Extraordinary and Miniſter Plenipotentiary at the Court of Turin, May 9, 1800		1200	0 0
Lord Henley, late Envoy Extraordinary and Miniſter Plenipotentiary, at the Court of Vienna, Jan. 20, 1801		2000	0
Lord Whitworth, late Envoy Extraordinary and Miniſter Plenipotentiary at the Court of Peterſburgh, March 12, 1801		2000	0 0

Sir

Sir William Hamilton, late do. at Naples, do. —	2000	0	0
Honourable Robert Walpole, late ditto at Lisbon, do.	2000	0	0
Daniel Hailes, late Envoy Extraordinary at the Court of Stockholm, do —— —	800	0	0

RECAPITULATION.

Amount of Penſions formerly payable by the late Paymaſter of Penſions ——	£. 18,039	0	8
Ditto Ditto, at the Treaſury	9,762	8	0
Ditto Ditto, to the Servants of the late Queen Caroline and late Princeſs of Wales --	5,387	8	8
Ditto Ditto, by Sign Manual	37,804	10	4
Ditto Ditto, by Patent	11,388	10	0

* Theſe Penſions were transferred to the Exchequer by the Act of the 22d of his preſent Majeſty, ch. 82.

Total Amount of Penſions having reference to the 6th Claſs of Civil Liſt Payments, as directed by the Act of 22d of his preſent Majeſty, ch. 82	£. 82,381	7	8
Amount of Penſions to late Foreign Miniſters	24,447	0	0
	£. 106,828	17	8

Whitehall Treaſury Chambers,
29th June, 1801.

N. VANISTTART.

Memorandums: Amount of Penſions payable at the Exchequer out of the Duties of 4½ per centum, as per account preſented to the Houſe of Commons, on the 14th day of May laſt —— — £. 9513 0 0

The Penſions granted by authority of Parliament, and charged upon the Conſolidated Fund, are not included in this Account.

* It is very probable that ſeveral of the perſons whoſe names appear on theſe liſts are dead; but that can only be aſcertained from time to time, as the certificates are delivered by their repreſentatives at the Exchequer.

No. X.

ACCOUNT *of all* PENSIONS *charged upon his Majesty's Civil Establishment for* SCOTLAND; *specifying the times when granted, and the persons to whom they are or may be payable; made up by the Barons of Exchequer at Edinburgh.*

	£.		
Mrs. Christian Campbell, Dec. 6, 1763 —	200	0	0
Ann Mary Baroness Forrester, May 30, 1764 —	600	0	0
Lieutenant James Sutherland, April 29, 1769 —	100	0	0
Walter Lord Aston, Jan. 23, 1769 — —	100	0	0
Mrs. Marion M'Kay, Jan. 15, 1770 — —	100	0	0
Colonel James Seton, Nov. 3, 1770 — —	150	0	0
John Lord Colvin, of Culross, June 25, 1771 —	200	0	0
Lady Elgin, Nov. 12, 1771 — —	300	0	0
Elizabeth Norris, Feb. 3, 1772 — —	50	0	0
Margaret Winchester, Jan. 6, 1772 — —	20	0	0
Lady Borthwick, Oct. 28, 1772 — —	100	0	0
Sir Peter Inglis, trustee for behoof of the Children of Sir Archibald Primrose, Nov. 8, 1774 — —	200	0	0
Dr. James Beattie, Aug. 25, 1773 — —	200	0	0
Lord Kirkcudbright, Aug. 15, 1774 — —	200	0	0
Mrs. Elizabeth Stewart, Sept. 12, 1774 — —	50	0	0
Mrs. Lucy Kennedy, Feb. 23, 1775 — —	160	0	0
Allan M'Dougall, Esq. Writer to the Signet, in trust for the Widow and Children of John Hay, of Newhall, Esq. June 1, 1775 — — —	400	0	0
Mrs. Jane Campbell, March 2, 1775 — —	100	0	0
Lord Cathcart and other Trustees, for behoof of Lord Napier's Children, Sept. 20, 1775 — —	300	0	0
Katharine Lady Morton, Sept. 1, 1775 — —	200	0	0
Mrs. Elizabeth Sinclair, Dec. 30, 1775 — —	150	0	0
John Stirling, do. — — —	100	0	0
Margaret and Jean Law, Nov. 29, 1776 —	50	0	0
Alexander Burnet, Esq. do. — —	200	0	0
Elizabeth Dunbar, May 1, 1777 — —	20	0	0
William Muir, Esq. Nov. 15, 1777 — —	300	0	0
James Francis Erskine, Esq. June 26, 1777 —	200	0	0
Misses Janet and Ann Dick, Feb. 20, 1778 —	100	0	0
Charles St. Clare, Esq. Aug. 14, 1778 —	200	0	0
Mrs. Margaret Mansfield, May 28, 1779 —	150	0	0
Lady Ann Erskine, Feb. 24, 1779 — —	100	0	0
Lady Mary Cochrane { 100*l.* Dec. 2, 1799 / 100*l.* Aug. 9, 1781 } —	200	0	0
Lady Wallace, June 14, 1780 — —	150	0	0
Lady Ann Gordon, do. — —	150	0	0
Mrs. Hannah Falconer, Nov. 24, 1780 —	45	0	0

Francis

Francis Anderſon, Eſq. Aug. 9, 1781 — —	£.	100	0	0
Iſabella Counteſs Dowager of Errol, March 19, 1782		300	0	0
Elizabeth, Jane, Margaret, and Ann Watſon, do. —		100	0	0
Mrs. Allan Grant, March 19, 1782 — —		100	0	0
Lady Ann Lindſay, { 150*l.* do. / 150*l.* Dec. 14, 1782, } —		300	0	0
Mrs. Ann Fraſer Roſe, Feb. 24, 1788 — —		100	0	0
Lady Mary Home, formerly Lady Mary Hay, Feb. 26, 1783 — — —		100	0	0
Miſs Janet Keith, do. — — —		100	0	0
Miſs Ann Keith, do. — — —		100	0	0
Miſs Dorothy Dalrymple, Feb. 26, 1783 —		100	0	0
Frances Maria Murray, do. — —		150	0	0
Lady Harriot Boyce, do. — —		200	0	0
Iſabella Kirkpatrick, March 15, 1782 — —		50	0	0
Mrs. Penelope Maitland, Feb. 26, 1783 —		170	0	0
Mrs. Margaret Stewart Gordon, do. — —		50	0	0
Katharine Don, Oct. 25, 1786 — —		50	0	0
James Rochead, Eſq. of Inverlieth, and others, Truſtees for behoof of the Widow and Children of George M'Kay, of Reay, May 10, 1785 — —		315	0	0
Miſs Sophia Jane Grant, Dec. 28, 1784 — —		50	0	0
Miſs Charlotte Grant, do. — —		50	0	0
Mary Cockburn, Aug. 31, 1786 — —		60	0	0
Margaret, Katharine, and Elizabeth Buchannan, Aug. 30, 1786 — — —		100	0	0
Ann and Elizabeth Forbes, Sept. 4, 1786 —		20	0	0
Margaret Mary Nimmo, do. — —		50	0	0
Mrs. Ann Burnett, April 5, 1787 — —		50	0	0
Mrs. Janet Tait, April 5, 1787 — —		100	0	0
John Leſlie Baron Lindores, do. — —		150	0	0
James Dundas, Eſq. for Mr. Erſkine's Truſtees, for behoof of Charles James Gardner, July 5, 1787 —		50	0	0
Jean and Elizabeth Mercer, Sept. 24, 1787 —		40	0	0
Mrs. Anne Foreſt, July 5, 1787 — —		60	0	0
Maria Margaret Lady Napier, May 4, 1789 —		200	0	0
William Lord Gray, May 23, 1788 — —		200	0	0
Mrs. Grizel Hamilton, May 4, 1789 — —		50	0	0
Mrs. Jane Cockburn, Aug. 8, 1789 — —		200	0	0
George Home, Eſq. in truſt for Jane and Cecilia Telfer May 11, 1789 — — —		100	0	0
Jean and Lilias Stewart, Aug. 8, 1789 — —		50	0	0
Ann, Jean, and Chriſtian Seton, March 17, 1790 —		60	0	0
Miſs Mary Campbell, May 28, 1790 —		100	0	0
Mrs. Elizabeth Dalrymple, do. — —		100	0	0
James Lord Torphichen, March 18, 1790 —		300	0	0
Mrs. Jane Carre, May 28, 1790 — —		100	0	0
Mrs. Suſan Williamſon, May 28, 1790 —		100	0	0

Miſs Ann Colvill, July 1, 1790 — —	£. 100	0	0
Miſs Katharine Colvill, do. — —	100	0	0
Mrs. Iſabel Gardner, July 2, 1790 — —	50	0	9
Margaret, Katharine, Ann, Harriot, and Caroline Grant, ditto — —	100	0	0
Miſs Marion Dalrymple, do. — —	100	0	0
Mrs. Betty Dickſon, do. — —	30	0	0
Mr. William Baron, do. — —	100	0	0
Miſs Johanna Fergusſon, do. — —	70	0	0
Miſs Elizabeth, Ann, Margaret, and Robina Cullen, July 3, 1790 — —	200	0	0
Mrs. Eleonora Ruſſell, do. — —	100	0	0
Dame Magdalane Maxwell, July 31, 1790 —	100	0	0
Elizabeth Sutherland, June 26, 1789 — —	100	0	0
Mrs. Elizabeth Wardlaw, for behoof of her four Children, July 7, 1788 — — —	100	0	0
Mrs. Ann Hall, Sept. 29, 1789 — —	35	0	0
Lady Iſabella Sinclair, July 2, 1790 — —	150	0	0
Mrs. Jean Currie, do. — — —	40	0	0
Mrs. Agnes Simpſon, May 28, 1790 — —	30	0	0
Fletcher Norton and Adam Pearſon, Eſqrs. in truſt for behoof of Mrs. Balmain and Children, Oct. 21, 1790 —	100	0	0
Mrs. Helen Hay, Aug. 13, 1790 — —	100	0	0
Elizabeth Jemima, Counteſs of Errol, Feb. 7, 1791 —	300	0	0
Miſs Mary Cockburn, March 14, 1791 —	100	0	0
Miſs Fanny Cockburn, do. — —	100	0	0
Miſs Harriot Cockburn, do. — —	100	0	0
Lady Dalzell, July 8, 1790 — —	200	0	0
Elizabeth Dunbar, Sept. 7, 1791 — —	100	0	0
Miſs Catharine Sinclair, Oct. 1, 1791 — —	37	10	0
Miſs Margaret Sinclair, do. — —	37	10	0
Miſs Ann Sinclair, do. — —	37	10	0
Mary Bertram, Aug. 1, 1791 — —	25	0	0
Henry Scott, Earl of Delorain, Sept. 7, 1791 —	300	0	0
Lady Sinclair, of Longformacus, do. — —	100	0	0
Mrs. John Robinſon, do. — —	100	0	0
Lady Livingſton — — —	100	0	0
Miſſes Ann and Elizabeth Livingſton, do. —	100	0	0
Mrs. John Stewart or Crawford, Oct. 1, 1791 —	100	0	0
Mrs. Henry Mackenzie and Hannah Mackenzie her daughter, do. — — —	100	0	0
Miſſes Margaret and Mary Mackenzie, do. —	100	0	0
Miſs Hope Mackenzie, do. — —	100	0	0
Miſs Ann Houſton, do. — —	100	0	0
Mrs. Colonel Cunningham, do. — —	100	0	0
Miſſes Suſan and Grizel Sandilands, do. — —	100	0	0
Miſs Margaret Haldane, do. — —	66	0	0
Miſs Euphemia Haldane, do. — —	66	0	0

Miſs

Miſs Elizabeth Hope Carnegie, Dec. 19, 1791	£. 100	0	0
Mrs. Maxwell, Dec. 1, 1791	100	0	0
Miſs Eſther Orr, do.	100	0	0
Mrs. Mary Sutherland, Dec. 30, 1791	100	0	0
Miſs Mary Sutherland, Dec. 30, 1791	100	0	0
Miſs Louiſa Sutherland, do.	100	0	0
Mrs. Margaret Haldane and Elizabeth Haldane her daughter, do.	100	0	0
John Drummond, Eſq. in truſt for Lady Irvine and her two daughters, March 13, 1792	100	0	0
James Robertſon, Eſq. for behoof of the four younger children of Capt. George Robertſon, March 21, 1792	100	0	0
Kirkpatrick Williamſon, Eſq. in truſt for Elizabeth and Helen Williamſon, do.	100	0	0
Ann Baroneſs Elphinſtone, and Ann and Clementina Elphinſtone, her daughters, June 24, 1791	300	0	0
Ann Stewart, March 1, 1792	50	0	0
Mary Ann Hamilton, Nov. 14, 1791	70	0	0
Lady Louiſa Kerr, June 16, 1792	200	0	0
Lady Staney Kerr, do.	200	0	0
Lady Elizabeth Kerr, do.	200	0	0
Agnes Lumſden, Nov. 14, 1791	30	0	0
William Lord Home, Aug. 3, 1792	300	0	0
Lady Foulis, Aug. 23, 1792	100	0	0
Miſs Iſabella Kirkpatrick, do.	100	0	0
Miſs Ann Cramond, do.	60	0	0
Miſs Elizabeth Fleming, do.	50	0	0
Miſs Katharine Fleming, do.	50	0	0
Miſs Jean Fleming, do.	50	0	0
Miſs Heugenia Leſlie, Oct. 9, 1792	60	0	0
Agnes Shaw, wife of George Shaw, Nov. 16, 1792	50	0	0
Charlotte Simpſon, Dec. 30, 1791	100	0	0
Caroline Mary Cooper, May 15, 1793	200	0	0
Elizabeth Ann Cooper, do.	200	0	0
Jean, Barbara, and Charlotte Legertwood, do.	100	0	0
Lady Mary Martin, do.	200	0	0
Lady Emelia Cook, do.	200	0	0
Elizabeth Maxwell, July 18, 1793	100	0	0
Jean, Margaret, and Douglas Moncrieffe, June 19, 1793	200	0	0
James Lord Forbes, Nov. 16, 1793	100	0	0
Lady Forbes, do.	300	0	0
John Campbell, of Stonefield, Eſq. Oct. 21, 1793	300	0	0
Henry Woodcock, and other truſtees of Elborough Woodcock, for behoof of Lady Margaret Fordyce, Feb. 9, 1788	150	0	0
Agnes Maxwell, Jan. 20, 1796	50	0	0
David Cathcart, and others, in truſt for John Wylde, Eſq. March 16, 1796	150	0	0

Mary Henrietta Erſkine, July 21, 1797 —	£.	400	0 0
William Cuthill and Henry Scott Alves, for the Child or Children of Ann Wilſon, by her huſband Richard Wilſon, July 11, 1797. ——— —		300	0 0
Andrew Drummond, Eſq. for Lady Dunmore, Aug. 7, 1798 ——— ——— —		200	0 0
Lady Virginia Murray, Aug. 7, 1798 —— —		200	0 0
Lady Elizabeth Murray, do. ——— —		100	0 0
Crawfurd Tait, for Mrs. Henrietta Lindley, do. —		50	0 0
Charlotte Murray, do. ——— —		50	0 0
Dr. Adam Ferguſon, March 8, 1799 —— —		100	0 0
Iſabella, Mary, and Margaret Ferguſon, his daughters, do.		200	0 0
Mary Clara Lady Elibank, Aug. 6, 1799 —		300	0 0
Mrs. Barbara Hay, and ſix daughters, May 19, 1800		600	0 0
Jean Counteſs of Caithneſs, July 1, 1800 —		200	0 0
John Baron Elphinſton, do. ——— —		300	0 0
Agnes, Jean, Grace, and Mary Campbell, July 2, 1800		200	0 0
Mrs. Margaret Swinton, and Margaret, Mary, Iſabella, Harriot, and Ann Swinton, her daughters, July 4, 1800 ——— ——— —		300	0 0
Mrs. Emelia Elder, and at her death to her ſon, Oct. 24, 1800 ——— ——— —		300	0 0
Dr. Thomas Sommerville, Oct. 6, 1800 —— —		100	0 0
Dame Helen Dalrymple, Oct. 24, 1800 —		200	0 0
Mary John Amelia, and Janet Campbell, do. —		200	0 0
Lady Elizabeth Eleonora Dundas, and at her death to her ſix daughters, Feb. 14, 1801 —— —		300	0 0
Robert and Coutts Trotter, Eſqrs. for Mrs. Maria Cochrane, Oct. 24, 1800 ——— —		200	0 0
Total Charge	£.	24,864	10 0

Examined and certified by

FRANCIS ANDERSON,

Deputy Auditor.

Exchequer Chambers, Edinburgh,
13th June, 1801.

No. XI.

A LIST *of the* PENSIONS, *on the Civil Eſtabliſhment of that part of the United Kingdom called* IRELAND, *up to the 25th of March laſt; together with the dates of the ſame, and the terms for which they were reſpectively granted.*

	£.		
The Repreſentative of Charles Hooper and Philip Martin, Dec. 15, 1726—until 2000*l.* be paid at one payment —— ——	200	0	0
William Sharman, Eſq.; in truſt for Margaret Netterville, July 18, 1744—Pleaſure —— ——	100	0	0
The Repreſentative of Nathaniel Clements, in truſt for the Children of John Clements, deceaſed, Aug. 7, 1746	100	0	0
Sarah de la Poir, April 12, 1750 —— ——	36	10	0
Repreſentative of Alderman Hans Baillie, of Dublin, in truſt for the Widow and children of Richard Anneſley Clarke deceaſed, April 6, 1753 —	150	0	0
Elizabeth Paine, do —— —	30	0	0
Henrietta Haſſard, in truſt for the Children of the late David Chaigneau, Oct. 24, 1753 —	150	0	0
Mary Hamilton, alias Preſton, Feb. 21, 1755 —	150	0	0
Margaret Therond, Spinſter, do. —— —	63	17	6
Executors of Charles Uſher, in truſt for			
Harriet Moleſworth, Jan. 15, 1756—Life	70	0	0
Louiſa Ponſonby, do —— —	70	0	0
Elizabeth Moleſworth, do. —	70	0	0
Repreſentative of Ferdinand Duke of Brunſwick and Lunenburg, Nov. 17, 1778—31 years from Oct. 10, 1778 —— —	1200	0	0
Repreſentative of Lord Hawke, March 7, 1760—Life of Martin Bladen, now Lord Hawke, and Edward, his brother and ſurvivor —— —	2000	0	0
Martha Lady Beauclerk, widow of Lord Henry Beauclerk, in truſt for her Daughters, eſtab. 1751—Pleaſure	400	0	0
Mrs. Macartney, do —— —	200	0	0
Penelope Viſtor, April 19, 1763 —— —	100	0	0
The Executors of the Duke of Bedford, in truſt for Richard Fitzpatrick, July 15, 1763—Life —	100	0	0
Harriet Vernon —— —	100	0	0
Caroline Vernon —— —	100	0	0
Elizabeth Vernon —— —	100	0	0
Repreſentative of John Earl of Sandwich, and George Grenville, Eſq. in truſt for the Princeſs Auguſta, March 29, 1764 —— —	5000	0	0

Charles

Charles Duke of Richmond, in truſt for Lady Louiſa Mary Lenox, wife of Lord George Henry Lenox, 24 May 1764—Pleaſure	—	£.500	0	0
Repreſentative of Philip Viſcount Strangford, in truſt for his two daughters, Sept 28, 1764	—	250	0	0
George Whitelock, Eſq. June 1, 1765	—	200	0	0
Eleanor Symmer, widow of Robert Symmer, Eſq. do		100	0	0
William Henry, Duke of Glouceſter, May 1, 1767		3000	0	0
Ditto.....addition, March 13, 1789		4000	0	0
Anna Helena Heatly, April 26, 1768	—	50	0	0
Barbara Wight and Frances Mitchell, June 25, 1768		50	0	0
Mary Huſſey, widow of James Huſſey, Eſq. June 29, 1768		200	0	0
Thomas Geough, Eſq. Nov. 7, 1769	—	200	0	0
Repreſentatives of Jeremiah Dyſon, Feb. 23, 1770—Lives of his three ſons, Jeremiah, George, and Henry, and Survivor	—	1000	0	0
Lady Conyngham, June 9, 1770—Pleaſure	—	600	0	0
Mrs. Anna Maria Hewit, do	—	300	0	0
Elizabeth Biddle, ſpinſter, Nov. 1, 1770	—	150	0	0
Mary Elizabeth Vallancey, Dec. 17, 1770	—	75	0	0
Frances Preſton Vallancey, do	—	75	0	0
Letitia Preſton Vallancey, do.	—	75	0	0
Hector Munro, Clerk, Jan. 10, 1771	—	100	0	0
John Swan, Eſq. in ttuſt for Maria Swan, Oct. 10, 1771		50	0	0
John Milbanke, Eſq. Oct. 31, 1771	—	1070	0	0
John Pennefather, do.	—	30	0	0
William Pennefather, do.	—	30	0	0
Mary Pennefather, do.	—	30	0	0
Catherine Pennefather, Oct. 31, 1771—Pleaſure	—	30	0	0
Margaret Pennefather, do.	—	30	0	0
Repreſentative of Robert Adair, in truſt for his three children, Robert, Diana, and Elizabeth Adair, June 24, 1772	—	500	0	0
Anne Moore, Oct. 22, 1772	—	100	0	0
Jane Gordon, ſpinſter, do.	—	50	0	0
Harriet Gordon, ſpinſter, do.	—	50	0	0
Edward Croſbie, in truſt for Richard Croſbie, Eſq. Nov. 24, 1774		50	0	0
Mary Croſbie, do.	—	50	0	0
Dorothy Croſbie, do.	—	50	0	0
Carey Caroline Lill, do.	—	300	0	0
Elizabeth Sneyd the elder, and Elizabeth Sneyd her daughter, and Survivor, Jan. 22, 1776	—	500	0	0
Dorothy Helen, June 7, 1776	—	100	0	0
John Wynne, do.	—	100	0	0
Thomas Earl of Howth, do.	—	500	0	0
Catherine Fitzgerald. do.	—	400	0	0
Elizabeth Delamain, do.	—	75	0	0

Richard

Richard Malone, do.	———	—	£.	200	0 0
Connell Vereker, do.	——	—		150	0 0
Edward Bulkeley, do.	———	—		250	0 0
Ditto	addition, Dec. 20, 1780			250	0 0
John Swan, Esq. June 7, 1776	——	—		200	0 0
Edward Smith, Esq. June 7, 1776	--	—		300	0 0
Sarah Norman, widow, do.	——	—		100	0 0
Jacob Downing Pickford, do.	——	—		250	0 0
Bridget Porter, do.	———	—		50	0 0
Elizabeth Farquiere, do.	——	—		200	0 0
Marcella Marshall, Aug. 7, 1776	—	—		100	0 0
Margaret Mitchell, do	———	—		250	0 0
Charlotte Lill, do.	———	—		100	0 0
Teresa Booker, Nov. 26, 1776	——	—		50	0 0
Ditto	addition, Aug. 1, 1791			50	0 0
John Lord Kinsale, Jan. 21, 1777	—	—		400	0 0
Ditto	addition, Nov. 25, 1785			200	0 0
Representative of Lord Clonmell, Assignee of Sir Nicholas Lawless, Baronet, Assignee of Edward Moore, Esq. March 25, 1777—31 years from Lady-day 1776				1000	0 0
Representative of Lord Clonmell, Assignee of Sir Nicholas Lawless, Baronet, Assignee of Edward Moore, Esq. Ditto—ditto	———	—		700	0 0
Juliana Howe, April 30, 1778—Life		—		750	0 0
Albert Nesbit, Clerk, Aug. 20, 1780—Pleasure		—		1000	0 0
The Representative of Henry Meredyth, in trust for Letitia Meredyth and Judith Woodward, Dec. 20, 1780				200	0 0
Francis Bernard Beamish, Esq. do.	—	—		300	0 0
John Evans, do.	———	—		120	0 0
James Young, do.	———	—		300	0 0
Robert Gamble, do.	———	—		500	0 0
Edward Sterling, do.	——	—		200	0 0
Isabella Frances Francis, do.	——	—		150	0 0
Ditto	addition, March 17, 1794			150	0 0
Sarah Hasler, Dec. 20, 1780	——	—		150	0 0
Edward Storey, Clerk, in trust for Catherine Hannah Sneyd, Feb. 19, 1781	——	—		300	0 0
Lord Rodney, April 7, 1781—Life		—		1000	0 0
Do. in trust for Lady Dowager Rodney, do.		—		500	0 0
John Rodney, do.	——	—		100	0 0
Jane Rodney, do.	——	—		100	0 0
Henrietta Rodney, do.	—	—		100	0 0
Anne Rodney, do.	——	—		100	0 0
Sarah Rodney, do.	———	—		100	0 0
Anne Kennedy, July 18, 1781—Pleasure		—		100	0 0
Elizabeth Dunkin, Feb. 4, 1782	——	—		120	0 0
Robert Emmet, Doctor, in trust for Harriet Temple, do.				50	0 0
Harriet Temple, do.	——	—		50	0 0

Gustavus

Guſtavus Hume, in truſt for Richard Mayne, Thomas Worſley, Frances and Anne Burleigh, Feb. 4, 1782	£.	100	0	0
Robert French, Eſq. in truſt for Frances Newburgh, to ſupport her Children Frances and Mary Elizabeth Newburgh, do. ——		200	0	0
Repreſentative of Henry Theophilus Clements, Eſq. in truſt for Catherine Lady Aylmer and her children, Mathew Lord Aylmer, Henry Frederick Whitworth, and Roſe Aylmer, Feb. 25, 1783—Pleaſure —		400	0	0
William Lodge, Clerk, Aug. 15, 1783—Life —		200	0	0
Conſtantia Maria Wren, Feb. 6, 1784—Pleaſure		70	0	0
John Stephen Lewis de Toncourt, Oct. 30, 1784		200	0	0
Faithful Forteſcue, do. —— —		100	0	0
Henry Harriſon, do. —— —		100	0	0
William Taylor, Gent. Dec. 2, 1784 — —		113	15	0
Edward Hamilton, Eſq. in truſt for Catherine, Mary, Anne, Elizabeth, and Arabella Hamilton, daughters of the late Joſhua Hamilton, Eſq. and the Survivor, March 19, 1785 —— —		200	0	0
James Anthony du Roveray, Eſq. do. —		300	0	0
Jane Moore, Aug. 16, 1785 —— —		200	0	0
Catherine Ridge, Oct. 5, 1785 —— —		33	6	8
Sarah Ridge, do. —— —		33	6	8
Ann Ridge, do. —— —		33	6	8
Frances Benſon and Mary her daughter, and Survivor, Oct. 12, 1785 —— —		200	0	0
Mrs. Elizabeth Bourchier, Nov. 25, 1785 —		100	0	0
John Newman, Eſq. do. —— —		113	15	0
Mrs. Catherine Emmerſon, do. —— —		150	0	0
Anne Pringle and Margaret Pringle, and Survivor, do.		100	0	0
Robert Jephſon and Jane his wife, and Survivor, do.		600	0	0
Sir William Godfrey, Baronet, do. — —		300	0	0
Thomas Truelock Bookey, Feb. 4, 1786 —		40	0	0
William Truelock Bookey, do —— —		40	0	0
Viſcount Pery, May 11, 1786—Life —		3000	0	0
Repreſentative of Robert Shaw, Aug. 24, 1786—Life of Robert Shaw, Jun. —— —		800	0	0
Repreſentative of Robert Shaw, do.—Life of Bernard Shaw. do. —— —		700	0	0
Repreſentative of Rober Shaw, do.—Life of Mary Shaw, —— —		250	0	0
Edward Gledowe, Eſq. Aug. 18, 1786—Pleaſure —		100	0	0
Mary Ellis, wife of Doctor Thomas Ellis, do. —		200	0	0
Juliana Southwell, do. —— —		200	0	0
Repreſentative of Henry Theophilus Clements, in truſt for John, Henry and Margaret Neſbitt, and Survivor, do —— —		75	0	0
James Ormſby and Jane his wife, and Survivor, do.		200	0	0
Sir John Stewart Hamilton, Baronet, do. —		300	0	0

Mary

Mary Roberts, Dec. 28, 1786 — —	£. 150	0	0
Florinda Ellifon, Jan. 9, 1787 — —	200	0	0
Catherine Kendal and Elizabeth Boſſugue, do. —	120	0	0
Ann Leland, widow, do. — —	100	0	0
Elizabeth Leland, do. — —	100	0	0
Frances Arabella Kennedy, do. — —	100	0	0
Elizabeth North, widow, do. — —	60	0	0
Frances Rynd, Jan. 9, 1787 — —	50	0	0
Norman and Thomas Hyland, and Survivor, Jan. 9, 1787	50	0	0
Samuel Sneyd, Eſq. Jan. 26, 1787 —	1000	0	0
John Norris Thompſon, Eſq. do. — —	500	0	0
Robert Aſhworth, Eſq. April 18, 1787—Life of Robert Aſhworth, Jun. — —	1200	0	0
Robert Aſhworth, Eſq. do.—Life of Henrietta Aſhworth	300	0	0
Robert Aſhworth, Eſq. do.—Life of Frederick Aſhworth	300	0	0
Robert Aſhworth, Eſq. do.—Life of Charles Aſhworth	200	0	0
The Repreſentative of Thomas Higinbotham, Eſq. July 21, 1787—Life of Robert Higinbotham —	640	0	0
The Rep. of Robert Shaw, do.—Life of Mary Shaw	200	0	0
Penelope Houghton, Oct. 10, 1787—Pleaſure —	100	0	0
Anthony Tiſdall, do. — —	80	0	0
Sarah Smyth, do. — —	40	0	0
Roger Briſtowe, Eſq. Oct. 16, 1787 — —	200	0	0
Mary Warren, do. — —	100	0	0
Anne Warren, do — —	50	0	0
Sarah Warren, Oct. 16, 1787—Pleaſure —	50	0	0
Rebecca Warren, do. — —	50	0	0
Right Hon. John Beresford, in truſt for the children of the late John Hamilton, Eſq. Oct. 20, 1787 —	500	0	0
Fitzherbert Richards, Eſq. April 14, 1788 —	400	0	0
James Cavendiſh, Eſq. do. — —	150	0	0
Harriet Cavendiſh, wife of James Cavendiſh, do. —	150	0	0
Lady Catherine Marlay, do. — —	300	0	0
Honourable Roſe Brown, Aug. 8, 1789 —	300	0	0
Francis D'Ivernois, do. — —	300	0	0
David Jebb, Eſq. do — —	300	0	0
Lady Catherine Foole, do. — —	200	0	0
Sarah Viſcounteſs Ranelagh, do. — —	400	0	0
Sir Henry Mannix, Bart. do. — —	500	0	0
Lucia Viſcounteſs Clifden and Emily Anne Agar, her daughter and ſurvivor, do. — —	300	0	0
Sarah Hernon, do. — —	70	0	0
Elizabeth Hernon, do. — —	70	0	0
William Colville, Eſq. do.—Life — —	600	0	0
Mary Heatley, wife of Conway Heatley, Eſq. Sept. 24, 1790—Pleaſure — —	200	0	0
Colonel Charles Vallancey and Catherine his daughter, and ſurvivor, Dec. 23, 1790 — —	150	0	0

Joſhuah

Joſhua Lord Viſcount Allen, do. ——	—	600	0	0
Beresford Burſton, Eſq. in truſt for Jane Meares, and Sarah her daughter, and ſurvivor, do.	—	200	0	0
Robert Thompſon, do. ——	—	100	0	0
George Adair, do. ——	—	100	0	0
Frances Stewart, wife of Adam Murray Stewart, do.		100	0	0
Toby Purcell, do. —— ——	—	80	0	0
John Hunter Gowan, do. ——	—	100	0	0
Dorcas Harriſon, wife of John Harriſon, Eſq. Aug. 1, 1791 —— ——	—	150	0	0
Dame Anna Bella Blackiſton, Aug. 1, 1791	—	400	0	0
John Mannin, do. ——	—	60	0	0
Thomas Dawſon, Eſq. and Henrietta his wife, and ſurvivor, do. —— ——	—	400	0	0
Edward Wilmot, do. —— ——	—	100	0	0
Samuel Briſtowe, Eſq. Sept. 8, 1791	—	200	0	0
Chriſtopher Blunden, Dec. 23, 1791 —	—	40	0	0
Lieut. Henry Bowen, in truſt for his four children, Cornwallis, Caroline, Cordelia, and Maria Bowen, and ſurvivor, March 21, 1792 ——	—	100	0	0
Griſelda Montgomery, Executrix of Griſſel Montgomery, in truſt for Caroline Griſelda, George Vaughan, and William Montgomery, June 29, 1792	—	200	0	0
Anne Maclean, do. ——	—	100	0	0
Charlotte Cary, do. —— ——	—	60	0	0
William Scott, and Roſamond his wife, and ſurvivor, do.		60	0	0
William Thomas Newenham, Eſq. do.	—	200	0	0
Robert O'Calliaghan Newenham, Eſq. do.	—	100	0	0
Ditto, addition, March 19, 1794 ——	—	200	0	0
John Ward, June 29, 1792 ——	—	100	0	0
George Ward, do. ——	—	60	0	0
Mary Bourchier, do. ——	—	100	0	0
Arthur Wolfe, Eſq. in truſt for George Walker Bruce, do.		40	0	0
Elizabeth Blakeney, do. ——	—	50	0	0
Frederick Duke of York and Albany, Sept. 4, 1792		7817	17	4
Sir James May, Bart. Sept. 18, 1792	—	300	0	0
George Stephen May, Eſq. do. ——	—	100	0	0
Robert Gardiner, Eſq. do. ——	—	400	0	0
Mary Freeman, do. ——	—	110	0	0
Thomas Lea, Eſq. do. ——	—	100	0	0
John M'Cauſland, Eſq. do. ——	—	100	0	0
Viſcounteſs Lifford, (widow,) do. ——	—	500	0	0
Sarah Mauvillian Cooper, Oct. 20, 1792	—	100	0	0
Benigne Leſcure, widow, and Mary and Jane Corneille, ſpinſters and ſurvivors, do. Pleaſure	—	54	15	0
Elizabeth Jebb, (widow,) do. ——	—	75	0	0
Roſs Jebb, do. —— ——	—	75	0	0
Elizabeth Jebb, do. ——	—	37	10	0

Mary

Mary Jebb, do.	37	10	0
Frances Jebb, do.	37	10	0
Margaret Jebb, do.	37	10	0
Elinor Loftus, (widow,) Oct. 30, 1792	100	0	0
Elizabeth Anneſley, Jan. 22, 1793	100	0	0
Richarda Anneſley, do.	100	0	0
Hannah Stratford, June 8, 1793	50	0	0
Angell Greenfield, Aug. 16, 1793	50	0	0
James Nugent, Eſq. Sept. 6, 1793	200	0	0
Mary Johnſton, widow of William Johnſton, do.	50	0	0
Mrs. Jane Penroſe, do.	50	0	0
Catherine Hoare, Nov. 19, 1793	150	0	0
William Walcot, Eſq. do.	200	0	0
Elizabeth Greene, Nov. 19, 1793	50	0	0
Anne Sherry, do.	50	0	0
Robert Day, Eſq. in truſt for the ſole and ſeparate uſe of Anne Copinger, wife of Maurice Copinger, Eſq. December 23, 1793—Life of Maurice Copinger, Eſq. and after his death, in truſt for the ſaid Anne and John James Copinger, her ſon, during their lives, and the life of the ſurvivor	800	0	0
Nicholas Loftus Tottenham, Eſq. Jan. 10, 1794—Pleaſure	600	0	0
Suſannah Kirby, do.	200	0	0
Miſs Frances Guydickins, Dec. 23, 1793	260	0	0
Hon. John Maſſey, Feb. 20, 1794—Life	400	0	0
Lord Frederick Campbell, March 10, 1794	3500	0	0
James Switzer, March 14, 1794—Pleaſure	50	0	0
William Beckford and Elinor his wife, and ſurvivor, do.	70	0	0
Mary Yeates and Sarah Butler, and ſurvivor, do.	200	0	0
Sir Charles de Voeux, Bart. do.—Life	300	0	0
William Blakeney, Eſq. March 14, 1794—His life, and, after his death, to Sarah his wife, for life	450	0	0
Sir William Johnſtone, Bart. do.—Pleaſure	800	0	0
The Rev. John Burgh, do.—Life	1000	0	0
Mary Burgh, now Griffith, wife of Richard Griffith, do.	250	0	0
Anne Burgh, do.	200	0	0
Elizabeth Burgh, do.	300	0	0
Catherine Burgh, do.	250	0	0
Robert Cunningham, Eſq. March 17, 1794	300	0	0
Dame Hannah Langriſhe, do.—Her life, and after her death, to Hannah Langriſhe, ſpinſter, her daughter, during her life	300	0	0
Hannah Langriſhe, ſpinſter, do.—Her life	200	0	0
James Mercer, Eſq. and Catherine his wife, and ſurvivor, do.—Their lives	250	0	0
Jane Eyre, now Lynch, and Martin French Lynch her huſband, and ſurvivor, do.—Pleaſure	200	0	0

Jonathan

Jonathan Bruce Roberts, Esq. do.—The lives of his daughters, Catherine and Sarah Roberts, and survivor		150	0	0
Elizabeth Elliot, March 17, 1794—Pleasure	—	150	0	0
John Nason, do. ———	—	200	0	0
The Rev. Anthony Trail, do.—The lives of Agnes his wife, and William his son, and survivor	—	150	0	0
Catherine Fitzmaurice, do.—Pleasure	—	400	0	0
Mary Portis, do. ——— ———	—	300	0	0
Sir John Blaquiere, K. B. do.—His life, and the lives of the Prince of Wales, Duke of York, and Duke of Clarence ——— ———	—	1200	0	0
Count de Lally Tollendall, March 19, 1794—Pleasure		300	0	0
Count de Jarnack and his wife Madame de Jarnack, and survivor, do. —— ——	—	200	0	0
Peter Alley, Esq. do. ———	—	100	0	0
William Judge, Esq. do. ———	—	150	0	0
Miss Augusta Joddrell, March 19, 1794	—	200	0	0
John White, Esq. do. —— ——	—	200	0	0
John White, Esq. and Frances his wife, and survivor, March 19, 1794—Pleasure ———	—	100	0	0
Edward Gleadowe, Esq. do. ——	—	500	0	0
Hon. Ellen Weldon, do.—Life ———	—	850	0	0
John Mears, Esq. do. ———	—	900	0	0
Elizabeth Ogle, do. ———	—	800	0	0
Sir John Blaquire, K. B. March 17, 1794—For 12 years from Nov. 24, 1793, or during his life	—	1031	8	11
Robert Ashworth, Esq. assignees of do.—do.	—	1030	18	6
Duchess of Athol, Oct. 8, 1794—Life	—	2000	0	0
Alexander Lynar, assignee of Lord Mountjoy, do.—From May 1, 1786, 99 years, if the lives of Alexander Lynar and John Revel shall continue so long	—	200	0	0
Robert Watson Wade, assignee of Lord Mountjoy, Oct. 8, 1794—From May 1, 1786, 99 years, if the lives of Robert Watson Wade and Mary Wade shall so long continue ——— ———	—	206	3	8
The Representative of Thomas Higinbotham, assignee of Lord Mountjoy, do.—From Aug. 18, 1787, 99 years, if the life of Robert Higinbotham shall so long continue ——— ———	—	103	11	0
William Parks, do.—His life, and the lives of Robert Watson Wade and Robert Shaw, jun. and survivor	—	360	16	6
Margaret Symes, in trust for William Symes, Nov. 12, 1794—Pleasure ———	—	60	0	0
Charlotte Roberts and Mary Roberts, and survivor, Dec. 31, 1794 ———	—	150	0	0
Philip Whitfield Harvey, Esq. Jan. 4, 1795	—	200	0	0
Lewis Mosse, Esq. do. ———	—	100	0	0
Thomas Nesbitt, Esq. Dec. 31, 1794—Life	—	500	0	0

Sackville

Sackville Hamilton, Esq. Sept. 18, 1792	£. 1200	0	0
Richard Borough, Esq. Dec. 31, 1794—Pleasure —	200	0	0
James Dickson, Esq. do. —— —	80	0	0
Henry Hamilton, Esq. March 10, 1795 —	210	0	0
Ditto, addition, July 16, 1795—Life —— —	140	0	0
Charlotte Jane Hamilton, March 10, 1795—Pleasure	100	0	0
Ditto, addition, July 16, 1795 —— —	50	0	0
Sackville Robert Hamilton, March 10, 1795 —	100	0	0
Robert Viscount Molesworth, July 16, 1795—Pleasure	400	0	0
Hon. Harriet Staples, Feb. 6, 1796—Life —	130	0	0
Letitia Christiana Sheridan, wife of Charles Francis Sheridan, Esq. March 23, 1796—Pleasure —	300	0	0
Hon. Miss Marianne Smythe, do. —— —	50	0	0
Claude de Fontenay, do. —— —	50	0	0
Miss Charlotte Forsayeth, do. —— —	50	0	0
Sophia Jackson, widow of Gordon Jackson, Esq. do.	40	0	0
Mary Hamilton als Preston, May 16, 1796—Life	100	0	0
Arabella Hamilton, wife of Sackville Hamilton, Esq. and Elizabeth, Mary, and Isabella, their daughters, and survivor, May 16, 1796 —— —	500	0	0
Richard Earl of Cavan, June 17, 1796—Pleasure	300	0	0
Anne Langrishe, wife of Robert Langrishe, Esq. Aug. 29, 1796 —— —— —	200	0	0
Anne Vowel, wife of Richard Vowel, Esq. do. —	100	0	0
Barbara Alicia Winder, Jane Alicia Winder, Rachel Alicia Harrison als Winder, and Elizabeth Alicia Winder, daughters of Thomas Winder, Esq. and survivor, do.	100	0	0
Jane Fitter, do. —— —— —	50	0	0
Hannah Hume, daughter of Gustavus Hume, Esq. do.—Life —— —— —	100	0	0
Hon. Percy Clinton Smythe, Jan. 2, 1797—Pleasure	100	0	0
Mrs. Henrietta Walsh, do. —— —	50	0	0
John Copperthwaite, Feb. 4, 1797 —— —	100	0	0
Ditto, addition, June 14, 1797 —— —	100	0	0
John Henry Echlin, Esq. in trust for Theodosia and Maria Cavendish, and survivor, do. —	50	0	0
Robert Viscount Molesworth and Mary Anne Viscountess Molesworth, and survivor, do. —— —	200	0	0
Anne Fox, wife of Luke Fox, Esq. do.—Life —	100	0	0
Mrs. Catherine Mason, wife of the Right Hon. John Monck Mason, Nov. 6, 1797 —— —	300	0	0
Louisa Ponsonby, wife of William Barbazon Ponsonby, Esq. July 29, 1797—Life —— —	130	0	0
Elizabeth Stewart, wife of James Stewart, Esq. do.	130	0	0
Dame Mary Roche, wife of Sir Boyle Roche, Bart. do.	200	0	0
Denham Jephson, Esq. do. —— —	600	0	0
Ponsonby Tottenham, Esq. do. —— —	300	0	0
George Dunbar, Esq. do. —— —	300	0	0

Mary Thomſon, January 22, 1798—Pleaſure		£. 55	0	0
Sir Robert Baxter, Feb. 7, 1798—Life	—	100	0	0
Mrs. Elizabeth Kells, March 23, 1798—Lives of Olimpia, Roſetta, Sarah, Anne, Henry, Bellaſyſe, and Louiſa Catherine Kells, and ſurvivor	—	100	0	0
Richard Daly, Eſq. Nov. 6, 1707—The lives of Jane, Richarda, Mary, Frances, Charlotte, Richard, Joſeph, and Cuthbert Daley, his children	—	100	0	0
George Earl of Belvidere, June 18, 1798—Life	—	800	0	0
Harriet Powell, do.—Pleaſure	—	70	0	0
Mrs. Elizabeth Croſbie, wife of William Arthur Croſbie, Eſq. do.—Life	—	250	0	0
Miſs Caroline Webſter, do.—Pleaſure	—	95	0	0
Ditto, addition, June 20, 1798	—	30	0	0
The Hon. William Cockayne and Barbara his wife, do. Their lives	—	250	0	0
George Hepenſtal, Eſq. do.—The life of Legh Hepenſtal		100	0	0
George Paine, do. do.	—	100	0	0
Elizabeth Marlay, do.—Pleaſure	—	100	0	0
Catherine Marlay, June 1798	—	100	0	0
Henry Duke Loſtus, do.	—	50	0	0
Arthur Loftus, do.	—	50	0	0
William Thomas Loftus, do.	—	50	0	0
Mary Anne Viſcounteſs Moleſworth, July 20, 1799		200	0	0
Frances Viſcounteſs Allen, do.	—	300	0	0
Ditto, addition, Oct. 23, 1800	—	100	0	0
William Bellew, Eſq. July 20, 1799	—	300	0	0
William Talbot, Eſq. in truſt for Jane Stanley, July 20, 1799—Her life	—	400	0	0
John Knox, Eſq. June 9, 1800—Life	—	600	0	0
Jacob de Bude, Eſq. Oct. 23, 1800—Pleaſure	—	300	0	0
Michael Murphy, Eſq. do.	—	100	0	0
Thomas Stanus and Caroline his wife, and ſurvivor, do.		100	0	0

French Pensions.

Julia Bloſſett	—	54	15	0
Julia de Villette	—	50	0	0

Military Pensions.

Mrs. Jane Stuart, Feb. 1, 1764—Pleaſure	—	200	0	0
Lieutenant Thomas Stanus, June 24, 1764	—	50	0	0
Ditto, addition, Sept. 30, 1766	—	30	0	0
Mrs. Anne Cliffe, March 26, 1766	—	100	0	0
Anne and Helena Lyndon, do.	—	200	0	0
Edward Candler, Sept. 30, 1766	—	70	0	0
Elizabeth Wemys, April 1, 1770	—	120	0	0

Elizabeth

Elizabeth Lambert, Sept. 15, 1770	——		£. 300	0	0
Sarah Turner, Oct. 1, 1774	——	—	50	0	0
Jeremiah Meara, April 1, 1775	——	—	100	0	0
Francis Pierard, Jan. 1, 1775	——	—	50	0	0
John Townſend, April 1, 1775	——	—	100	0	0
Britannia Green, April 1, 1776	——	—	50	0	0
Major Edward Goodenough, do.	——	—	150	0	0
Widow of Serjeant Jones, July 1, 1776		—	10	0	0
Joſeph Atkinſon, Eſq. in truſt for					
Harriet Pearce, Oct. 1, 1784	——	—	20	0	0
Elizabeth Pearce, do.	——	—	20	0	0
Major George Twiſleton Ridſdale, and Elizabeth his wife, and ſurvivor, July 1, 1783	——	—	80	0	0
Major G. T. Ridſdale, addition, June 24, 1789		—	50	0	0
Meredyth Fenkin, Oct. 1, 1785	——	—	121	13	4
Charles Francis Sheridan, Eſq. April 7, 1789		—	1000	0	0
Laurence Parſons, Eſq. July 1, 1789	——	—	273	15	0
Urſula Richardſon, widow, Jan. 1, 1791		—	200	0	0
Elizabeth Pickard, in truſt for her children, do.		—	70	0	0
Lieutenant Colonel John Mercier, Oct. 1, 1799		—	150	0	0
Adjutant John Stacie, do.	——	—	60	0	0
Olivia Cuthbertſon, do.	——	—	50	0	0
Juliana Cuthbertſon, do.	——	—	50	0	0
Catherine Cuthbertſon, Oct. 1, 1799	——	—	50	0	0
Jane Bagot, do.	—— ——	—	106	0	0
Francis M'Dowell, do.	——	—	40	0	0
Corporal James Barton	35th Foot, July 1, 1796		6	0	0
John Hall	do.	do. —	6	0	0
Edward Dowley	do.	do. —	6	0	0
John Walker	57th do.	do. —	6	0	0
John Maſters	62d do.	do. —	6	0	0
Charles Roberts	53d do.	do. —	6	0	0
Stephen Dunfee	15th do.	do. —	6	0	0
Corporal James Kelly	37th do.	do. —	6	0	0
Serjeant Thomas Leatherland	53d do.	do. —	6	0	0
Thomas Brittle	28th do.	do. —	6	0	0
William Jervis	54th do.	do. —	6	0	0
John Henderſon	66th do.	do. —	6	0	0

(A true Copy.)

RODEN, *Auditor General.*

Auditor General's Office, June 6, 1801.

SUPPLIES granted by Parliament for the Year 1801.

NAVY.

February 17, 1801.

THAT 135,000 Seamen be employed for Ten Lunar Months commencing 26th March, 1801, including 30,000 Marines.

For Wages for ditto	£.	2,497,500	0 0
For Victuals for do.		2,565,000	0 0
For Ordnance Sea Service on board the Ships in which they are to ferve		337,500	0 0
For Wear and Tear of fuch Ships		4,050,000	0 0
For the Ordinary of the Navy, including Half Pay to Sea and Marine Officers		637,418	5 8
For Buildings and Repairs of Ships, and other extra Works		733,900	0 0
For the Expence of the Tranſport Service, and for the Maintenance of Priſoners of War in Health at Home and Abroad		1,445,718	14 6
For the Care and Maintenance of Sick Priſoners of War		155,000	0 0
	£.	12,422,037	0 2

ARMY.

February 17, 1801.

THAT 58,387 Men be employed for Land Service, in Great Britain, Jerſey, Guernſey, and Alderney, including 5,797 Invalids; from 25th March 1801, to the 24th December following:

That 17,232 Men be employed for Land Service in Ireland, including 661 Invalids, from 1ſt Janurary 1801, to 24th December following:

For Guards, Garriſons, and other Land Forces in Great Britain, Jerſey, Guernſey, and Alderney	£.	1,653,878	6 5
For Land Forces in Ireland		576,593	12 7
For Forces in the Plantations, including Gibraltar, Minorca, and other Stations in the Mediterranean, the Cape of Good Hope, and New South Wales		1,724,377	0 4

For

For Four Troops of Dragoons, and Seventeen Companies of Foot, ſtationed in Great Britain for Recruiting Regiments ſerving in Eaſt India —	38,003	9	2
For Recruiting and Contingencies for Land Forces, and Extra Forage for Cavalry —	352,500	0	0
Ditto.....ditto.....in Ireland —	319,748	13	5
For General and Staff Officers, and Officers of Hoſpitals in Great Britain, Guernſey, and Jerſey —	86,522	6	8
Ditto.....ditto.....in Ireland —	48,197	5	4
For Full Pay to Supernumerary Officers —	25,662	8	2
For Allowances to the Paymaſter General, Commiſſary General of the Muſters, &c. &c. in Great Britain ——— —	116,088	14	5
For Allowances to the Muſter Maſter General, Judge Advocate General, &c. &c. in Ireland —	6,416	0	6
For Subſiſtence to Innkeepers, &c. on Quartering Soldiers, and Allowance to the Land Forces in Great Britain, for Small Beer —— —	255,000	0	0
For Allowances to the Land Forces in Ireland for Small Beer, &c. ——— —	115,384	12	4
For Reduced Officers of Land Forces and Marines	138,979	7	1
For Allowances to One Private of Reduced Horſe Guards, and to One Superannuated Gentleman of the Horſe Guards ——— —	20	12	11
For Half Pay to Regimental and Warrant Officers of Land Forces, and for Allowance to Retired Chaplains in Ireland ——— —	14,855	2	5
On Account of Officers late in the Service of The States General ——— —	1,000	0	0
Ditto.....of Reduced Officers, of Britiſh American Forces —— —— —	52,500	0	0
For Allowances of ſeveral Reduced Officers of ditto	7,500	0	0
For the In and Out-Penſioners of Chelſea Hoſpital, and the Expences of the Hoſpital —	148,382	0	6
Ditto.....of the Royal Hoſpital near Kilmainham, and for Ditto —— —	35,923	1	0
For Penſions to Widows of Officers of the Land Forces in Great Britain —— —	20,227	10	0
Ditto.....ditto.....in Ireland —	5,042	4	3
For the Barrack Department in Great Britain —	293,929	0	0
Ditto.....ditto.....in Ireland —	339,708	13	5
For Foreign Corps in the Service of Great Britain	303,391	4	5
For an Augmentation to the Land Forces in Great Britain of 10321 Men, including 1,257 Invalids	656,388	8	6
For Medicines, Bedding, and Hoſpital Contingencies, for the Forces in Ireland, and for the Royal Military Infirmary in Dublin —	21,372	19	9

June 9.

On Account of the Purchaſe of Land, and Conſtruction of Buildings, for a Royal Military College ——— --	£. 30,000	0	0
For defraying the Expences on Account of certain Premiſes at Chelſea intended for a Royal Military Aſylum for the Reception of the Children of Soldiers ——— --	8,400	0	0

June 11.

To defray the Extraordinary Services of the Army in Great Britain ——— --	2,500,000	0	0
Ditto.....ditto.....in Ireland --	600,000	0	0
	£.10,495,992	13	7

MILITIA and FENCIBLE CORPS.

February 17, 1801.

For the Embodied Militia and Corps of Fencible Infantry in Great Britain, from 25th March, 1801, to 24th December following --	973,531	8	9
Ditto.....ditto.....in Ireland --	1,381,017	10	11
For Contingencies for the Embodied Militia, and Corps of Fencible Infantry in Great Britain --	50,000	0	0
Ditto.....ditto.....in Ireland --	34,451	3	0
For Cloathing for the Embodied Militia of Great Britain ——— --	122,667	1	3
For the Volunteer Corps of Cavalry and Infantry in Great Britain ——— --	455,000	0	0
Ditto.....ditto.....in Ireland --	425,139	1	7

April 27.

For additional Field Officers to the ſeveral Corps of Militia in Ireland ——— --	11,167	6	11
Making Proviſion for Pay and Cloathing of the Militia of England.			
Ditto.....for Allowances to Adjutants, Serjeant Majors, and Serjeants of the Militia, diſembodied in purſuance of Act 39 and 40 Geo. III.			
Ditto.....for Allowances to Subaltern Officers of the Militia, in Time of Peace.			
	£. 3,452,873	12	5

ORDNANCE

ORDNANCE.

February 17, 1801.

For Ordnance Land Service, for Nine Months, from 1ſt April to 31ſt December 1801 --	£.	1,083,375	17	7
Ditto.....not provided for in 1799 --		39,972	15	0
Ditto.....not provided for in 1800 --		58,706	14	0
For Ordnance Services in Ireland, from 5th January 1801 to 4th January 1802 —— --		299,907	9	5
	£.	1,481,962	16	0

MISCELLANEOUS SERVICES.

March 31, 1801.

To be applied in Payment of a like Sum borrowed in Ireland on Treaſury Bills —— --		522,200	0	0
		Iriſh Currency.		
To be paid to the Accountant General, for preparing and ſtating the Public Accounts of Ireland, laid before the Houſe —— --		313	16	11
Ditto.....to the Deputy Accountant General, for preparing the ſame for Parliament --		221	10	9
Ditto.....to the Paymaſter of Corn Bounties --		738	9	3
Ditto.....to the Examinator of Ditto --		184	12	4
Ditto.....to the Inſpector General of Imports and Exports in Ireland, for preparing Accounts --		184	12	4
Ditto.....to the Firſt Clerk in his Office for Ditto		129	4	7
Ditto.....to the Examinator of Exciſe in Ireland for Ditto —— --		129	4	7
For defraying the expence of Pratique in the Port of Dublin —— --		966	18	7½
Ditto.....of Civil Buildings in Ireland --		29,538	9	3
Ditto.....of apprehending Public Offenders in Ireland —— --		2,307	13	10
Ditto.....of the Office of Solicitor of Criminal Cauſes in Ireland —— --		23,076	18	6
Ditto.....of Proclamations and Advertiſements in the Dublin Gazette —— --		6,485	10	9
Ditto.....of Printing certain Statutes in Ireland		3,477	2	4
Ditto.....of Printing, Stationary, and other Diſburſements, for the Public Offices in Ireland		18,166	11	10
For defraying the Incidental Expences of the Board of Treaſury in Ireland —— --		1846	3	1

For defraying the Expence of Building further Offices for the Records of Ireland, and to discharge Sums due for building Courts of Justice	£. 5,538	9	3
To be applied in working a Gold Mine in the County of Wicklow —— --	923	1	6
For Cloathing the Battle-Axe Guards in Ireland	683	1	6
For Cloathing the Officers of Arms and State Trumpeters in Ireland —— --	1,002	9	3
To be paid to the Trustees of the Linen and Hempen Manufactures in Ireland —— --	19,938	9	3
Ditto ..... to the Board of First Fruits in Ireland, for building and re-building Churches --	4,615	7	8
Ditto ..... to the Dublin Society for promoting Husbandry and other useful Arts — --	5,076	18	6
Ditto ..... to the Corporation, for paving, cleansing, and lighting the City of Dublin --	9,230	15	5
Ditto ..... to the Commissioners for making wide and convenient Streets in Ditto -	4,153	16	11
For defraying the Charge of the Incorporated Society in Dublin for promoting English Protestant Schools in Ireland —— --	18,213	4	7
For defraying the Charge of the Foundling Hospital in Ireland —— --	13,846	3	1
Ditto ..... of the Hibernian Marine Nursery for Sailors children —— --	1,846	3	1
Ditto ..... of supporting the Westmorland Lock Hospital in Dublin —— --	6,183	13	10
Ditto ..... of the Hibernian School for Soldiers Children —— --	3,655	7	9
Ditto ..... of the Roman Catholic Seminary in Ireland —— --	7,384	12	4
Ditto ..... of supporting the House of Industry for Relief of the Poor in Dublin --	15,594	9	3
Ditto ..... of the Society for promoting the Knowledge and Practice of the Christian Religion in Ireland —— --	276	18	6
Ditto ..... of the Female Orphan House near Dublin, for deserted Female Children --	461	10	9

April 14.

To be applied in promoting the Purposes of the Farming Societies of Ireland — --	1,846	3	1
Ditto ..... towards completing additional Buildings at the Repository of the Dublin Society and Botanic Garden —— ...	4,153	16	11

April 27.

PLANTATION.	For the Civil Eſtabliſhment of Upper Canada	7,950	0	0
	Ditto.....of Nova Scotia --	5,915	0	0
	Ditto.....of New Brunſwick --	2,420	10	10
	Ditto.....of Prince Edward Iſland -	1,900	0	0
	Ditto.....of the Iſland of Cape Breton --	957	16	0½
	Ditto.....of Newfoundland --	1,641	8	5
	Ditto.....of the Bahama Iſlands --	4,100	0	0
	Ditto.....of the Bermudas or Sommers Iſlands --	301	18	4¼
	Ditto.....of the Iſland of Dominica --	600	0	0
	Ditto.....of New South Wales --	7,146	0	0
For defraying the Charge of the Superintendance of Aliens --		7,620	0	0
Ditto.....of the Extraordinary Expences incurred for Proſecutions relating to the Coin --		2,270	18	2
Ditto.....of the Expences likely to be incurred for confining and Maintaining Convicts at Home		37,317	6	5
For defraying the Expences likely to be incurred for printing the Journals, &c. of the Houſe of Commons --		10,000	0	0
Ditto.....the Charge of the Works and Repairs of the Military Roads and Bridges in North Britain --		5,000	0	0
To diſcharge the probable Amount of Bills expected from, or on account of, New South Wales, excluſive of the Civil Eſtabliſhment --		25,000	0	0
For defraying the Expences of the Commiſſion under the ſeventh Article of the American Treaty --		3,550	0	0
To make good Money iſſued purſuant to Addreſſes		21,808	6	3
For Relief of the ſuffering Clergy and Laity of France, Toulonese and Corſican Emigrants, certain St. Domingo Sufferers, and American Loyaliſts --		208,772	0	0
For Foreign and other Secret Services --		15,000	0	0
To make good Money iſſued for additional Allowances to Clerks in the Office for auditing Public Accounts --		2,482	16	0
Ditto.....towards carrying into Effect a Plan for enquiring into the Mendicity of the Metropolis		500	0	0
Ditto.....for Expences incurred upon a plan for the Improvement of the Port of London --		253	12	7
Ditto.....for continuing the Index to the Journals of the Houſe of Lords --		116	16	0
Ditto.....to diſcharge Fees on Paſſing Public Accounts --		3,500	0	0
Ditto.....for Expences at the Parliament Office		374	4	8

Ditto

Ditto.....to pay Bills drawn on Account of New South Wales, due in 1800 --	£. 6,756	10	5
Ditto.....ditto, which became due in 1801 --	7,901	10	4
Ditto.....to pay Artificers employed in various Works about the Houſes of Parliament --	2,000	0	0
Ditto.....to pay Fees on paſſing a Commiſſion appointing Commiſſioners to enquire into the State of the Cold Bath Fields Priſon --	175	3	2
Ditto.....for Medicines ſent to New South Wales	895	16	0
To make good the ſums paid for Diſcount on Prompt Payments to the Loan and Lottery for 1800	177,330	18	10
To the Bank for receiving the Contributions to Do.	17,518	14	7
To make good Money paid for Salaries of Officers, and incidental Expences of the Commiſſion for Reduction of National Debt — --	902	14	6
To make good Money paid to the Officers of the Exchequer for Extra Trouble in making out Exchequer Bills ——— --	1,000	0	0
Ditto.....for a Clerk employed on various Buſineſſes relative to American Claims --	132	3	6
For the Board of Agriculture —— --	3,000	0	0
For ſupport of the Veterinary College -	1,500	0	0
For ſupport of the Britiſh Forts and Settlements on the Coaſt of Africa —— -	20,000	0	0

May 19.

To enable His Majeſty to afford Aſſiſtance to the Queen of Portugal ——— --	300,000	0	0

June 11.

Towards enabling the Truſtees of the Britiſh Muſeum to carry on the Execution of the Truſts repoſed in them by Parliament — --	3,000	0	0
To make good Money iſſued to the Chairman of the Committees of the Houſe of Lords --	2,701	9	0
For aſſiſting the Levant Company in carrying on their Trade ——— --	5,000	0	0
To make good Money iſſued purſuant to Addreſſes ——— --	10,891	11	10
Ditto.....for additional Allowances to Clerks in the Office for Auditing Public Accounts --	827	12	0
Ditto.....to complete the Purchaſe of Houſes neceſſary for carrying on the Works at the New Marſhalſea ——— --	528	9	0
Ditto.....for Premiums to be paid for Eſſays on Breaking-up of Graſs Lands — --	800	0	0

For

For the Civil Eſtabliſhment at Sierra Leone --	£.4,000	0	0
Sterling.....	£.1,155,752	18	3¼
and Iriſh Currency	£. 522,200	0	0

NATIONAL DEBT.

June 11, 1801.

To the Bank of England, to be by them placed to the Account of the Commiſſioners for Reduction of the National Debt ———	£.200,000	0	0

EXCHEQUER BILLS.

February 21, 1801.

For paying off Exchequer Bills, made out on Credit of the Duties on Income, granted by Act 39 Geo. III. — ———	£. 1,100,000	0	0
Ditto.....made out on Credit of the Duties on Goods imported and exported, granted by Act 38 Geo. III. ——— --	250,000	0	0
Ditto.....made out by virtue of Act 39 and 40 Geo. III. on Credit of the Supplies granted for 1800 ———	4,000,000	0	0

April 27.

For paying Intereſt on ſundry Exchequer Bills made out by virtue of ſeveral Acts of 39 and 40 Geo. III. ——— --	305,484	7	2

June 11.

For paying off Exchequer Bills, made out by virtue of Act 39 and 40 Geo. III. for raiſing £.3,500,000 thereby ———	3,500,000	0	0
Ditto.....by virtue of Act for raiſing £.3,000,000 ———	3,000,000	0	0
Ditto.....by virtue of Act for raiſing a further Sum of £.3,000,000 ———	3,000,000	0	0
	£.15,155,484	7	2

VOTE

VOTE OF CREDIT.

June 11, 1801.

To enable His Majesty to take such Measures as the Exigency of Affairs may require £.2,000,000 0 0

GRANTS.

February 19, 1801.

For raising £.28,000,000 by Annuities, whereof the Charges of £.25,500,000 are to be defrayed on the Part of Great Britain, and £.2,500,000 on the Part of Ireland —— £.28,000,000 0 0

February 21.

For granting an Additional Principal Sum of Five Shillings in £.3 *per Centum* Reduced Annuities, for every £.100 contributed towards the Loan of £.28,000,000.

April 2.

For applying part of the Supplies granted by the Parliament of Ireland, for the Service of the Year ending at Lady-Day 1801.

For establishing in Ireland one or more Lottery or Lotteries, under such Regulations as shall be appointed by the Lord Lieutenant, &c.

For raising £.701,250 by Lottery £. 701,250 0 0

April 30.

That the Charge of the Pay and Cloathing of the Militia in England be defrayed out of the Land Tax.

That the Allowances to Adjutants, &c. of the Militia, disembodied in pursuance of Act 39 and 40 Geo. III. be defrayed out of the same.

That the Allowances to certain Subaltern Officers of the Militia in Time of Peace be defrayed out of the same.

June

June 16.

For applying £4,000,000 out of the Monies arising by virtue of Act 39 George III. for granting certain Duties on Income	£.4,000,000	0	0
Ditto.....£.1,200,000 out of the Monies arising by virtue of Act 38 Geo. III. for granting certain Duties on Goods imported and exported, and on Tonnage of Ships and Vessels ——	1,200,000	0	0
Ditto.....£.3,100,000 out of the Monies that shall arise of the Surplus of the Consolidated Fund ——	3,100,000	0	0
Ditto.....£.433,333. 6*s.* 8*d.* remaining of the Sum granted in 1800, to fulfil Engagements with the Emperor of Germany –	433,333	6	8
Ditto.....£.65,671. 4*s.* remaining of the Sum granted in 1800, for Charge of the Troops of the Elector of Bavaria –	65,671	4	0
Ditto.....£.65,837. 19*s.* 7½*d.* being the Surplus of the Grants for 1800 —	65,837	19	7½
Ditto.....£.50,000 out of the Monies that shall arise from Interest of Land Tax contracted for — —	50,000	0	0
Ditto.....£.4,080. 11*s.* 6¾*d.* reserved in the Exchequer for particular Services since 10th May 1787 — —	4,080	11	6¾
Ditto.....£.8,280. 16*s.* 11¾*d.* remaining in the Exchequer of Contributions to Lotteries granted prior to 1799 —	8,289	16	11¾
For raising an additional Sum of £.2,000,000, by Exchequer Bills —— ——	2,000,000	0	0
For raising £.3,500,000 by ditto ——	3,500,000	0	0
For raising £.3,000,000 by ditto ——	3,000,000	0	0
For raising a further Sum of £.3,000,000 by ditto —— ——	3,000,000	0	0

STATE PAPERS.

His Majesty's most gracious Speech to both Houses, on opening the Business of the Imperial Parliament, on Monday, the 2d of February, 1801.

My Lords and Gentlemen,

AT a crisis so important to the interests of my people, I derive great satisfaction from being enabled, for the first time, to avail myself of the advice aud assistance of the Parliament of my united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

This memorable æra, distinguished by the accomplishment of a measure, calculated to augment and consolidate the strength and resources of the empire, and to cement more closely the interests and affections of my subjects, will, I trust, be equally marked by that vigour, energy, and firmness, which the circumstances of our present situation peculiarly require.

The unfortunate course of events on the continent, and the consequences which must be expected to result from it, cannot fail to be matter of anxiety and concern to all who have a just feeling for the security and independence of Europe.

Your astonishment, as well as your regret, must be excited by the conduct of those powers, whose attention, at such a period, appears to be more engaged in endeavours to weaken the naval force of the British empire, which has hitherto opposed so powerful an obstacle to the inordinate ambition of France, than in concerting the means of mutual defence against their common and increasing danger.

The representations which I directed to be made to the court of Petersburgh, in consequence of the outrages committed against the ships, property, and persons of my subjects, have been treated with the utmost disrespect; and the proceedings of which I complained have been aggravated by subsequent acts of injustice and violence. Under these circumstances, a convention has been concluded by that court, with those of Copenhagen and Stockholm; the object of which, as avowed by one of the contracting parties, to renew their former engagements for establishing by force a new code of maritime law, inconsistent with the rights, and hostile to the interests of this country.

In this situation I could not hesitate as to the conduct which it became me to pursue. I have taken the earliest measures to repel the aggressions of this hostile confederacy, and to support those principles

principles which are eſſential to the maintenance of our naval ſtrength, and which are grounded on the ſyſtem of public law, ſo long eſtabliſhed and recogniſed in Europe. I have, at the ſame time, given ſuch aſſurances as manifeſt my diſpoſition to renew my ancient relations with thoſe powers, whenever it can be done conſiſtently with the honour of my crown, and with the juſt regard to the ſafety of my ſubjects.

You will, I am perſuaded, omit nothing on your part that can afford me the moſt vigorous and effectual ſupport, in my firm determination to maintain, to the utmoſt, againſt every attack, the naval rights and intereſts of my empire.

Gentlemen of the Houſe of Commons,

I have directed the eſtimates for the ſeveral branches of the public ſervice to be laid before you. Deeply as I lament the continued neceſſity of adding to the burdens of my people, I am perſuaded you will feel with me, the importance of providing effectual means for thoſe exertions which are indiſpenſably requiſite for the honour and ſecurity of the country.

My Lords and Gentlemen,

I am confident that your deliberations will be uniformly directed to the great object of improving the benefits of that happy union, which, by the bleſſing of Providence, has now been effected; and of promoting to the utmoſt the proſperity of every part of my dominions.

You will, I doubt not, reſume the inquiries which were ſo diligently proſecuted in the laſt ſeſſion of Parliament, as to the beſt means of relieving my ſubjects from the preſſure of the preſent high price of proviſions, and of preventing, as far as it can be done by human foreſight, the recurrence of ſimilar difficulties. In theſe endeavours, and in every meaſure that can contribute to the happineſs of my people, the great end of all my wiſhes, you may be aſſured of my cordial concurrence.

You may rely on my availing myſelf of the earlieſt opportunity which ſhall afford a proſpect of terminating the preſent conteſt, on grounds conſiſtent with our ſecurity and honour, and with the maintenance of thoſe eſſential rights on which our naval ſtrength muſt always depend. It will afford me the trueſt and moſt heartfelt ſatisfaction, whenever the diſpoſition of our enemies ſhall enable me thus to reſtore to the ſubjects of the united kingdom the bleſſings of peace, and thereby confirm and augment thoſe advantages which reſult from our internal ſituation, and which, even under all the difficulties of war, have carried to ſo great an extent, the agriculture, manufactures, commerce, and revenue of this country.

On Thurſday, the 14th May, in the Houſe of Commons, Lord Hawkeſbury brought down the following Meſſage from his Majeſty:

George R.

HIS Majeſty, taking into his moſt ſerious conſideration, the imminent danger with which the kingdom of Portugal, the ancient

cient and natural ally of his crown, is threatened by the powers now at war with his Majesty, as well as the importance of the commercial relations subsisting between the two kingdoms, and relying on the known zeal and affection of his faithful Commons, recommends it to them to consider of empowering his Majesty to afford, by way of subsidy to the Queen of Portugal, such assistance as may enable her Most Faithful Majesty to take such measures for the defence of her dominions, against her enemies, as the exigences of affairs may appear to require.

G. R.

Ordered to be referred to a committee of supply.

On Friday, the 15th, in the House of Lords.

THE Duke of Portland presented a message from his Majesty, similar to that delivered by Lord Hawkesbury in the House of Commons, on the 14th, respecting subsidies to Portugal.

On Wednesday, the 3d June, in the House of Commons, the Chancellor of the Exchequer brought down the following Message from his Majesty:

G. R.

HIS Majesty thinks proper to accquaint the House of Commons, that he has founded an establishment for promoting military science. His Majesty thinks it will add to the skill and discipline, which, combined with British valour, have been so gloriously displayed in the service of the country; and, therefore, requests the House of Commons will make provision, to enable him to accomplish an object of so much importance.

[Referred to a committee of supply.

On Thursday, the 2d July, in the House of Lords, the Lord Chancellor read to both Houses the following Communication from his Majesty, for putting a Period, by Prorogation, to the present Session of Parliament.

My Lords and Gentlemen,

WE have it in command from his Majesty to acquaint you, that, on account of the advanced period of the season, and the state of public business, he is induced to relieve you from a longer attendance in Parliament.

His Majesty highly commends the wisdom, temper, and diligence, which have marked all your proceedings; and particularly acknowledges the assiduity and zeal with which you have pursued the investigation of the important subjects brought under your consideration, in consequence of the severe pressure occasioned by the high price of corn. The beneficial effects of the measures you have suggested for the alleviation of this calamity, have afforded his Majesty great consolation, and he has the utmost satisfaction in indulging the hope, that, under the favour of Providence, the blessings of plenty will be restored by the produce of the ensuing harvest.

Gentlemen

Gentlemen of the Houſe of Commons,

His Majeſty has directed us to return you his particular thanks, for the liberal proviſion which you have made for the various branches of the public ſervice. While he regrets the neceſſity of ſupplies ſo large, it is a relief to his Majeſty to obſerve, that the reſources and continued proſperity of the country have enabled you to diſtribute the public burdens in ſuch a manner as to preſs with as little ſeverity as poſſible on his faithful ſubjects.

My Lords and Gentlemen,

The brilliant and repeated ſucceſſes of his Majeſty's arms by ſea and land, important as they are in their immediate conſequences, are not leſs ſatisfactory to his Majeſty's mind, as affording freſh and deciſive proofs of that vigorous exertion, undaunted valour, and ſteady perſeverance which diſtinguiſh the national character; and on which the chief reliance muſt be placed for reſpect abroad, and for confidence and ſecurity at home. Events ſo honourable to the Britiſh name derive, at the preſent moment, peculiar value in his Majeſty's eſtimation, from their tendency to facilitate the attainment of the great object of his unceaſing ſolicitude, the reſtoration of peace on fair and adequate terms. They furniſh at the ſame time an additional pledge, that if the ſentiments of moderation and juſtice which will ever govern his Majeſty's conduct, ſhould be rendered unavailing, in this inſtance, by unreaſonable pretenſions on the part of his enemies, the ſpirit and firmneſs of his people will continue to be manifeſted by ſuch efforts and ſacrifices as may be neceſſary for aſſerting the honour of his Majeſty's crown, and for maintaining the permanent intereſts of the empire.

Then a commiſſion for proroguing the Parliament was read. After which the Lord Chancellor ſaid;

My Lords and Gentlemen,

By virtue of his Majeſty's commiſſion under the great ſeal, to us and other Lords directed, and now read, we do, in his Majeſty's name, and in obedience to his commands, prorogue this Parliament to Thurſday the 6th day of Auguſt next, to be then here holden; and this Parliament is accordingly prorogued to Thurſday the 6th day of Auguſt next.

Suſpenſion of Arms concluded between General Brune, commanding the French Army in Italy, and M. de Belgrade, Commander in Chief of the Auſtrian Army.

THE generals in chief of the French, and the Imperial and Royal armies in Italy, wiſhing to ſtop the effuſion of human blood at the moment when the two governments are occupied in concluding peace, have appointed and inveſted with their full powers the Citizens Marmont, General of Diviſion, and Counſellor of State, and Sebaſtiana, Chief of Brigade of Dragoons, and the Count Hohenzollern, Lieutenant-general, and the Baron de Zag, Major-general, to treat for an armiſtice, which has been concluded on the following terms:

Art. I. There ſhall be an armiſtice between the armies of the French republic and thoſe of his Majeſty the Emperor and King, in Italy, until the 4th Pluvoiſe (25th of January), the æra of the expiration of that of the armies in Germany. Hoſtilities, however, ſhall not be renewed until after 15 days notice from the reſpective commanders in chief, in Italy.

II. In this armiſtice ſhall be compriſed all the corps conſtituting part of the French armies of Italy and of the Griſons, and thoſe of the imperial armies of the Tyrol.

III. The French armies ſhall ſet out on their march the day after to morrow, 28th Nivoiſe (18th Jan.), to occupy their new line. This line ſhall follow the left bank of the Livenza from the ſea to its ſource near the gulf of Senigo; thence it ſhall aſcend to the lofty ſummit of the mountains which ſeparate the Piava from the Zeline, paſſes the mountains Maure, Cromplt, and Ramplalſpich, thence deſcends into the valley of Lukang by the Aigge, then up the mountain, and down again into Drauthac to Metterland, la Drave, and ſo on to Lintz, where it meets the line of demarcation fixed by the convention of Germany.

IV. The Imperial and Royal army ſhall take for the line of demarcation the right bank of the Tagliamento from the ſea to its ſource near Mount Maure. This line ſhall aſcend that point, and thence follow the line marked out in the preceding article, which ſhall be common to the two armies.

V. The countries compriſed between the two lines of demarcation are declared neutral; no troops ſhall be placed there in cantonments; poſts or piquets ſhall be placed there to guard the avenues: theſe poſts ſhall not keep at a greater diſtance than half a mile from the rivers.

VI. A line ſhall be drawn, which ſhall divide the neutral country into two parts, for the purpoſe of procuring proviſions there. This line ſhall be marked out by the rivulet Zelina, as far as Barca, ſhall paſs by Villatta, Porto Gruano, and follow the Liurena to the ſea.

VII. The places of Peſchiera and Sermione, the caſtles of Verona, and Legnago, the city and citadel of Ferrara, and the city and forts of Ancona, ſhall be ſurrendered to the French army on the foling conditions:

1. The garriſons ſhall have liberty to march out with the honours of war; they ſhall carry their arms, equipages, and property, to rejoin the Imperial army.

2. All the pieces of Imperial artillery, with their ammunition, as well as all other Imperial property, which is not deſignated on the articles hereinafter mentioned, ſhall be at liberty to be taken away, and ſix weeks ſhall be allowed the Auſtrian army for completing this evacuation.

3. All the other pieces of artillery, not Imperial, ſhall be given up with their ammunition to the French army as its property. As to the modes of conveyance, the French army undertakes to furniſh boats to carry off the effects from the fortreſſes and places of Verona, Legnago, and Ferrara, to the ſea. Theſe boats ſhall be punctually returned.

The French army ſhall furniſh the

the neceſſary means to carry from Verona the effects of the fortreſſes and places of Sermione, which ſhall be embarked upon the Adige.

The part of the flotilla now upon the lake of Guarda, and which has been taken by the French ſince the ſurrender of Peſchiera, ſhall alone be left in their poſſeſſion, and that which remains in the poſſeſſion and property of the Auſtrian army, ſhall be brought off by the Mincio and the Po, and by means ſupplied by the Auſtrian army. In caſe that within the term of ſix weeks agreed upon for the total carrying away of all property belonging to the Auſtrian army, that part of the flotilla which remains at its diſpoſal ſhall not be brought away, it is to be left entirely in the poſſeſſion and property of the French army.

4. The proviſion of the places ſhall be divided into two equal parts; the garriſons ſhall have one half, and the other half ſhall be given to the French army. The cattle ſhall belong to the garriſon excluſively.

5. Theſe places ſhall be given up in truſt until a peace to the French army, which undertakes to preſerve them in their preſent ſtate.

VIII. Orders ſhall be immediately ſent for the evacuation of theſe places, and the commanders ſhall march out of them with their garriſons as ſoon as poſſible, but at the lateſt within three days after the receipt of the orders which ſhall be tranſmitted by Auſtrian couriers extraordinary.

The commiſſioners appointed for the evacuation of the places ſhall remain in them until the end of that operation, with the Auſtrian guard, neceſſary for the police of magazines.

IX. The commiſſioners appointed to receive the arſenals and the magazines ſhall alone enter the places before the departure of the Auſtrian garriſons. The French garriſons ſhall only occupy one of the gates twelve hours before their entry into the place.

X. The ſick who ſhall remain in the places ſhall not be conſidered priſoners of war. The French army ſhall take care of them, and ſhall ſend them to the Imperial army, which ſhall be accountable for the expenſes which they may have occaſioned.

XI. In caſe one or more places ſhould be ſurrendered before the arrival of the couriers who ſhall be diſpatched by the General in Chief Bellegarde, no change ſhall be made in the capitulation, but it ſhall be executed in all its parts.

XII. The fortreſs of Mantua ſhall remain blockaded by the French poſts placed at the diſtance of 800 toiſes from the glacis. There ſhall be liberty to ſend in proviſions from ten days to ten days for the garriſon. They ſhall be fixed at 15,000 rations of corn, and 1500 of cheeſe and other proviſions in the ſame proportion. The inhabitants ſhall have liberty to bring in from time to time ſuch proviſions as ſhall be neceſſary; but the French army ſhall be at liberty to take the proper meaſures to prevent the quantity from exceeding the daily conſumption to be calculated by the population. The communications for proviſions with Mantua

ſhall be eſtabliſhed by the Po as far as Governolo, and thence by the Mincio.

XIII. The perſons attached to the Auſtrian government, as alſo property, ſhall be reſpected, and nobody ſhall be proſecuted for his political opinions.

XIV. The chart of Dalbe ſhall ſerve for a rule in the diſcuſſions which may ariſe upon the line of demarcation above laid down.

XV. The neceſſary paſſports ſhall be given for couriers.

Done in two copies at Treviſa, Jan. 16, 1801.

(Signed) COUNT HOHENZOLLERN-HECHINGUE, Lieut-gen. of his Majeſty the Emperor and King.

DE ZAG, Major-gen. Quarter-maſter-gen.

MARMONT, Counſellor of State, General of Diviſion.

HORACE SEBASTIANI, Chief of Brigade.

Treaty of Peace, between Auſtria and France, concluded at Luneville, February 9, 1801.

HIS Majeſty the Emperor and King of Hungary and Bohemia, and the Firſt Conſul of the French Republic, in the name of the French people, having equally at heart to put an end to the miſeries of war, have reſolved to proceed to the concluſion of a definitive treaty of peace and amity.

His ſaid Imperial and Royal Majeſty, not leſs anxiouſly deſirous of making the Germanic Empire participate in the bleſſings of peace, and the preſent conjuncture not allowing the time neceſſary for the Empire to be conſulted, and to take part by its deputies in the negotiation; his ſaid Majeſty having, beſides, regard to what has been agreed upon by the deputation of the Empire at the preceding Congreſs at Raſtadt, has reſolved, in conformity with the precedent of what has taken place in ſimilar circumſtances, to ſtipulate in the name of the Germanic body.

In conſequence of which, the contracting parties have appointed as their plenipotentiaries, to wit, his Imperial and Royal Majeſty, the Sieur Louis Cobenzel, count of the Holy Roman Empire, &c. &c.—and the Firſt Conſul of the French Republic, in the name of the French people, has appointed Citizen Joſeph Bonaparté, counſellor of ſtate, who, after having exchanged their full powers, have agreed to the following articles:

Art. I. There ſhall be henceforth and forever, peace, amity, and good underſtanding, between his Majeſty the Emperor, King of Hungary and Bohemia, ſtipulating, as well in his own name as in that of the Germanic Empire, and the French Republic, his ſaid Majeſty engaging to cauſe the Empire to give ratification in good and due form to the preſent treaty. The greateſt attention ſhall be paid on both ſides to the maintenance of perfect harmony, to preventing all hoſtilities by land and by ſea, for whatever cauſe, or on whatever pretence, and to carefully endeavour to maintain the union happily eſtabliſhed. No aſſiſtance nor protection ſhall be given,

given, either directly or indirectly, to thoſe who would do any thing to the prejudice of either of the contracting parties.

II. The ceſſion of the ci-devant Belgic provinces to the French republic, ſtipulated by the 3d article of the treaty of Campo Formio, is renewed here in the moſt formal manner, ſo that his Imperial and Royal Majeſty, for himſelf and his ſucceſſors, as well in his own name as in that of the Germanic Empire, renounces all his right and title to the ſaid provinces, which ſhall be poſſeſſed henceforth as their ſovereign right and property, by the French republic, with all the territorial property dependent on it. There ſhall alſo be given up to the French republic by his Imperial and Royal Majeſty, and with the formal conſent of the Empire,

1ſt, The Compté of Falkenſtein, with its dependencies.

2d, The Frickthal, and all belonging to the Houſe of Auſtria, on the left bank of the Rhine, between Zurzach and Baſle; the French republic reſerving to themſelves the right of ceding the latter country to the Helvetic republic.

III. In the ſame manner, in the renewal and confirmation of the 6th article of the treaty of Campo Formio, his Majeſty the Emperor and King ſhall poſſeſs in ſovereignty, and as his right, the countries below enumerated, viz. Iſtria, Dalmatia, and the Venetian iſles in the Adriatic, dependant upon thoſe countries, the Bocca de Cattaro, the city of Venice, the canals and the country included between the hereditary ſtates of his Majeſty the Emperor and King; the Adriatic Sea, and the Adige, from its leaving the Tyrol to the mouth of the ſaid ſea; the towing-path of the Adige ſerving as the line of limitation. And as by this line the cities of Verona and of Porto Legnago will be divided, there ſhall be eſtabliſhed on the middle of the bridges of the ſaid cities, draw bridges to mark the ſeparation.

IV. The 18th article of the treaty of Campo Formio is alſo renewed thus far, that his Majeſty the Emperor and King binds himſelf to yield to the Duke of Modena, as an indemnity for the countries which this prince and his heirs had in Italy, the Briſgau, which he ſhall hold on the ſame terms as thoſe by virtue of which he poſſeſſes the Modeneſe.

V. It is moreover agreed, that his Royal Highneſs the Grand Duke of Tuſcany ſhall renounce, for himſelf and his ſucceſſors having any right to it, the Grand Dutchy of Tuſcany, and that part of the Iſle of Elba which is dependant upon it, as well as all right and title reſulting from his rights on the ſaid ſtates, which ſhall be henceforth poſſeſſed in complete ſovereignty, and as his own property, by his Royal Highneſs the Infant Duke of Parma. The Grand Duke ſhall obtain in Germany a full and complete indemnity for his Italian ſtates. The Grand Duke ſhall diſpoſe at pleaſure of the goods and property which he poſſeſſes in Tuſcany, either by perſonal acquiſition, or by deſcent from his late father, the Emperor Leopold II. or from his grandfather, the Emperor Francis I. It is alſo agreed,

that the credits, eſtabliſhments, and other property of the Grand Dutchy, as well as the debts ſecured on the country, ſhall paſs to the new Grand Duke.

VI. His Majeſty the Emperor and King, as well in his own name as in that of the Germanic Empire, conſents that the French republic ſhall poſſeſs henceforth in complete ſovereignty, and as their property, the country and domains ſituated on the left bank of the Rhine, and which formed part of the Germanic Empire: ſo that in conformity with what had been expreſsly conſented to at the Congreſs of Raſtadt, by the deputation of the Empire, and approved by the Emperor, the towing path of the Rhine will henceforth be the limit between the French republic and the Germanic Empire; that is to ſay, from the place where the Rhine leaves the Helvetic territory, to that where it enters the Batavian territory.

In conſequence of this, the French republic formally renounces all poſſeſſion whatever on the right bank of the Rhine, and conſents to reſtore to thoſe to whom it may belong, the fortreſſes of Duſſeldorff, Ehrenbreitſtein, Philipſburg, the fort of Caſſel, and other fortifications oppoſite to Mentz, on the right bank, the fort of Kehl and Old Briſach, on the expreſs condition that theſe places and fortreſſes ſhall continue and remain in the ſame ſtate in which they were at the time of their evacuation.

VII. And as, in conſequence of the ceſſion which the Empire makes to the French republic, ſeveral princes and ſtates of the Empire will be diſpoſſeſſed either altogether or in part, whom it is incumbent upon the Germanic Empire collectively to ſupport, and compenſate for the loſſes reſulting from the ſtipulations in the preſent treaty, it is agreed between his Majeſty the Emperor and King, as well in his own name as in that of the Germanic Empire, and the French republic, that in conformity with the principles formally eſtabliſhed at the Congreſs at Raſtadt, the Empire ſhall be bound to give to the hereditary princes who ſhall be diſpoſſeſſed on the left bank of the Rhine, an indemnity which ſhall be taken from the whole of the Empire, according to arrangements which on theſe baſes ſhall be ultimately determined upon.

VIII. In all the ceded countries, acquired or exchanged by the preſent treaty, it is agreeed, as had already been done by the 4th and 10th articles of the treaty of Campo Formio, that thoſe to whom they ſhall belong, ſhall take them, ſubject to the debts charged on the ſaid countries; but conſidering the difficulties which have ariſen in this reſpect, with regard to the interpretation of the ſaid articles of the treaty of Campo Formio, it is expreſsly underſtood, that the French republic will not take upon itſelf, any thing more than the debts reſulting from the loans formally agreed to by the ſtates of the ceded countries, or by the actual adminiſtration of ſuch countries.

IX. Immediately after the exchange of the ratifications of the preſent treaty, the ſequeſtration impoſed on property, effects, and revenues of the inhabitants or proprietors, ſhall be taken off. The

contracting

contracting parties oblige themſelves to pay all they may owe for money lent them by individuals, as well as by the public eſtabliſhments of the ſaid countries, and to pay and reimburſe all annuities created for their benefit on every one of them. In conſequence of this, it is expreſly admitted that the holders of ſtock in the bank of Vienna, become French ſubjects, ſhall continue to enjoy the benefit of their funds, and ſhall receive the intereſt accrued or to accrue, notwithſtanding any ſequeſtration, or any demand derogatory to their rights, particularly notwithſtanding the infringement which the holders aforeſaid, become French ſubjects, ſuſtained by not being able to pay the thirty and one hundred per cent. demanded by his Imperial and Royal Majeſty, of all creditors of the bank of Vienna.

X. The contracting parties ſhall alſo cauſe all the ſequeſtrations to be taken off, which have been impoſed on account of the war, on the property, the rights, and revenues of the Emperor or of the Empire, in the territory of the French republic, and of the French citizens in the ſtates of his ſaid Majeſty or the Empire.

XI. The preſent treaty of peace, and particularly the 8th, 9th, 10th, and 15th articles, are declared to extend to, and to be common to the Batavian, Helvetic, Ciſalpine, and Ligurian republics. The contracting parties mutually guarantee the independence of the ſaid republics, and the right of the people who inhabit them, to adopt what form of government they pleaſe.

XII. His Imperial and Royal Majeſty renounces for himſelf and his ſucceſſors, in favour of the Ciſalpine republic, all rights and titles ariſing from thoſe rights, which his Majeſty might claim on the countries which he poſſeſſed before the war, and which by the conditions of the 8th article of the treaty of Campo Formio, now form part of the Ciſalpine republic, which ſhall poſſeſs them as their ſovereignty and property, with all the territorial property dependant upon it.

XIII. His Imperial and Royal Majeſty, as well in his own name as in that of the Germanic Empire, confirms the agreement already entered into by the treaty of Campo Formio, for the union of the ci-devant Imperial fiefs to the Ligurian republic, and renounces all rights and titles ariſing from theſe rights on the ſaid fiefs.

XIV. In conformity with the 2d article of the treaty of Campo Formio, the navigation of the Adige, which ſerves as the limits between his Majeſty the Emperor and King, and the navigation of the rivers in the Ciſalpine republic, ſhall be free, nor ſhall any toll be impoſed, or any ſhip of war kept there.

XV. All priſoners of war on both ſides, as well as hoſtages taken or given during the war, who ſhall not be yet reſtored, ſhall be ſo within forty days from the time of ſigning the preſent treaty.

XVI. The real and perſonal property, unalienated, of his Royal Highneſs the Archduke Charles, and of the heirs of her Royal Highneſs the Archdutcheſs Chriſtiana, deceaſed, ſituated in the

countries ceded to the French republic, ſhall be reſtored to them on condition of their ſelling them within three years. The ſame ſhall be the caſe alſo with the landed and perſonal property of their Royal Highneſſes the Archduke Ferdinand and the Arch-dutcheſs Beatrice, his wife, in the territory of the Ciſalpine republic.

XVII. The 12th, 13th, 15th, 16th, 17th, and 23d Articles of the treaty of Campo Formio, are particularly renewed, and are to be executed according to their form and effect, as if they were here repeated verbatim.

XVIII. The contributions, payments, and war impoſitions of whatever kind, ſhall ceaſe from the day of the exchange of the ratifications of the preſent treaty, on the one hand by his Imperial Majeſty and the German Empire, and on the other by the French republic.

XIX. The preſent treaty ſhall be ratified by his Majeſty the Emperor and King, by the Empire, and by the French republic, in the ſpace of thirty days, or ſooner if poſſible; and it is agreed that the armies of the two powers ſhall remain in their preſent poſitions, both in Germany and in Italy, until the ratifications ſhall be reſpectively and at the ſame moment exchanged at Luneville.

It is alſo agreed, that ten days after the exchange of the ratifications, the armies of his Imperial and Royal Majeſty ſhall enter the hereditary poſſeſſions, which ſhall within the ſame ſpace of time be evacuated by the French armies; and thirty days after the ſaid ratifications ſhall be exchanged, the French armies ſhall evacuate the whole of the territory of the ſaid Empire.

Executed at Luneville, February 9, 1801.

Louis, Count Cobenzel.
Joseph Bonaparte.

Meſſage of the Conſuls, addreſſed to the Legiſlative Body, the Tribunate, and Conſervative Senate, on the 14th February, 1801, in conſequence of the Concluſion of Peace with the Emperor.

THE continental peace has been ſigned at Luneville. It is ſuch as the French people wiſhed. Their firſt wiſh was the limit of the Rhine. Reverſes never ſhook their reſolution: victory never added to their pretenſions.

After having re-eſtabliſhed the ancient limits of Gaul, they had to give liberty to the people who were united to them by one common origin, and by the community of intereſts and of manners.

The liberty of the Ciſalpines and of Liguria is ſecured.

After this duty, there was another, which juſtice and generoſity impoſed.

The King of Spain had been faithful to our cauſe, and had ſuffered for it. Neither our reverſes, nor the perfidious inſinuations of our enemies, could detach him from our intereſts: he will have a juſt recompenſe—a prince of his blood will ſit on the throne of Tuſcany.

He will remember what he owes to the fidelity of Spain, and to the friendſhip of France: his roadſteads and his ports will be ſhut againſt our enemies, and will become

come the aſylum of our commerce and our ſhips.

Auſtria, and it is that which is the pledge of peace, Auſtria, henceforth ſeparated from France by vaſt regions, will no longer feel that rivalry, thoſe heart-burnings, which for ſo many ages have occaſioned the torment of theſe two powers, and the calamities of Europe.

By this treaty, every thing is ſettled with reſpect to France; it will no longer have to ſtruggle againſt the forms and the intrigues of a congreſs.

The Government owes the expreſſion of its ſatisfaction to the miniſter plenipotentiary who has conducted this negotiation to this happy termination. There remain neither interpretations to be feared, nor explanations to be demanded, nor thoſe equivocal arrangements, in which the diplomatic art depoſits the ſeeds of a new war.

Wherefore was not this treaty the treaty of a general peace? This was the wiſh of France! This the conſtant object of the efforts of the Government!

But all it's efforts are in vain. All Europe knows that the Britannic miniſter has endeavoured to fruſtrate the negotiations at Luneville.

In vain an agent authorized by the Government declared to him, on the 9th of October, 1800, that France was ready to enter with him upon a ſeparate negotiation. This declaration only obtained a refuſal, under the pretext that England could not abandon her ally. Since that, when this ally conſents to treat without England, that Government ſeeks other means to delay a peace, ſo neceſſary to the world.

It violates conventions which humanity had conſecrated, and declares war againſt miſerable fiſhermen.

It raiſes pretenſions contrary to the dignity and the rights of all nations. The whole commerce of Aſia, and of immenſe colonies, does not ſatisfy its ambition. All the ſeas muſt be ſubmitted to the excluſive ſovereignty of England. It arms againſt Ruſſia, Denmark, and Sweden; becauſe Ruſſia, Sweden, and Denmark, have ſecured, by treaties of guaranty, their ſovereignty, and the independence of their flags.

The powers of the North, unjuſtly attacked, have a right to reckon upon France. The French government will avenge with them a common injury to all nations, without ever loſing ſight, however, that it ought only to fight for peace and for the good of the world.

The Firſt Conſul,

(Signed) BONAPARTE.

By the Firſt Conſul, the Secretary of State,

H. B. MARET.

Addreſs of the Tribunate, by a Deputation from that Body, delivered by Citizen Chauvelin, 17th Feb. 1801.

"CITIZEN Conſuls, amidſt the tranſports of joy and enthuſiaſm which have been ſpread through the people of this immenſe city, and which, notwithſtanding the prodigies we have witneſſed for fifteen months, are daily increaſing,

creaſing, the Tribunate feel the neceſſity of expreſſing their admiration at your ſucceſs, and gratitude for the promptitude with which it was communicated. While the wiſdom of Government, co-operating with the wiſh of the departments, is about to put an end to this ſyſtem of brigandage, the plenipotentiaries of the republic at Luneville have put an end to the continental war. This war, as terrible and memorable as it has been glorious to the French name, which, by its cauſes, its objects, and the various viciſſitudes by which it was marked, will be diſtinguiſhed from all others in the hiſtory of the world; this war, the termination of which was even rendered difficult by the extent of victory, will preſerve that character of ſingularity and grandeur which belongs to it.

" The treaty deſtined at the commencement of the 19th century to reunite and conſole the people of the continent, preſents, under all its combinations, one of the moſt difficult and important problems, the ſolution of which was ever ſubmitted to human wiſdom. By proclaiming the moſt ſacred and the moſt acknowledged rights, it ought to conciliate the moſt contrary intereſts.

" By diſplaying a magnanimous moderation, after having ſecured a juſt indemnity for our ſacrifices, it ought to diſſipate all alarm.

" It ought to ſtrengthen, by the bonds of confidence and eſteem, all the allies of the French people, and to ſignalize the conduct of that king who has been courageouſly faithful to his allies, and to the people whom he governs. And finally, it ought to prevent the renewal of war, by laying in Europe the foundation of a ſyſtem of peace and of politics, conformable to the great changes which have taken place in the laſt century.

" Citizen Conſuls, two months are ſcarcely elapſed ſince the Tribunes were alarmed for the ſafety of France and of liberty. How near that period is to the preſent, and how different are the ſenſations which they afford, and what a proſpect it affords us to efface the alarms and the misfortunes of the French people!

" The language of moderation and of peace, which is mixed with that of firmneſs to our laſt enemy, will unite the energies of the French people, who will ſecond your efforts, which will now become more and more powerful."

The members of the Tribunal of Ceſſation were then introduced, and Citizen Tronchet addreſſed the Chief Conſul in a diſcourſe ſimilar to the former.

A deputation from the Tribunal of Appeal was then introduced. " Pacificator of Europe," ſaid the orator, " be ſo to the people of France. This is all which remains for you to do. You will complete this ſublime taſk, which is all that your country calls upon you to accompliſh."

Addreſs from the Legiſlative Body, in the ſame Form, and on the ſame Occaſion, delivered by Citizen Poiſſon, the Preſident.

" Citizen Conſuls,

" WE addreſs to you, in the name of the Legiſlative Body, the congratulations which it has voted you reſpecting the communication which you have made to them of the treaty which ſecures peace to the republic.

" Our

" Our enemies have at length acknowledged this republic, which they dared to doubt, and, conquered by the puiſſance of its arms, they are about to receive the benefit of peace, which a free people gives them as a teſt of their magnanimity, the firſt conſequence and the firſt fruit of victory.

" If the victories which have led to it, have made ſuch an impreſſion on the univerſe, the treaty which conſolidates it, muſt alſo be a great epoch in the annals of nations by the influence which it muſt have on their and on our intereſts. This treaty will revive all the ideas of general proſperity; and the ſentiment of public felicity already penetrates every heart. Theſe ideas and theſe ſentiments naturally relate to you, Citizen Conſuls, who have begun the ſublime undertaking of regenerating the public wealth. Receive, Citizen Conſuls, the firſt teſtimony of gratitude which the Legiſlative Body offers you. It feels a lively ſenſe of what is due by the nation to the government, and to the firſt magiſtrates, who act thus perpetually in conjunction, in order to promote its glory and happineſs."

Subſtance of Bonaparte's Reply.

" THE Government receives with pleaſure the deputation of the Legiſlative Body.

" France will not reap all the bleſſings of peace, till ſhe ſhall have a peace with England; but a ſort of delirium has ſeized on that government, which now holds nothing ſacred. Its conduct is unjuſt not only towards the French people, but to all the powers of the continent; and when governments are not juſt, their authority is but ſhort-lived.

" All the powers of the continent will unite in compelling England to return to the road of moderation, juſtice, and reaſon; but interior has preceded external peace. In the journey which I have lately made into ſeveral departments I have been impreſſed with the harmony and union which reign among all the citizens. No importance ought to be attached to the inconſiderate harangues of certain individuals. The Government rejoices in rendering juſtice to the zeal of the Legiſlative Body for the proſperity of the French people, and its attachment to the Government. For myſelf, I requeſt that you will explain the confidence I have in it, and how ſenſible I am to this ſpontaneous exertion, and to the diſcourſe which their preſident has addreſſed to me."

The Belgian members of the Legiſlative Body followed this by a particular addreſs to the Conſuls, to which the Chief Conſul returned an anſwer, in which he declared that the French people had from the beginning determined to retain Belgium, and had perſiſted in this reſolution to the laſt.

The Counſellors of State Portales, Berlier, and Thibaudeau, were the bearers to the Conſervatory Senate of the meſſage from the Conſuls, announcing the peace. Citizen Portales expreſſed himſelf in theſe words:

" Citizen Senators,

" Our wiſhes have called for peace. Armies, before which the earth has ſtood appalled, have commanded it. The genius of France has dictated the terms of it.

" A

"A rival and hoſtile power ſtill reſiſts: this reſiſtance will form our triumph. This power, whoſe revolting policy threatens and diſturbs the world, will ſoon learn that gold and ſilver may be exhauſted, but that virtue, honour, and courage are inexhauſtible.

"Fidelity towards our allies, moderation towards our enemies, are the characters of this ever memorable treaty, the reſult of which will be to give a new direction to the thoughts of men, and a new courſe to the affairs of the univerſe. The ambition of increaſing our territory has given place to the more generous and more enlarged ambition of giving liberty to conquered nations.

"What events, what prodigies have happened in the ſpace of one year ſince the happy epoch when the conſtitution was eſtabliſhed, of which you are ſo deſervedly, Citizen Senators, the depoſitaries and the high prieſts. But though nothing more remains to be done for our glory, a vaſt and not a leſs brilliant career is opened for our happineſs. We ſhall not forget *that war is a neceſſary right, but an unhappy one, which always leaves an immenſe debt to be diſcharged, in order to perform that duty which we owe to human nature.*"

When the Counſellors of State had retired, the Conſervatory Senate came to a reſolution to ſend the following meſſage:

"Citizen Conſuls,

"After ten years of unexampled warfare, an honourable peace, acquired by brilliant victories, reſtores at length calm to Europe, extends our boundaries, and ſecures for ever the conſtitution and the triumph of liberty. The Conſervatory Senate receives the news with tranſport. Among the innumerable benefits which peace is to produce, they ſee with lively ſatisfaction all factions, unſupported both from without and within, diſappear before univerſal happineſs and univerſal induſtry.

"Thanks to the valour of our armies, to the genius which has guided them, and to the wiſdom of Government. It now remains for them to conquer the liberty of the ſeas. The maritime powers have already united to defend it, and the only power which by exaggerated pretenſions, and thoſe inconſiſtent with the rights of nations, refuſes to acknowledge it, will ſoon be forced to do ſo.

(Signed) LA PLACE."

Letter from General Lahorie, delivered on the 22d of February, 1801, to a Magiſtrate of Ratiſbon.

Head Quarters at Salzbourgh, Feb. 20, 1801.

THE General in Chief of the army of the Rhine, at the deſire of his Royal Highneſs the Archduke Charles, willing to ſecure, as much as depends upon him, to the general aſſembly of the Empire the moſt perfect liberty, has conſented to the neutralization of the Imperial city of Ratiſbon. The French troops which are there in garriſon ſhall be withdrawn. The city ſhall be given up to its own garriſon, to its own police, in ſuch a manner that neither the troops of the French republic, nor thoſe of his Majeſty the Emperor, ſhall be cantoned nearer than at the diſtance of a German mile, at leaſt, in the vicinity of that city. A paſſage is reſerved for the French troops

troops through that city, but without a right of being lodged in it. The ſaid evacuation and neutralization ſhall take effect from the moment the city and biſhopric of Ratiſbon ſhall have paid the monthly contribution up to this day, that is, for four months.

The General of Brigade, Chief, *par interim*, of the Staff.

(Signed) LAHORIE.

Imperial Decree, of the 25th of February, 1801, to the General Diet of the Empire at Ratiſbon.

THE plenipotentiary of the French government, in referring himſelf ſpecially to the example of the negotiations of Raſtadt, and to thoſe of Baden, in the year 1714, has propoſed, in the moſt preciſe manner, to the plenipotentiary ſent by his Imperial Majeſty to Luneville to negotiate a peace, that his Imperial Majeſty ſhould ſtipulate at the ſame time for the Empire, and ſign the treaty in his quality of Supreme Chief. The importance of this propoſition, the different conſiderations which coincide with it, demand, on the part of the Chief of the Empire, the moſt mature conſideration; and his Majeſty cannot heſitate to make known immediately, by a letter under his hand, the ſtate of things, and his reſolution, to all the Electors, as well in their quality of Electors as of Princes, and to the principal Princes of the Empire. This letter contains the expreſſion of the ſentiments and principles of his Majeſty, and he tranſmits a copy of it to the general Diet of the Empire, in the firm confidence that every appearance of unconſtitutional views will vaniſh, upon the juſt and mature examination of the contents of this letter. In conſequence of the example of the negotiations of Raſtadt and Baden, to which the French plenipotentiary referred the treaty, of which a copy is ſubjoined, has been concluded. This ſame example, propoſed for a rule, guaranties ſufficiently the right of co-operation of the States of the Empire in every thing which concerns the peace, although, in the treaty ſubmitted to the Diet, no clauſe, aſſuring theſe legitimate rights, has been inſerted, as it was formerly done in that of Raſtadt. The motives which have induced his Imperial Majeſty to conclude this peace, will determine, by their force, the Electors, Princes, and States, to accelerate, as much as lies in their power, the ratification of the treaty of peace, which is ſubmitted to them; the more ſo, as the French government has made to depend, on the prompt approbation of the Empire, the enjoyment of the firſt fruits of the peace, to wit, the releaſe from all requiſitions of war, and the departure of the armies which are upon the territory of the Empire. His Majeſty awaits with the greateſt impatience the *concluſum* which ſhould be adopted for this purpoſe, &c.

Vienna, February 21, 1801.

Letter from his Imperial Majeſty to the Electors, Princes, and States of the Empire.

THE plenipotentiary of the French government has made to the miniſter plenipotentiary whom I have ſent to Luneville to negotiate a peace with the French republic, the decided propoſition, that, in the

the treaty to be concluded, I ſhould ſtipulate alſo for the peace of the Empire, in my quality of Supreme Chief. The Imperial plenipotentiary knew, that the right and co-operation of the Electors, Princes, and States of the Empire, in the objects relative to peace, was fixed in a preciſe manner by the fundamental laws of the Germanic empire: that alſo my Imperial authority was reſtricted upon that point by the laws of the Germanic conſtitution, unleſs I ſhould have previouſly received full powers, particularly from the Empire, to treat in its name. This conſideration, as well as others, entirely oppoſite to the ſaid propoſition, was not received, as my plenipotentiary had a right to expect, from its force and conſtitutional evidence. On the contrary, the propoſition has been inſiſted upon by expreſs reference to the example of the negotiations for peace at Raſtadt and of Baden, in 1714, and its admiſſion has been demanded in a manner ſo preſſing and determined, that the negotiations would have been entirely broken off, if my plenipotentiary, after having in vain exhauſted repreſentation, had not at laſt conſented, by referring alſo to the negotiations of Raſtadt and Baden. My perplexity was very great, in my quality of Supreme Head of the Empire, when I learned from my plenipotentiary this ſtate of things, and I conſidered it a duty of the higheſt importance to reflect upon it maturely. The idea of approving the ſtep taken by my plenipotentiary, and in conſequence of that approbation of beginning to treat for the peace of the Empire, although I had it not by any means in contemplation to withhold the treaty from the examination and ratification of the general Diet, was in conflict in my mind with my juſt reſpect for the rights and attributes of the States of the Empire. But, on the other ſide, the conſideration of the melancholy ſituation in which a conſiderable part of Germany now is, that of the ſtill more unhappy fate with which the ſuperiority of the French threatens the Empire, ſhould peace be longer deferred; in fine, a regard to the general wiſh and univerſal anxiety ſoon to enjoy the bleſſings of peace; all theſe motives combined together, ſtrongly perſuaded me not to diſapprove of the acquieſcence of my miniſter in the demand of the French plenipotentiary: in conſequence therefore of the declaration made by my plenipotentiary, approved by myſelf, I reſolved (ſuch being the poſture of our affairs) alſo to determine the conditions of a peace for the Empire. Your enlightened and well-known wiſdom induces me to believe, that moſt probably, if under the preſſure of ſimilar difficulties, you would have adopted a ſimilar line of conduct.

I feel ſome conſolation in acquainting you by the preſent with the true ſtate of affairs, and with the reſolution which I have taken; I alſo derive a ſtill greater conſolation from the conſciouſneſs of the purity of the motives by which I am actuated (motives which are juſtified by ſeveral declarations made by the Diet, and more particularly by the Imperial decree of the 19th May, 1795), according to which it cannot appear to have been my intention to encroach on the rights of the Imperial States.

And

And when the treaty of peace ſhall be ſubmitted to the Electors, Princes, and States, and to the general Diet, you have the moſt perfect and conſolatory conviction, that in the negotiation of that treaty I previouſly took every meaſure and precaution conformably to the above-mentioned example of the negotiations of Raſtadt and of Baden in 1714, to ſecure the rights of the States of the Empire.

Subſtance of ſome of the principal Votes iſſued in the three Colleges.

Vote of the Miniſter of Bavaria, in the Sitting of the 5th of March, 1801, at Ratiſbon.

HIS Electoral Highneſs acknowledges the ſolicitude with which his Imperial Majeſty is occupied to confirm the Empire in the hope of being very ſoon entirely freed from foreign and burdenſome impoſitions, and of ſhortly enjoying the fruits of peace. As his Imperial Majeſty has been determined only by the urgency of the circumſtances (as reſults from the aſſurances given in his moſt gracious letter) to conclude immediately the peace of the Empire, without having received full powers, and without the direct and conſtitutional concurrence of the Electors, Princes, and States, the rights confirmed by the peace of Weſtphalia, and the capitulation of election, are ſufficiently ſecured for the future by the declarations of the Supreme Chief of the Empire; his Electoral Highneſs makes, in conſequence, no difficulty to accede to the treaty of peace and friendſhip with the French republic, ſubmitted by his Imperial Majeſty to the Diet, and to propoſe his ratification: the more ſo, as, relatively to the Germanic body, the two principal baſes of the peace are the ſame as thoſe that were laid down at Raſtadt by the deputation of the Empire, with the acceſſion of his Imperial Majeſty, and as the principles therein eſtabliſhed are not contrary to either the peace of Weſtphalia, or that of Teſchen. His Electoral Highneſs muſt, at the ſame time, reſerve to himſelf formally the right of concurring and taking part in the negotiations which are yet to take place, for the application of the baſis of the peace, and the objects concerning the internal conſtitution and relations of the Empire which have reference thereto.

He is therefore of opinion, that a *concluſum* ſhould be ſpeedily taken, in which the treaty of peace and friendſhip with the French republic, communicated to the Diet by his Imperial Majeſty, ſhall be ratified by the Empire, and in which, by reference to the declarations of the Supreme Chief, the manner in which that peace has been concluded ſhall be approved, for this time, with the reſervation of the conſtitutional right of the concurrence of the States for future caſes.

Vote of the Miniſter of Magdeburgh, in the Sitting of the 5th of March, 1801.

HIS Majeſty the King of Pruſſia has always ardently deſired to ſee the bleſſings of peace ſpread over the whole Empire, after ſo many years of calamity; and nothing undoubtedly can be more agreeable to him than to contribute to it on his

his part, in the purity of his intentions, as ſoon as poſſible. Animated with theſe ſentiments, his Majeſty, in his quality of a State of the Empire, is of opinion, that the Diet ſhould promptly ratify the treaty of peace concluded at Luneville the 9th of February laſt, in the name of his Imperial Majeſty, with the French republic, communicated and ſubmitted to the Diet by the decree of the Imperial Committee, of the date of the 21ſt of February, and dictated the 25th.

In theſe friendly diſpoſitions his Majeſty thinks, however, that he cannot accede, on his part, to that ratification but with two reſervations: the firſt is, that the urgency of imperious circumſtances (as his Majeſty is himſelf well convinced), having determined his Imperial Majeſty to conclude the peace in the name of the Empire, without having received full powers for that purpoſe, and to ſtipulate for the return of the ratification within a term inſufficient for deliberation, there ſhall not thence reſult for the future any conſequence contrary to the conſtitution, nor any prejudice to the rights of the Empire, and its States in particular: the ſecond is, that his Majeſty, in conſenting purely and ſimply to the ratification which the Diet may give to the ſaid treaty of peace, reſerves to himſelf always, according to his particular relations, and in his quality of member of the Empire, his rights to the participation and co-operation, in the reſults of that peace, reſpecting the conſtitution and the internal relations of the Empire, as alſo in the ulterior conventions and arrangements.

Votes of Spires.

THAT of Spires has eſtabliſhed as a principle, that the rights of the Eccleſiaſtical Princes being as ſacred as thoſe of the Secular Princes, the ſacrifices to indemnify the Princes diſpoſſeſſed upon the left bank of the Rhine ought to be ſupported by all the States of the Empire without diſtinction; that the buſineſs of indemnities ought to be treated as an internal affair (*res domeſtica*), without the interference of any foreign power; that the diſtinction ſought to be made to the prejudice of the Eccleſiaſtical Princes and States eſſentially intereſts the Catholic religion, without which the Chriſtian communities could not long ſubſiſt in repoſe; and that if the conſtitutional bonds between the States of the Empire ſhould be broken, Germany, hitherto ſo happy under its conſtitution, would ſee itſelf expoſed to a general overthrow.

Vote of the Biſhop of Conſtance, in the Sitting of the 5th of March, 1801.

THE Biſhop of Conſtance (Coadjutor of Mentz), after having laid down the ſame principles as the vote of Spires, adds the obſervation, that the Eccleſiaſtical Princes being only uſufructuaries, have contracted the ſacred obligation to tranſmit to their ſucceſſors the property of the church, the enjoyment of which has been temporarily confided to them, and that they could not conſent that this property ſhould paſs into the hands of ſeculars; that beſides, an acknowledged principle of Chriſtianity deſires that the prieſt ſhould live from

from the altar; that for more than a thouſand years he and his predeceſſors have faithfully fulfilled their duties of State of the Empire, and conſequently that he has reaſon to expect to be maintained in his juſt rights.

Subſtance of the Vote of the Hanoverian Miniſter, in the Sitting of the 21ſt March, 1801, at Ratiſbon.

HIS Majeſty the King of Great Britain and Ireland, as Elector of Brunſwick and Lunenburg, has taken into conſideration the decree of the Imperial Committee, dated the 3d inſtant, requiring that the Diet ſhould come to a ſpeedy deciſion on the mode in which the German empire was to exerciſe its right of co-operation in the ulterior arrangements that are to take place on the ſubject of indemnities, in conſequence of the ſeventh article of the treaty of Luneville, upon the baſis formerly eſtabliſhed at the congreſs of Raſtadt. His Majeſty muſt, in the firſt place declare, that this decree was adopted in the confidence that the arrangements would be taken, and regulated only by a conſtitutional aſſemblage of the States of the Empire, in conformity with the wiſdom and the ſentiments of his Imperial Majeſty.

This ſubject is not only of great importance to the Empire, but replete with difficulties as to the mode. But his Majeſty is perſuaded that the Chief of the Empire can procure the beſt means, and open the moſt certain mode for the arrangements which are to be adopted. His Majeſty therefore propoſes as follows:

To addreſs, on the part of the Empire, their thanks to his Imperial Majeſty, on the ſubject of the decree of the Imperial Commiſſion, which has ſo perfectly anſwered the expectation of the States, and to entreat him to take ſuch meaſures as may be neceſſary, for the ulterior arrangements which are to take place with reſpect to indemnities, in conformity with the treaty of Luneville, on the baſis eſtabliſhed at Raſtadt; and before concluding the ſame, to communicate the whole to the Diet, in order that they in return, and with the ſhorteſt poſſible delay, may make his Imperial Majeſty acquainted with their opinion, in the form of a *concluſum*.

If, however, his Imperial Majeſty ſhould not think himſelf authorized to undertake ſuch an object in the name of the Diet, the conſtitutional mode of convening the Empire, and the moſt ſhort and agreeable, would be, for the Diet to eſtabliſh in the place where it aſſembles, an extraordinary deputation, compoſed of the following ſtates: Mentz, Saxony, Auſtria, Bavaria, Magdebourg, Bamberg, Bremen, Weteravia, and the Imperial cities of Ratiſbon and Augſburgh; and that this Committee ſhould be furniſhed with full powers to enter upon, and treat of this affair with the Imperial miniſter, and to ſettle the definitive arrangements which are to be ſubmitted to the ratification of the Emperor and Empire *.

* In the ſitting of the 21ſt March, 1801, the miniſter of Treves propoſed (in the College of Electors), that his Imperial Majeſty ſhould be requeſted to take upon himſelf all the arrangements for the completion of the peace. Cologne gave the ſame vote,

Text of the Concluſum of the general Diet of the Empire of the 7th March, 1801.

HIS Highneſs the Prince Charles Alexander of Tour and Taxis, principal Commiſſary of his Imperial Majeſty to the general Diet, &c. he is notified by the preſent, in the name of the Electors, Princes, and States of the Empire. The general Diet of the Empire has ſeen by the moſt gracious Imperial decree of the 21ſt, publiſhed the 25th of February of this year, and by the two pieces thereunto annexed, the important motives which have determined his Imperial Majeſty to acquieſce in the formal demand of the French republic, "to conclude and ſign, in his quality of ſupreme chief, the peace of the Empire, after the example of the negotiations of Raſtadt and Baden." His Majeſty having in conſequence ſigned that peace, has deigned to ſubmit it to the general Diet, in order that the Electors, Princes, and States, ſhould ratify it in the name of the Empire; and that upon real and juſt conſiderations of the loſſes which all delay may occaſion to Germany, they may accelerate that ratification, and the *concluſum* to be adopted for that purpoſe, which his Imperial Majeſty waits for with impatience. The three Colleges of the Empire have deliberated upon that Imperial decree with all the attention which the importance of its contents demands, and with as much expedition as the urgency of circumſtances preſcribes; and as, from the motives amply detailed in the letter of his Imperial Majeſty annexed to the decree of the Imperial Committee, and from the reiterated aſſurances of his Majeſty relatively to the acknowledged and inconteſtable rights of the Empire, they may be entirely confident upon the right of co-operation in matter of peace, which the Germanic conſtitution gives to the Electors, Princes, and States, the force of the reaſons which have induced his Imperial Majeſty to conclude the peace in the manner announced, as alſo the conſideration of the melancholy ſituation of Germany, which ſo anxiouſly wiſhes for peace, and has ſuch preſſing need of it, have determined the general Diet of the Empire to decree, that the peace concluded the 9th of February, at Luneville, with the French republic, by his Imperial Majeſty, in his quality of Supreme Chief of the Empire, ſhall be ratified on the part of the Emperor and of the Empire; that a *concluſum* on this ſubject ſhall be immediately addreſſed to his Imperial Majeſty, expreſſive of the lively gratitude which the Diet entertains for the cares and patriotic zeal of his Majeſty in that negotiation; and that his Imperial Majeſty ſhall be requeſted to ratify and confirm the

vote, adding, that in caſe his Imperial Majeſty ſhould decline to undertake that buſineſs, a deputation of the two ſtates, Mentz and Saxony, ſhould be appointed. The miniſter of Bohemia voted for ſuch a deputation. Saxony declared, that, ſeeing the importance of the object, it demanded that the buſineſs ſhould be treated by all the members of the Diet in the place of their ſittings. Bavaria and Brandenburgh requeſted that the protocol ſhould remain open.

* In the College of Princes of 36 votes, there were 31 for referring the buſineſs of the indemnities to his Imperial Majeſty.

treaty

treaty of peace, in his own name, and in that of the German empire. Wherefore the councillors, ambaſſadors, and envoys preſent of the Electors, Princes, and States of the Empire, recommend themſelves to his Highneſs the principal Commiſſary.

Signed at Ratiſbon, 7th March, 1801.

Decree of the Imperial Committee tranſmitted to the Diet of Ratiſbon, on the 5th April, 1801.

THE ſolicitude of his Majeſty the Emperor to accelerate the *concluſum* of the Empire upon the contents of the decree of the Imperial Committee tranſmitted to the Diet the 21ſt February of this year, has extended itſelf to the prompt diſpatch of the act of ſolemn ratification in ſuch a manner that it was exchanged at Paris ſo early as the 16th March, againſt the French ratification.

In communicating theſe pieces, his Majeſty muſt not omit to acknowledge to the Electors, Princes, and States, his ſatisfaction at the manner in which they have unanimouſly appretiated the ſingularly critical ſituation in which he finds himſelf relatively to the peace of the Empire which was to be concluded without the concurrence of the States, as alſo at that confidence in his Majeſty's way of thinking which has removed from them all idea that he could have it in contemplation to make any attack upon the right of co-operation of the States in matter of peace.

His Majeſty, in the ſentiment of the purity of his intentions, not only confirms them before all Germany, but he further formally declares, to tranquillize the well-diſpoſed, that that event ſhall, in no wiſe, prejudice for the future, and under all its relations, the Germanic conſtitution; but this ſame reſpect due to the conſtitution, and the obligation of maintaining it impoſed upon his Majeſty by the Electors, in the capitulation of election, make it alſo his duty to protect, in the moſt ſolemn manner, in his quality of Supreme Chief, the rights of the Germanic conſtitution againſt all the arbitrary acts which have taken place during the war which is come to an end, by which the legal unity of Germany has been ſo violently ſhaken, and the force of the Empire exceedingly paralized, to the end that the examples of ſuch an illegal and arbitrary conduct ſhould not lead to a concluſion that a change was tacitly effected in the important principles which exiſt for the ſafety and proſperity of Germany. May it pleaſe Heaven, after ſo many ſtorms and calamities cauſed by the war, to pour its bleſſings upon the inhabitants, of all claſſes, of Germany! This is the moſt ardent wiſh of the Supreme Chief, in his paternal affection for the brave Germa nation.

Concluſum decreed in the Sitting of the 30th April, and publiſhed on the 1ſt of May, 1801, *at Ratiſbon.*

HIS Moſt Serene Highneſs Charles Alexander, Prince of Tour and Taxis, and principal Commiſſary of his Imperial Majeſty at the Diet, the Electors, Princes, and States of the Empire.

The general Diet of the Empire has obſerved with the moſt lively

ſentimenrs of gratitude in the decree of the Imperial Commiſſion of the 3d March, publiſhed on the 5th, a freſh proof of the conſtant ſolicitude of his Majeſty the Emperor for the conſtitution and rights of each State. It has deliberated as maturely as is required by an object of ſuch extenſive intereſt, and which is to aſſure the well-being and tranquillity of Germany, "on the mode of co-operation of the States of the Empire for the completement of the peace concluded on the 9th February, in the preſent year, at Luneville, with the French republic for the abſolute adjuſtment of the points on which a particular arrangement was neceſſary." Actuated by the conſiderations which reſult from the ſtate of things, the concurrence of circumſtances, and relations ſo various, and conſequently implicated in an affair ſo eminently important, the Diet has reſolved and decreed as follows:

That his Imperial Majeſty ſhall be moſt reſpectfully entreated, in a moſt humble *concluſum*, to be pleaſed to take upon himſelf the adjuſtment of all the objects which according to the treaty of Luneville, of the 9th February in the preſent year, were reſerved for particular arrangement, and to terminate thereby the work of peace, in conformity to the exact knowledge he poſſeſſes of the nature of negotiations, his wiſdom and conſtant ſolicitude for the well-being and general proſperity of Germany, of every ſtate of the Empire of the equeſtrian order, and the tranquillity and happineſs of all the ſubjects of the Empire, and particularly in the caſe in queſtion, with that attention which characterizes the goodneſs of heart of his Imperial Majeſty, and which will tend to alleviate, as much as poſſible, the damage and loſs which will reſult to the Empire, and the individuals who muſt inevitably ſuffer by ſacrifices and changes which indiſpenſible neceſſity, and the love of the general good of the Empire, may require. His Imperial Majeſty ſhall be alſo entreated to communicate to the Diet the reſult of the ſteps he ſhall have adopted, before they ſhall have been fixed and decreed, in order that it may promptly deliberate on the ſubject, and ſubmit the deciſion it ſhall come to, to the ratification of his Imperial Majeſty.

Decree of his Imperial Majeſty, addreſſed to the general Diet of the German Empire.

IN ſeveral votes it has already been anticipated, that his Imperial Majeſty might have motives of ſufficient importance for his reluctance to accept this commiſſion. Solely directed by the reaſons alledged, and not to riſk a dimunition of the dignity of the head of the Empire by an unſucceſsful undertaking, his Imperial Majeſty could not agree to accept the commiſſion of the general Diet, nor to approve, in his quality of Supreme Head of the Empire, of that part of the concluſum. His Imperial Majeſty, however, being always accuſtomed, and ever anxious, not to tranſgreſs the boundaries traced by the German conſtitution, gives his aſſent to the co-operation of the Empire, in the uſual form of a deliberation of the

the Diet of the Empire; ſince the majority of the ſtates having decided upon the different modes of co-operation on the part of the Empire (viz. 1. the full powers to be given to his Imperial Majeſty; 2. an extraordinary deputation of the Empire; and, 3. the deliberation of the Diet itſelf), by rejecting the two firſt modes propoſed by ſeveral ſtates, and among others by his Imperial Majeſty, in his quality of a ſtate of the Empire, in favour of the co-operation of the Diet aſſembled under its Supreme Head, the latter has no longer any authority to approve of one of the two firſt modes of co-operation, though they might be very well calculated for accelerating the work of peace, which ſtill remains to be accompliſhed.

Ths principal objects which ſtill remain to be adjuſted by a ſpecial convention to complete the peace, are, in other reſpects, known from the the treaty of peace at Luneville, which has been reciprocally ratified; and from what his Imperial Majeſty knows of the negociation for the peace of Luneville, in order correctly to examine and decide upon thoſe points, nothing more is neceſſary than an hiſtorical acquaintance with the law of nations and ſtatiſtics, within the reach of all; and they may be ratified in the moſt ſecure manner by thoſe who have a particular intereſt in their diſcuſſion.

In this ſtate of affairs in which the Diet of the Empire has given a preference to the ſtates in the Diet aſſembled by the Empire under its Chief, the relations which exiſt between the ſtates of the Empire and its Supreme Chief, and the manner of treating the affairs of Europe, require (and this will be one of the firſt tranſactions of the Imperial Diet) that a full concluſum on the objects to be regulated for completing the peace, by a particular convention, ſhould be ſubmitted to the ratification of his Imperial Majeſty as promptly as a proper diſcuſſion of this affair may permit. His Imperial Majeſty waits with paternal ſolicitude for this concluſum, which will not fail to ſatisfy his expectations, if the general Diet, in forming it, be guided by the regulations laid down with ſo much wiſdom in its laſt concluſum.

Done at Vienna, and ſealed with the ſeal of his Imperial Majeſty, June 26, 1801.

Official Note from M. Von Dohm to the Chapter of the Biſhopric of Munſter.

THE underſigned miniſter plenipotentiary of his Majeſty the King of Pruſſia, at the electoral court of Cologne, privy counſellor, and ambaſſador to the circles of the Lower Rhine and of Weſtphalia, is charged by his moſt gracious maſter to make the following declaration, in his Majeſty's name, to the reverend chapter of the biſhopric of Munſter.

By the premature death of his Highneſs the Elector of Cologne, ſincerely lamented by his Majeſty, the biſhoprick of Munſter has become vacant, at the very moment when the Empire aſſembled under its Supreme Chief, is on the point of entering into conſidera-

tions and resolutions, in what manner and to what extent the 7th article of the treaty of peace of Luneville is to be carried into execution.—According to this article, and the result of the negociations of the Congress at Rastadt, on which it is founded, it is already settled, that those secular states which have suffered by ceding the left banks of the Rhine, shall receive indemnifications, which are to be effected by secularizations. The confiscation of our higher and lower ecclesiastical foundations is therefore unavoidable; a change which, probably, may be the fate of every individual of them, and only the termination of the business of the peace of the Empire will decide which of the ecclesiastical countries will retain their present constitution, and which will receive another. From this situation of affairs it naturally follows, that on ecclesiastical foundations becoming vacant during this state of uncertainty, the elections must provisorily be suspended, lest they might impede the indemnifications stipulated in the treaty of peace, and prevent the final tranqullization of the distracted German Empire. A suspension, grounded on such momentous reasons, cannot prejudice the election, if it should afterwards take place, and will evidently promote the welfare of the country, as the election of a regent, probably for a short period only, could not produce any alteration in the decision of a higher authority, and would cause an unnecessary burden to the country. His Prussian Majesty has already communicated to the Supreme Chief of the Empire his sentiments on this business, agreeably to the harmony subsisting between them, and rests firmly assured, from some previous intimations of his Imperial Majesty, and from his wisdom and his care for the welfare of the Empire in general, that he will consider this object in the same point of view, which his Majesty the King likewise expects from his high co-estates, to whom he has also declared himself on that subject, with patriotic frankness, at the Diet. His Majesty entertains no doubt that the same considerations will not have escaped the enlightened wisdom of the reverend chapter; and from this conviction he declares, by means of the undersigned, his most gracious expectation and desire that the election of a new regent of the bishopric of Munster may be suspended for the present, till its future fate shall have been decided agreeably to the treaty of peace. His Majesty's sole object in so doing is, to remove all obstacles to a final and general tranquillization of Germany, and to promote the real good of a country for which he is sincerely interested, from neighbourly and other respects, and to which he will further grant that protection by which it has so happily escaped all the calamities of the late destructive war. His Majesty has likewise particularly charged the undersigned to assure the reverend chapter, and all individual members thereof, of his most gracious sentiments under all circumstances. But in return, his Majesty expects with confidence, that his well-meant advice and desire will be observed without any difficulty, and that the reverend chapter will, as soon as possible,

poſſible, give his Majeſty the aſſurance that, before the final adjuſtment of the treaty of peace, and the deciſion of the future relations of the biſhopric of Munſter, thereby effected, a freſh election will not be ſpoken of.

This is the declaration which the underſigned is charged to make. He entertains no doubt that the reply with which he ſhall be honoured by the reverend chapter, will fully anſwer his Majeſty's expectations, which he begs may be ſpeedily addreſſed to him at Hindeſheim. In expectation whereof the underſigned embraces this opportunity of renewing to the reverend chapter his eſteem and attachment.

(Signed) DOHM.

Hornburg, Aug. 15, 1801.

The Pruſſian ambaſſador at Vienna alſo delivered to the miniſters from the ſtates of the Empire there, the following remarkable Declaration:

The univerſally eſteemed Elector of Cologne and Prince Biſhop of Munſter being dead, his Pruſſian Majeſty cannot but think it adequate to his own intereſt, and to that of all the other ſtates of the Empire whom it concerns, as well as to the Empire in general, on account of its preſent great embarraſſment, that the archbiſhopric of Cologne, as well as the biſhopric of Munſter, do remain vacant for the preſent. His Imperial Majeſty has therefore been requeſted not to authorize any freſh election, which, if it ſhould nevertheleſs take place, he would be obliged to declare null and void.

Subſtance of the Declaration of his Imperial Majeſty to the Diet of Ratiſbon, declining to adopt, in conformity to the Suffrages of the general Diet of the Empire, the Mode pointed out for the final Adjuſtment of the Articles reſpecting the Empire.

IN ſeveral votes it has already been anticipated, that his Imperial Majeſty might have motives of ſufficient importance for his reluctance to accept this commiſſion. Solely directed by the reaſons alledged, and not to riſk a diminution of the dignity of the Head of the Empire by an unſucceſsful undertaking, his Imperial Majeſty could not agree to accept the commiſſion of the general Diet, nor to approve in his quality of the Supreme Head of the Empire, of that part of the *concluſum*. His Imperial Majeſty, however, being always accuſtomed and ever anxious not to tranſgreſs the boundaries traced by the German conſtitution, gives his aſſent to the co-operation of the Empire, in the uſual form of a deliberation of the Diet of the Empire; ſince the majority of the ſtates having decided upon the different modes of co-operation on the part of the Empire (viz. 1ſt, the full powers to be given to his Imperial Majeſty; 2dly, an extraordinary deputation of the Empire; and, 3dly, the deliberation of the Diet itſelf), by rejecting the two firſt modes propoſed by ſeveral ſtates, and among others by his Imperial Majeſty, in his quality of a ſtate of the Empire, in favour of the co-operation of the Diet aſſembled under its Supreme Head, the latter has no longer any authority

to approve of one of the two firſt modes of co-operation, though they might be very well calculated for accelerating the work of peace, which ſtill remains to be accompliſhed.

The principal objects which ſtill remain to be adjuſted by a ſpecial convention to complete the peace, are, in other reſpects, known from the treaty of peace at Luneville, which has been reciprocally ratified; and from what his Imperial Majeſty knows of the negotiation for the peace of Luneville, in order correctly to examine and decide upon thoſe points, nothing more is neceſſary than an hiſtorical acquaintance with the law of nations and ſtatiſtics, within the reach of all; and they may be ratified in the moſt ſecure manner by thoſe who have a particular intereſt in their diſcuſſion.

In this ſtate of affairs, in which the Diet of the Empire has given a preference to the ſtates in the Diet aſſembled by the Empire under its Chief, the relations which exiſt between the ſtates of the Empire and its Supreme Chief, and the manner of treating the affairs of Europe, require (and this will be one of the firſt tranſactions of the Imperial Diet) that a full *concluſum* on the objects to be regulated for completing the peace, by a particular convention, ſhould be ſubmitted to the ratification of his Imperial Majeſty as promptly as a proper diſcuſſion of this affair may permit. His Imperial Majeſty waits with paternal ſolicitude for this *concluſum*, which will not fail to ſatisfy his expectations, if the general Diet, in forming it, be guided by the regulations laid down with ſo much wiſdom in its laſt *concluſum*.

Done at Vienna, and ſealed with the ſeal of his Imperial Majeſty, June 26, 1801.

The Terms in which his Britannic Majeſty (as Elector of Hanover) gave his Aſſent to the Treaty of Luneville.

CUM cæteris votis.—His Majeſty the King of Great Britain, as Elector of Brunſwick and Lunenbourg, admits the extraordinary urgency of the circumſtances which accompanied the concluſion of peace, and which rendered it impoſſible to have the co-operation of the Empire, under the neceſſary forms which muſt have preceded it. But his Imperial Majeſty having in his high wiſdom, and from his conſtitutional ſentiments, recogniſed and given an expreſs aſſurance that the mode of negotiation which this extraordinary caſe has compelled him to follow, ſhall not be drawn into a precedent for the future, and neither can or ſhall in any manner prejudice the known and admitted rights aſſured by the conſtitution of the Empire, which the electoral princes and ſtates of the Empire poſſeſs, of co-operating in all matters and negotiations of peace.—His Royal Majeſty, in his quality of Elector of Brunſwick and Lunenbourg, does not therefore heſitate a moment to vote with his co-eſtates, that the treaty of Peace concluded on the 9th of February, at Luneville, with the French republic, by his Imperial Majeſty, in his own

own name, and in that of the Germanic Empire, ſuch as it has been communicated to the Diet of the Empire, by the Imperial decree of the 21ſt of February, be approved and ratified on the part of the Empire.

Points recommended by Pruſſia at the Diet of Ratiſbon, in the Beginning of Auguſt 1801, *as neceſſary to be arranged preparatory to the final Settlement of the Indemnities.*

THE vote of Magdebourg being that of a power which muſt neceſſarily take an active part in the execution of the treaty of Lunenbourg, deſerves to be moſt particularly known. The miniſter of Brandenbourg, after referring to what had paſſed at ſeveral of the late ſittings, demanded that every thing which related to the completion of the peace, ſhould be decided by the uſual form of deliberation in the Diet. He then demanded that they ſhould immediately fix the principles which had already been recognized in the preceding negotiations, and particularly at Raſtadt. "Let all the notes which have been exchanged at Raſtadt," ſaid the Pruſſian miniſter, "be examined—there will not be found, beyond the ceſſion of the left bank of the Rhine, but one other principle which has been reſpectively adopted, which is, That the eſtates of the Empire, having ſuffered loſs by the ceſſion of their poſſeſſions, ſhall receive indemnities; and that theſe indemnities ſhall be by means of ſecularizations."

After theſe diſpoſitions made at Luneville and Raſtadt, the following principles have been recogniſed by France, the Emperor, and the German Empire: that is to ſay, that the ſtates of the Empire (the hereditary ſtates only, which is formally ſtated in the treaty of Lunenbourg) who loſe their poſſeſſions on the left banks of the Rhine, by the ceſſion of that bank, are to receive indemnities to be taken from the Empire itſelf, by means of ſecularizations, according to the maſs of the loſſes. The right of the ſecular ſtates to indemnities ought to be formally acknowledged in the new *concluſum*, as alſo their gratitude to his Imperial Majeſty for the new proof of his benevolent ſolicitude which he has given them, in moderating, as far as poſſible, the ſtate of things in the Empire. In fine, that the affair of indemnities ſhould be realized by ſecularizations, it is neceſſary to ſtate in the new *concluſum* ſome preciſe and direct rules, principally upon the following points, after which it appears the affair may be treated in the moſt natural way:

I. To determine with preciſion who are the members of the Empire, and what the kind of poſſeſſions on the other ſide of the Rhine, which are entitled to indemnities.

Here it is not only neceſſary to take as the baſe the article of the treaty of Luneville, which reſtrains the indemnities to the hereditary ſtates, but it will be alſo neceſſary to determine the bounds which the indemnities ought to have, relative to the hereditary ſtates of the Emperor, and the other proprietors, which are not ſtates of the Empire.

II.

II. A more preciſe ſtatiſtic determination of the poſſeſſions which may enter into the liſt of loſſes thus to be fixed.

It would be neceſſary here, by reaſon of the inſufficiency of ordinary ſtatiſtic valuations, to eſtabliſh as a principle, that the net produce of the finance in the ceded country, after the deduction of expenſes of collecting, ſhould be taken as a rule.

III. Determination and application of the ſecularizations which are to ſerve for the indemnities.

The ſame principle of net produce may here again be adopted; and to eſtabliſh alſo in principle, that for the advantage of the indemnified ſtates, every one ſhall receive his indemnity there where it would be moſt convenient for their other poſſeſſions.

IV. A more preciſe modification of the ſecularizations and the conditions upon which the countries ſecularized ſhall paſs to the indemnified ſtates.

It will be neceſſary to conſider the actual poſſeſſions of the chapters, and to aſſign the juſt recompenſe. When theſe rules are adopted, and decreed by the reſolution of the ſtates, it will be neceſſary to ſubmit to the Diet the affairs of the intereſted ſtates, as alſo the propoſitions relative to the ſecularizations which may appear moſt convenient to indemnify them. All theſe objects, of courſe, will be fixed and decreed by the Diet.

Citizen Bacher delivered the following Letter to the Imperial Directory, in the ſitting of the Diet of Ratiſbon, on the 31ſt Auguſt 1801.

Letter of the Miniſter Talleyrand to Citizen Bacher, Chargé d'Affairs of the French Republic, to the Diet of the German Empire, dated Paris, the 6th Fructidor, Aug. 24.

Citizen,

THE Firſt Conſul has received from Berlin a notification of the orders tranſmitted to Count Gortz, to declare to the Diet, that his Pruſſian Majeſty, in conſequence of the 5th and 7th articles of the treaty of Luneville, will oppoſe the election of a new Elector of Cologne and Biſhop of Munſter, and in general all appointments to any eccleſiaſtical ſtates and poſſeſſions that may become vacant in the Empire by death. Such a declaration is in fact too conformable to the ſpirit and tenour of the treaty of peace, for the French government not to ſupport it with all its power. In whatever manner the regulation of the indemnifications may be definitively ſettled, the principle by which they are to be adjuſted has been preſcribed by France, and ſhe will take care that it be carried into effect. You will, therefore, citizen plenipotentiary, officially require, in the name of the French government, and in concurrence with the declaration of his Pruſſian Majeſty, that all appointments to eccleſiaſtical dignities and poſſeſſions, and eſpecially the election of a new Elector of Cologne and Biſhop of Munſter, be deferred till the indemnifications for the hereditary princes ſhall be definitively determined.

I greet you.

(Signed)

CH. MAU. TALLEYRAND.

The

The following is the Text of the Declaration made at Ratisbon, on the 31st of August 1801, in the two Colleges, by the Minister of his Prussian Majesty.

ON the occasion of the affair which is at present the object of the deliberations of the Diet, the minister of his Majesty has received orders to cause to be inscribed in the protocol the following declaration, in form of a vote, and as a supplement to that which he has already given:

The principle of the secularizations having been fixed by the paternal solicitude of his Imperial Majesty, and by the Germanic body, the capitularies of the great and little chapters which are vacant, or shall become vacant during the deliberations relative to these indemnities, cannot proceed to new elections, without committing a manifest inconsequence. Such a proceeding would throw the greatest obstacles in the way of the consummation of the work of peace, so necessary to the repose of the whole Empire; and, for many reasons, very easy to be conceived, and relating to the competencies to be given to the present possessors, it would be opposite to the equitable wishes of those who, in the affair of secularizations, as a project of indemnity, will be particularly attentive, after having compared the mass of the losses with that of the chapters to be secularized, to spare both the one and the other of these last as much as possible. His Majesty, in consequence, invites his illustrious co-estates to sanction this measure, by passing the following resolution as soon as possible: "That in cases of such a nature no elections should be proceeded upon till it should be otherwise resolved. His Majesty is so fully convinced of the justice of this principle, that on his part he will not acknowledge in any manner, or in any case, the elections which shall take place in the interval to vacant benefices, which may serve for indemnities, and may be taken as such; and this is what his Majesty has thought it right to declare here in express and decided terms at the assembly of the Germanic body.

He reserves to himself the right of giving further explanations on the forms of the deliberations of the Diet for the completion of the peace of the Empire.

Substance of the Protest of M. the Baron de Leikam, Minister of Cologne and Munster, in both Colleges against the Declaration of Prussia, of the 31st August 1801.

IN consequence of the declaration inserted in the protocol, on the part of the Minister of Magdeburg, it has been thought necessary previously to insert a protest, till instructions shall have been received for a counter declaration: in the mean time, we shall confine ourselves to the following observations:—The illustrious chapter of Munster, animated with sentiments which the good of the country, which is at present confided to its care, renders a most sacred duty, has held nothing more urgent, on hearing the death of his Royal Highness the Prince Bishop, than to take those measures for the immediate tranquillity of the country and its subjects, which in such circum-

circumſtances it was abſolutely called upon to take by its attributes, founded ſo firmly on the conſtitution of the Empire, and the rights which follow from them.

With this view the illuſtrious chapter has not only been immediately convoked, in order to proceed to the election of a new biſhop, but it has alſo with all due humility, given notice to the Supreme Head of the Empire; and it flatters itſelf that nothing will be found in this proceeding but the reſult of the deareſt duties that are impoſed on it. The ſaid chapter has not at all thought, and could the leſs think itſelf authorized to releaſe itſelf for a moment from their accompliſhment, becauſe (however unfortunate the ſituation of the Empire may be under the preſſure of the laſt events of a long and diſaſtrous war) neither the determinations of the treaty of peace of Luneville, nor the negotiations of the congreſs at Raſtadt, to which they refer, contain any obligatory ſtipulation oppoſed to this accompliſhment, which may allow, under any conſideration, any application whatſoever, tending to reſtrain the undeniable rights which belong to the ſaid chapter in the caſe of the exiſting vacancy. Such an application can the leſs take place, becauſe the Biſhop of Munſter is the directoral prince of a circle, whoſe relations, qualities and coherence with the Germanic conſtitution, are conſecrated in the moſt ſolemn manner, by the fundamental laws of the Empire; and this conſideration gives it the moſt perfect aſſurance that its farther ſupport can be regarded only as an eſſential part of the conſtitution, the future exiſtence of which had not only been already expreſsly eſtabliſhed by the treaty of Campo Formio but has alſo been recogniſed in the negotiation of Raſtadt by the French plenipotentiaries in a manner the moſt unequivocal, and which cannot be miſunderſtood as to the chapter of Munſter, in an affair in which the deliberations muſt have ſuch a deciſive effect.

The miniſter of Munſter is ſatisfied that the French government, as ſoon as it ſhall be perfectly informed of the real ſtate of the matter, as it has been explained, will not oppoſe any impediment to the new election of one of the principal members of the Empire, making an integral part of the conſtitutional compoſition of the Germanic body; but that it will hold itſelf called upon to protect it as a contracting party in the treaty of Luneville, and the negotiations of Raſtadt, which ſerve for their baſis. The ſaid miniſter has no doubt that the illuſtrious co-eſtates of the Empire, guided by the juſt intereſt which they take in the maintenance of the conſtitution, will unite their efforts and their influence to preſerve the reſpectable chapter from any embarraſſment in the diſcharge of its duties relative to the election of a new prince biſhop of Munſter, particularly when, to the preſent moment, and even ſince the treaty of Luneville, no other chapter of the Empire has found any impediment in making the neceſſary nominations.

Vote of Bavaria in the ſitting of the 31ſt of Auguſt 1801, *at Ratiſbon.*

HIS

HIS Imperial Majeſty did not give his ſanction to the *concluſum* of the 30th of April; but invited the Diet, by the decree of the Imperial commiſſion, of the 26th of June, to come, in preference to all other meaſures, to a final deciſion reſpecting the objects which remain to be ſettled by a particular arrangement, in order to complete the peace of the Empire, and to co-operate in that manner to the definitive concluſion of this important affair. His Serene and Electoral Highneſs acknowledges, with the ſincereſt gratitude, the paternal ſentiments expreſſed by the Supreme Head of the Empire in that declaration, and feels himſelf impelled, in conſequence of his Imperial Majeſty's demand, to ſtate, with his accuſtomed candour, his opinion, both with reſpect to the principles and the manner which ought to be adopted in order to regulate the objects which remain to be ſettled.

The treaty of peace concluded at Luneville by his Imperial Majeſty in his own name, and in that of the Empire, and ratified by the Germanic body, again confirms, by the 6th article, the ceſſion of the left bank of the Rhine to France, ſuch as it had been ſettled at the congreſs of Raſtadt, but it alſo guarantees by the 7th article, indemnities to the ſecular princes for their loſſes by that ſeſſion, in conformity to the principles ſolemnly eſtabliſhed on that ſubject, at the negotiations of Raſtadt. According to the notes exchanged at the congreſs of peace between the plenipotentiaries of the French republic and the deputation of the Empire, theſe principles are—"That the ſtates of Germany ſuffering loſſes, ſhall be indemnified on the right bank of the Rhine, and that ſuch indemnities ſhall be effectuated by the means of ſecularizations in the interior of the Empire."

Theſe two principles having been adopted and expreſsly confirmed in the ſaid treaty of peace of Luneville, by the paternal precaution of his Imperial Majeſty, are, in virtue of the 7th article, conſidered as the principal baſis recogniſed and ſanctioned between France, his Imperial Majeſty, and the Germanic body, and ſhould, previouſly to all other conſiderations, be expreſsly declared as ſuch in the new *concluſum* which is to be taken. It will be ſtill neceſſary to eſtabliſh ſome preciſe regulations for the ultimate application of theſe principles:—

1ſt. Relative to the object for which the indemnity is to be given.

2d. Relative to the mode of indemnification: and,

3d. With reſpect to the way of tranſacting the affairs relative to the complete adjuſtment of peace, which may be ſubmitted to the deliberations of the Diet.

1ſt. The objects entitled to the indemnities, in conformity to the deciſions of the Diet, are determined by the 7th article of the treaty of Luneville, relative to the ſecular princes who have been deprived of their poſſeſſions on the left bank of the Rhine by the ceſſion of that bank.

2d. The indemnities are to be regulated according to the loſſes, which are to be eſtimated by ſtatiſtical valuations, which depend upon the extent of territory, the population and the revenue. The

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ſtates deprived of their territories are to lay before the Diet the accounts and propoſitions neceſſary to inſtitute more ample inveſtigations, and to obtain more preciſe eſtimates. Afterwards ſecularizations will be aſſigned to each according to their loſſes; and, for this end, it will be neceſſary to eſtabliſh the principle that each ſhall be indemnified, ſo that his poſſeſſions on the right bank ſhall be rounded as much as poſſible. Not only juſtice towards theſe ſtates, ſolicits the adoption of this principle, but it is a neceſſary meaſure, as well for the ſafety of the German Empire, and to prevent a number of differences; as to facilitate for the future the introduction of new diſpoſitions tending to the general welfare of the Empire. As the indemnities are to be effected by means of ſecularizations, and conſequently the chapters of the Empire, are to form the maſs of indemnities conformably to the treaty of peace with the Empire, it neceſſarily reſults that no new nominations ſhould be made to the benefices of the Empire, of any claſs, which are vacant, or may become ſo, until the definitive concluſion of the affair of the indemnities; but that all nominations be beforehand declared null which may have taken place, which ought equally to be weighed in principle and carried by the ſanction of his Imperial Majeſty. Relatively to the actual poſſeſſions of the eccleſiaſtical countries, which will ſerve as indemnities, it will be neceſſary, beſides the ſecularizations, to wait the modifications and the more preciſe conditions which aſſure their future fate.

3d. As the urgency and the nature of this affair, on the prompt concluſion of which depend the tranquillity and the well-being of the whole Empire, do not permit it to be treated in a complicated manner and ſubject to delays, it may be confided, as well as from having regard to anterior epochs, to a committee, compoſed of a ſmall number of the ſtates of the Empire, which ſhall be charged to acknowledge, after the rules to be eſtabliſhed, the loſſes and indemnities of each; to determine thoſe who have a right to theſe laſt, both as to quantity, and quality, and afterwards to ſubmit to the Diet the reſult of them to ſerve towards the *concluſum*.

After the definitive arrangement of the affair of the indemnities, this committee might alſo be charged with preſenting to the Diet a further report on the manner in which the changes to be introduced by the new order of things in the conſtitution of the circles and the German Empire, for the conſolidation of the Germanic body, ought to be accompliſhed; paying a due regard to the ſecular ſtates, whoſe conſtitutional rights might be affected by that meaſure. An ulterior explanation is reſerved as to the nomination of the members who ſhall compoſe this committee. As to other points, his Highneſs adheres to the vote of Brandenbourg, and refers to it, with reſpect to the principles and rules which are therein developed in a very able and ample manner.

The French Miniſter at Ratiſbon, Citizen Bacher, delivered to the Diet, on the 15th September, the following

following Extract of the laſt Diſpatch, received by him from his Government.

Paris, Sept. 4, 1801.

AS it is fit that at Regenſburgh there ſhould be no uncertainty with reſpect to the particular views of the French government, the Chief Conſul gives you now the commiſſion to declare to the members of the Diet, in the moſt determined manner, that the French government is aſtoniſhed at the delay of the execution of the 7th article of the treaty of Luneville, and that it conſiders it as a duty to demand of the Diet to declare itſelf definitively in what manner the indemnities of the princes who have ſuffered are to be adjuſted.

Proteſt of the King of Pruſſia againſt the Election of the Archduke Anthony to the Biſhopric of Munſter, publiſhed in the Berlin Gazette, 26th September 1801.

AFTER the deceaſe of his Royal Highneſs the Elector of Cologne and Biſhop of Munſter, his Majeſty the King, in conſequence of the principles adopted in the treaty of peace of Luneville, ſignified to the Diet of Ratiſbon, and likewiſe to the two chapters of the electorate and biſhoprick, that, during the preſent negotiations, no new elections ought to take place to any dignities of the Empire that might become vacant. But as the chapter of Munſter has, notwithſtanding, proceeded to the election of a new biſhop, his Majeſty has judged it proper to tranſmit the following proteſt directly to the aſſembled ſtates of the Empire, and to the two chapters, Munſter and Ahrenſberg:—

"His Majeſty the King of Pruſſia has explicitly declared, both to the General Aſſembly of the Empire, and in other places, that he conſidered it as a rational, neceſſary, and undeniable conſequence of the principle of ſecularization, eſtabliſhed by the treaty of Luneville, that during the negotiations relative to the application and carrying into effect of this principle, no new election ſhould take place to any of the ſuperior or inferior dignities of the Empire, in caſe of the deceaſe of the preſent poſſeſſors. Many of the moſt conſiderable of the ſtates of the Empire, and particularly the powers with which the Empire is concluding peace, have publicly approved this conſequence. The juſtice of this meaſure was equally evident with the important influence which it muſt have on the regulation of the indemnities; and the more neceſſary was it to preſerve the latter from all new difficulties and perplexities, in order, happily to reſtore peace to Germany, and fulfil the wiſh of every true patriot in the Empire. It was, therefore, to have been expected, with confidence, that the two chapters of the electorate of Cologne and biſhopric of Munſter, lately vacated by a much-lamented death, would, with a view to the general good, have deferred proceeding to any new election; as they muſt have foreſeen, that by ſuch election they could in no manner avert their impending fate, but only contribute to clog with difficulties the final ſettlement of the peace of the Empire. His Majeſty,

Majeſty, with great regret, ſees that theſe two chapters have, notwithſtanding, proceeded to a new election, and finds himſelf compelled to renew the declaration which, on the 31ſt of laſt month, he made to the Diet of the Empire in the Electoral College, and which he ſignified to the members of the ſaid two chapters, by his privy directorial counſellor and miniſter plenipotentiary, Von Dohm, in which he explicitly proteſts againſt any new election of an Archbiſhop of Cologne, and Biſhop of Munſter; and declares that he will conſider ſuch election as void, and will not acknowledge, or in any manner take cognizance of any pretended new archbiſhop and biſhop, until the affair of the ſecularizations ſhall be finally ſettled."

Private Anſwer of the Cathedral Chapter of Munſter to the Note of the Pruſſian Miniſter.

Hamm, Sept. 15, 1801.

THE underſigned, cathedral chapter of Munſter, has had the honour to receive the note of his Excellency the Pruſſian Miniſter Von Dohm, dated the 15th of September. It is with deep regret we ſee by this note, that the proceedings we have taken towards an epiſcopal election for the biſhopric of Munſter have not had the approbation of his Majeſty the King of Pruſſia. Yet, however unpleaſant this misfortune may be for us, we cannot avoid openly declaring, with the greateſt reſpect for his Majeſty, that we in this proceeding have only followed our duty, and, without hurting our conſcience, could not act otherwiſe. It was not poſſible for us to follow the well-intended advice of his Royal Majeſty, as the contrary conviction dictated to us the election, and as in ſo acting we followed the conſtitution, we did not ſuppoſe we injured any one. Our whole conduct bears the ſtamp of the completeſt legality, and is founded in the German conſtitution; for the maintenance of which his Royal Majeſty, as one of the moſt powerful members of the Empire, has ſo often declared himſelf in the moſt patriotic manner in favour of the weaker ſtates. Should his Majeſty's diſpleaſure be the conſequence of our not complying with his advice, notwithſtanding the foregoing obſervations, nothing but the recollection and conviction that we had acted ſo only from the pureſt motives, could conſole us, and give us power to ſupport unmerited ſufferings. We feel our weakneſs, and acknowledge the force of the powerful neighbour of the biſhopric of Munſter. Yet we do not permit ourſelves to indulge the leaſt fear, nor even anxiety, for having conſidered ourſelves not bound to follow the advice of his Majeſty in this caſe; on the contrary, we truſt to his well-known love of juſtice, and the gracious character of his Majeſty, even to think it probable, that the cathedral chapter ſhould have to ſuffer his royal diſpleaſure for having done their duty, in giving to the inhabitants of Munſter a new prince biſhop, who might anſwer their wiſhes and expectations.

We ſhould be ſo much the leſs uneaſy in this reſpect, if his Excellency the Miniſter Von Dohm, with whoſe perſonal favourable diſpoſition

position we have been fully made acquainted, in the affair of the line of demarkation, would have the kindness to represent to his Majesty the King, in that impressive manner, for which he is so much distinguished, the situation of the bishopric, and our duties for the maintenance of the constitution of the country, with which that office of a prince, who is intrusted with the assembling of the circle, is connected. Your Excellency was the organ through which the Royal advice, not to elect, came to us; we therefore request and entreat your Excellency, as a friend of mankind, in consequence of our personal esteem for you, to display our conduct in its true light, in the place where we might run the risk of being misunderstood, and improperly judged. We are not capable of giving any answer, which must not have occurred to the learned author and great German publicist, who, by express command, drew up the before-mentioned note. We therefore here pass over the deeply afflicting declaration, that his Prussian Majesty will not acknowledge and respect the election that has taken place of the prince bishop of Munster, as legal and permanent; although the election was conducted according to the constitution of the empire, and the direction of the canons, and nothing was opposed to it but a declaration given only as a well-intended advice. The chief party in the peace of Luneville, his Majesty the Emperor, graciously sent a commissioner to the election. We are thus fully assured, that our conduct was graciously considered by the Head of the Empire as legal and constitutional; and considering the friendly understanding and confidential communication contained in the note of the 15th of August, between the courts of Vienna and Berlin, we proceeded, without any apprehension of giving offence, to the performance of our duty. At the same time that we communicate this to the minister of his Prussian Majesty, we repeat to him the assurance of our unalterable and profound esteem.

Protest, delivered in by the Electoral Chapter of Cologne, on the 28th September, 1801, against the Declarations of Prussia and France.

HIS Prussian Majesty having, by his plenipotentiary, Von Dohm, in a note, dated the 5th of last month, given the episcopal and archiepiscopal chapter of Cologne to understand, that the election of a new head of the high archbishopric should for the present be suspended, and not take place till the conditions of peace are completely carried into execution; but the electoral chapter having, by the before-mentioned minister, caused to be represented to his Royal Majesty, the actual state of the business of the election, which had already proceeded to a certain extent, at the time of the receipt of the note on that subject, the chapter might have indulged the consoling hope, that this constitutional proceeding, to which they considered themselves not only entitled, but also bound by duty, and which, upon this principle in all its remote consequences, they were no longer in a situation to delay, would be favourably received by his Majesty. Nothing could more

ſenſibly increaſe the deep feeling of grief for the loſs of the prince, ſo much lamented by his country and ſubjects, than the altogether unexpected propoſition, which not only his Pruſſian Majeſty cauſed to be made to the aſſembled ſtates of the Empire, by his ambaſſador at the Diet, in regard to the ſuſpenſion of the new election, but which was alſo ſupported with the like view by the French government, in the moſt pointed terms, in the note delivered in by the French charge de affaires, Bacher. The impreſſion made by theſe was ſtill farther increaſed by that meaſure, which immediately followed, of his Electoral Highneſs the Elector Palatine, a prince, whoſe houſe has, in the courſe of upwards of one hundred and eighty years, given five princes to this electoral ſtate of Cologne, whoſe anceſtors, from the earlieſt time, have invariably been the ſupport and protection of the Catholic religion, and of the Catholic ſtates. Penetrated by the duties which they owe to the church and the electoral territories, now intruſted to their adminiſtration, the cathedral chapter ſee themſelves here reduced to the moſt melancholy neceſſity of declaring to the Diet, in the very place, where, in conſequence of the moſt unhappy of all wars, every effort was required from the moſt reſpectable ſtates of the Empire, for the defence of their native country; ſince the ſubjects of the electoral ſtate, till the concluſion of the peace of Luneville, have fought in conjunction with the Empire, and that they might fulfil their obligations for the preſervation of the country; in ſight of this very country, the preſervation of which could be only affected by the perſevering efforts of united ſtrength; in the preſence of thoſe ſtates and ſubjects, who devoted their utmoſt ſtrength to this great national end; in the preſence of the united ſtates, with whom they have ſo faithfully cooperated towards the maintenance of their rights and political exiſtence; in the preſence of all Europe, as witneſs of their ſpirit and true German firmneſs; and laſtly, in the moſt ſolemn manner, as an example to future generations: that whatever are and may be the conſequences to their individual members, the chapter will not permit themſelves to be interrupted in the courſe of their conſtitutional duties, from a regard to any circumſtances having relation only to themſelves as ſuch; that faithful to the duties which the welfare of the countries committed to them requires; faithful to their relations to the Empire, aſſembled under its Supreme Head, and to its ſtates; faithful to the conſtitution, and adhering with ſtedfaſt regard to the true intereſt of all the ſtates, ſtrong only by their union, and thereby alone ſecure—they neither can nor will be prevented by any obſtacle, the removal of which lies in their power, from doing that which they are entitled to do, and what they are in duty bound to do; that from the pure conſciouſneſs of rectitude, which will be vindicated by the lateſt generations, unconcerned about thoſe conſequences of the future peace, which reach farther than binding reſtrictions, or extend beyond that line, within which they muſt, on account of their duty, confine themſelves, they will purſue that path alone, which has for its only object, the maintenance

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of that conſtitution, which was ſo ſacred to the fathers of the preſent generation, and under which, ſufficiently inſtructed by a courſe of experience of all kinds, they lived quiet, happy, and contented, in the enjoyment of an ever-improving poſterity.

With the moſt unbounded confidence in the conſtitution of the country, as the only and broad baſis of the pureſt and moſt permanent happineſs of the German nation, to the maintenance of which, therefore, the latter has the moſt indiſputable right, the chapter ſee themſelves, in the name of that nation, under whoſe protection the electoral territories of Cologne ſtand, called upon to add to this ſolemn declaration, the equally ſolemn proteſtation againſt all thoſe ſteps, which are incompatible with the ſpirit and ſubſtance of this conſtitution, and do not find their moſt evident vindication in the limitations of the already ratified peace of Luneville, but are rather altogether in oppoſition to the laſt electoral union, ſo ſacredly ſworn to by the high electoral predeceſſors of his Majeſty the King of Pruſſia, as Elector of Brandenburgh, and his Electoral Highneſs the Prince Palatine; to the inviolable maintenance of which all the high members of this firſt and moſt reverend college are moſt preſſingly called upon by their princely promiſe ſo ſolemnly pledged, their dignities and their honours, and all that is dear to them.

The chapter ſee themſelves the more imperiouſly called upon to adopt this proceeding, as neither in this peace, nor in the negotiations of Raſtadt, is there a trace to be found of any general reſult of obligatory force, which impoſes as a duty on the chapter, the moſt unfortunate neceſſity of putting their hands to the annihilation of the conſtitution of theſe countries, and on their part of laying the foundation of a revolution which will deſtroy the conſtitution, the Catholic religion, and at the ſame time the ſtates attached to it; and the firſt ſtep to which, the non-accompliſhment of the election, would manifeſtly lead to the ruin of the ſtate.

Unfortunately the chapter feels what the preſſure of circumſtances may do; and that the preſent ſituation of things is ſuch, as will render changes neceſſary: it cannot, however, be unknown, that it is to be lamented that ſtates, which, through the whole courſe of the war, have devoted all their ſtrength to the ſervice of their country, ſolely, to keep thoſe circumſtances at a diſtance, which are now ſo preſſing; which have done every thing to ſave their country and its conſtitution; to which, from their conduct in conformity to their connexion with the Empire, not the ſmalleſt reproach can be made of any crime, of any ſingle intention, directed to any other object than the general welfare; that theſe ſtates and their ſubjects, and that too under circumſtances, to which they are ſo utterly ſtrangers in a political and legal ſenſe, in the midſt of the negotiations and the concluſion of peace, ſhould be the ſacrifice; that inſtead of enjoying the recompence of their ſervices, even before the peace has definitively decided upon their lot, they muſt ſee their apprehenſions well founded, and that their relations will be eſſentially

altered, and their conſtitution deſtroyed.

Surely it is unjuſt that thoſe ſtates and ſubjects, who in the peace of Campo Formio ſaw their further exiſtence already ſecured, to which, in the negotiation of Raſtadt, which immediately followed this peace without the intervention of a new war, this exiſtence was alſo ſecured, as far as related to the right bank of the Rhine; and, in reſpect to which, finally, the peace of Luneville, in conformity to theſe negotiations, does not contain any determination derogatory to this view; which have lately made ſuch a ſacrifice, by their retiring from the left bank of the Rhine, as is ſcarcely the caſe with the few ſtates which lie on this ſide, ſhould, at the end of their ſtruggle, be altogether overthrown. If juſtice, without which every ſtate muſt be ruined, preponderates in the deliberations and reſolutions of the Diet upon this affair, which, by the propoſition of the Elector of Brandenburgh, has been committed to their deciſion; the ſtates of the Empire, with only half a look at futurity, cannot concur: ſhould the contrary be the caſe, the confirmation is not to be expected from the paternal feelings of his Imperial Majeſty; the guaranteeing powers of the German conſtitution come thereby within the limits, where the moſt active participation in its ſupport is the firſt active duty of their guaranty; even from the peaceful diſpoſition of the government of the French ſtate, which is now the neighbour of the electoral ſtate, it cannot be thought, that it (the French government) more correctly informed of the true ſtate of things, will in any manner encroach upon that, which, through the peace of Luneville, has been ſtipulated, by further pacifications; or, at leaſt, will act from motives which can in no reſpect operate diſadvantageouſly on the real conſequences of the peace, in any other manner, than that which may agree with the true relations of independent and ſelf-exiſting ſtates, which are already ſo nearly connected by the ties of friendſhip and peace: from every circumſtance there is ſo much the leſs reaſon to ſuſpect any operation of the French Government diſadvantageous to the future exiſtence of the electoral ſtate, as the maintenance of its neighbour and her conſtitution muſt, conſidered under all points of view, be more advantageous to it (the French government) than any alteration ever can, which would hurt that neighbour; but more eſpecially, as it muſt be freſh in the recollection of that government, that the conduct of the deceaſed prince of this electoral ſtate, from the firſt occaſion of this moſt unfortunate war, remained unchangeable, confined within the limits of the duties preſcribed to him by his relation to the Empire.

In this view of the buſineſs, on theſe principles reſts the confident hope of the chapter, that, in their conſtitutional path, the only one which is permitted them to tread, from which they neither will nor dare to depart one ſtep, they will not only not be prevented from maintaining the ſituation of the electoral ſtate committed to them, as it was in the lifetime of his late Electoral Highneſs, but that, in the further deliberations upon thoſe circumſtances which may yet come in

in queſtion, in conſequence of the arrangement of the peace of Luneville, they ſhall receive back its whole exiſtence, conformably to the conſtitution, and to the relations which immediately roſe out of the latter.

The chapter of the biſhopric and archbiſhopric of Cologne flatter themſelves, that after this declaration and proteſtation, which has been extorted from them by their duties to the church and to the ſtate, according to the principles here announced with German openneſs; neither his Majeſty the King of Pruſſia, nor the moſt high ſtates of the Empire, will give any further conſequence to the propoſition, on the delay of an election of an elector of Cologne, which muſt be diſadvantageous to the maintenance of this electoral ſtate; and ſo much the more, as this propoſition, by prolonging the work of peace, may produce the effect, that the greater part of the German church will remain without a head, not without the utmoſt prejudice for the Catholic religion, and thence muſt ariſe a moſt diſtracted ſtate, as the preſent ſituation of affairs gives reaſon to expect.

It cannot, certainly, eſcape the enlightened judgment of the excellent embaſſy of the Elector of Brandenburgh, on a nearer examination, that the *Praègudez*, from the year 1761 to the year 1763, introduced in the further counter-reſervation propoſed on the 14th of the preſent month, as a protocole of the council of the princes of the Empire, can have, by no means, any influence on the preſent caſe; as at that time the before-mentioned biſhopries were altogether under the power of the enemy, in which caſe under ſuch impreſſion, and amid the din of arms, all laws, and the execution of them, muſt neceſſarily be ſilent; but at preſent, on the contrary, the ſtate of peace, ſo much wiſhed for by all Germany, has been already long enjoyed, and as even, when the unhappy enſigns of war waved in its ſouthern provinces, the biſhopric of Munſter enjoyed, at a diſtance from all the troubles of war, the valuable fruits of a ſtate of peace and neutrality, under the wiſe protection of his Pruſſian Majeſty himſelf, who moſt magnanimouſly ſecured it againſt all the events of war and hoſtility, at the ſame time it is known to every one, who is acquainted with the circumſtances of that time, that in the before-cited caſe the right of the conſtitution was in the fulleſt manner preſerved againſt all force by the ſupreme court decree of his Imperial Majeſty, of the 8th of May, 1761.

The Elector Palatine of Bavaria hereupon delivered in the following Declaration, as an Electoral Protocole:

HIS Electoral Highneſs had, it is true, in his diſſent of the 31ſt of Auguſt, made the propoſition that the vacancies which happened, and which might ſtill happen, in the biſhoprics, till the final arrangement of the indemnifications, ought not to be filled up by new elections, as his Highneſs was convinced that the principle, ſanctioned by the peace of Luneville, of an intermediate ſecularization for the accompliſhment of the indemnities, required ſuch a rule as the natural conſequence; but his High-

neſs has refrained from every application to a ſpecific caſe, and left ſuch to the deciſion of the Empire and its Supreme Head; and further, in the propoſition for the ſuſpenſion of thoſe elections, he never had an idea of the annihilation of the electorate of Cologne, nor of any other ſpecific eccleſiaſtical ſtate. His Highneſs muſt, therefore, reſerve himſelf againſt the unexpected remarks, which the ſupplemental remonſtrance of the electorate of Cologne, delivered on the 28th of September, contains againſt the true ſenſe of his diſſent.

If the conſequences of an unfortunate war, if a treaty of peace ſolemnly ſanctioned, require an order of things different from the conſtitution which has hitherto exiſted, the reſults ariſing from it muſt be adapted, not to a ſingle individual, but to the circumſtances and policy of the whole, from whence new legal forms may ariſe.

The electoral proteſtation of Cologne muſt, therefore, in this point of view, be conſidered as directed not ſo much againſt the diſſent of the Electors of Brandenburgh and Bavaria, as againſt the treaty of Luneville itſelf, on which account all further proteſtations on this ſubject are nugatory, as it is the common concern of all thoſe, who originally concluded this peace and have partaken in its conſequences.

The members of the moſt reverend cathedral chapter of the electorate of Cologne, had beſides not repreſented ſo much the ideas of religion, and of the conſtitution, of church and ſtate, as they had delivered, in their own name, a demonſtration of his Electoral Highneſs's diſintereſted views, according to which his Highneſs on all occaſions, particularly where it can contribute to the welfare of the whole German Empire, will exert himſelf to co-operate, and thereby merit the moſt flattering confidence of his moſt high and high co-eſtates.

Concluſum of the Diet of Ratiſbon.—The Electors, Princes, and States of the Emperor to his Serene Highneſs Charles Alexander, Prince of Tour and Taxis, &c. principal Commiſſary of his Imperial Majeſty at the Diet.

THE three colleges of the Empire having taken into deliberation the decree of the Imperial commiſſion of the 26th of June of this year, have thought that the arrangement of the different objects which yet remain to be regulated for the completion of the peace in the General Aſſembly of the Empire, would be unavoidably expoſed to great and numerous difficulties on account of the uſual manner of treating affairs in it. In conſequence it has been decreed:

1. That the right of co-operation on the part of the ſtates of the Empire in the work of peace, ſhall be exerciſed by means of an extraordinary deputation.

2. That in order to avoid, in this ſo difficult affair, all delay, as well as a new complication, the ſaid deputation ſhall be reſtricted to eight members, obſerving the equality of rights relative to religion.

3. That to this effect, there ſhall be elected in the College of Electors, Mentz, Saxony, Bohemia, and Brandenburgh; and in that of the princes, Bavaria, Wirtemburgh,

temburgh, the grand maſter of the Teutonic Order, and Heſſe Caſſel.

4. That there ſhall be reſerved, nevertheleſs, in an expreſs manner to the prelates and courts of the Empire, as well as to the college of Imperial cities, the right which they have of participating in the deputation of the Empire.

5. That there ſhall be conferred on the part of the Empire, upon the deputies elected, full and unlimited powers, to examine, treat, and regulate, in concert with the French government, the objects which, by the 5th and 7th articles of the treaty of Luneville, have been reſerved for a particular arrangement.

6. That there ſhall, however, be given to this deputation, expreſs directions, in order that at the fixing of the indemnities by ſecularizations, they may have continually before their eyes, and obſerve exactly as a direct rule for their operations, the reſtrictive clauſe by which the deputation of the Empire at the Congreſs of Raſtadt gave in their note, of the 4th of April, 1798, their adherence to theſe indemnities, and that, conformably to this clauſe, they proceed in this affair with all the meaſures, precautions, and reſerves, which the maintenance of the Germanic conſtitution in all its relations requires, together with the re-eſtabliſhment and affirming the well-being of the ſtates, the immediate nobility and other members of the Empire, which reſt upon this conſtitution.

7. Finally, that the ſaid deputation ſhall preſent for his Imperial Majeſty's and the Empire's ratification, the reſult of their operations, and the reſolution they ſhall have taken in conſequence.

The preſent reſolution ſhall be addreſſed to his Imperial Majeſty (as is done by this preſent), to receive the ſanction of the Supreme Chief of the Empire, in the room of the concluſum which he had demanded, and as a modified propoſition, for the important motives above-mentioned, for the exerciſe of the right of co-operation of the ſtates of the Empire in the completion of peace. There ſhall be given at the ſame time to his Imperial Majeſty moſt humble thanks for the paternal ſolicitude of which he has given on this occaſion freſh proofs for the maintenance of the Germanic conſtitution and the rights of the Empire.

The concluſum ſhall be ſent to Vienna to-morrow by an extraordinary courier.

October 3, 1801.

Declaration of the principal Imperial Commiſſary of his Imperial Majeſty to the Ambaſſadors, Envoys of the Electors, Princes, and States of the Holy Roman Empire, as follows:

Ratiſbon, Nov. 19, 1801.

SCARCELY had the treaty of peace, concluded at Luneville by his Imperial Majeſty with the French republic, been communicated to the Diet by an Imperial decree, of the 21ſt of February, in order that it might be ſpeedily ratified in a concluſum, when his Imperial Majeſty invited that aſſembly by a ſecond Imperial decree, of the 3d of March, to lay before him, as ſoon as poſſible, a reſolution upon the mode by which the ſtates of the Empire were to co-operate in the particular ar-

rangement which ſtill remained to be made, ſo much had his Imperial Majeſty at heart in his paternal ſolicitude that the affairs of the peace of the Empire ſhould be entirely terminated with all poſſible ſpeed; but the mode of the co-operation of the ſtates of the Empire in that work, which his Majeſty afterwards acceded to, and in conſequence of which the affair in queſtion was to be treated in the uſual forms, the deliberations of the Diet ſoon experienced ſuch powerful and multiplied obſtacles, that even the Diet reſolved afterwards to adopt another mode for the exerciſe of the right of co-operation of the ſtates of the Empire, and to ſubmit to the Imperial ſanction that new mode, inſtead of the complete reſolution which his Majeſty had demanded by the decree of the 26th of June laſt.—This deciſion has been, as is known, carried into execution by means of the concluſum of the Diet of the 2d of laſt month, the principal tenour of which imports, that the co-operation of the ſtates of the Empire in the objects which ſtill remained to be regulated by a particular arrangement to terminate the work of peace, ſhould take place by means of an extraordinary deputation of the Empire; and that, with the formal reſervation of the right of concurrence belonging to the prelates and counts of the Empire, as well as to the Imperial cities, this deputation ſhould be confined to eight members of the College of Electors and College of Princes, having regard to the equality of religion; that there ſhould be given to the deputies choſen, unlimited powers to conclude with the French government, *ſalva ratificatione Cæſaris et Imperii*, the arrangement that remains to be made, enjoining them, however, formally to obſerve ſcrupulouſly the reſtrictive clauſes that have already been reſpectively recogniſed with the baſes of indemnities agreed upon in the negotiations of Raſtadt by the two parties. His Majeſty is convinced, with the Diet (as has been ſeen by the already mentioned decree of Imperial commiſſion of the 26th June), that the mode of co-operation of the Empire by means of an extraordinary deputation, is more proper to accelerate the affair that remains to be terminated than the concurrence of the Empire, in the uſual form of the deliberations of the Diet. Guided by the paternal intention of inſuring the internal tranquillity of Germany, he approves, in conſequence, the concluſum tranſmitted to him, with the reſervation of the prerogatives and attributes, in their whole extent, that belong to him, as well as to the Imperial plenipotentiaries, to a deputation of that nature, conformably to the laws, primitive inſtitutions, analogy, and right of nations. In what concerns the neceſſary ulterior diſpoſitions, relative to the extraordinary deputation of the Empire, which has been ſanctioned, his Majeſty will communicate his reſolutions on that ſubject.

Letter of the State and Cabinet Miniſter, his Excellency Count Cobentzel, to Count Stadion, the Imperial Miniſter at Berlin.

Vienna, October 14, 1801.

YESTERDAY intelligence was received that his Royal Highneſs the Archduke Anthony was unani-

unanimouſly proclaimed archbiſhop and elector of the electoral archbiſhopric of Cologne, by the electoral cathedral chapter of Cologne, in a free canonical and electoral aſſembly.

While your Excellency will not fail to make the friendly communication of this event to his Pruſſian Majeſty's miniſtry, your Excellency will at the ſame time, in the moſt efficacious manner, repeat thoſe declarations which his Majeſty the Emperor and King cauſed to be made ſubſequent to the election of Munſter.

Your Excellency will aſſure his Pruſſian Majeſty's miniſtry, that, with reſpect to the electorate of Cologne, the election of an archduke may be conſidered as indifferent; as the natural courſe of the accompliſhing of the indemnities by means of ſecularization will not be altered from perſonal conſideration, or ſecondary views. Hence then the court of his Pruſſian Majeſty may reſt perfectly convinced that, while the Imperial court, from love and regard to the old conſtitution of Germany, according to its internal conviction, can never forbear inſiſting on the maintenance of the three ſpiritual electorates, the perſonal conſideration of the Archduke having been elected to be Elector of Cologne, cannot have the ſmalleſt influence on this conduct of the high Imperial court.

On this occaſion your Excellency will alſo diſcloſe in confidence to Count Haugwitz, that although the cathedral chapter of Munſter earneſtly preſs that his Royal Highneſs the Archduke Anthony may repair to Munſter and take upon himſelf the government, yet his Imperial Majeſty, as the Head of the Houſe, has not yet given to his Royal Highneſs permiſſion to this purpoſe, but has rather intimated to the cathedral chapter, to continue the government in the mean time, in all reſpects in the ſame manner as if the ſee was vacant.—*Sede Impedita.*

His Royal Highneſs, beyond all doubt, is in all reſpects entitled to the formal aſſumption of the government, and might without contradiction put himſelf in poſſeſſion of this eccleſiaſtical electorate, which at this moment has as much right to its exiſtence as other eccleſiaſtical electorates.

It is alſo not to be denied, that his Imperial Majeſty, in this moderation, which he has ſhown, could have no other view, than thereby to give a proof that in this reſpect he has been guided by no perſonal intereſt.

LEWIS COBENTZEL.

Note of Count Haugwitz to Count Stadion.

Berlin, October 26, 1801.

THE underſigned ſtate and cabinet miniſter, has informed the King of the communication which Count Stadion, miniſter extraordinary and plenipotentiary of his Imperial and Royal Majeſty, was charged to make to him within theſe few days. It was intended to make known to his Majeſty, the election of his Royal Highneſs the Archduke Anthony, as biſhop and elector of Cologne, and was accompanied with the declaration, that this election, as well as that of Munſter, was to be conſidered as indifferent, and unconnected with every perſonal or farther view, and that it could not in the leaſt alter either

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the natural courſe of the ſecularizations, nor the appropriation of the ſame to the indemnifications. That, as on the one ſide the Emperor, partly from attachment to the conſtitution of the Empire, partly from internal conviction, could not forbear perſiſting in the maintenance of the three eccleſiaſtical electorates, the election which had fallen on the Archduke Anthony could by no means, or in any manner, have an influence on the conduct of his Imperial Majeſty: that in order to give a proof of this, his Majeſty has declined the propoſition of the cathedral chapter of Munſter, inviting the Archduke to repair to that biſhopric, and to take poſſeſſion of it; and that he had, at the ſame time, given the ſaid chapter to underſtand, that they ſhould undertake the government themſelves in the mean time, in the ſame manner as if the ſee were vacant.

If the elections of Munſter and Ahrenſberg are to be conſidered as mere formalities, the King was obliged on his part to purſue thoſe formalities which the then preſent circumſtance pointed out, to preſerve the general rights; and with this view his Majeſty cauſed the well-known proteſtation againſt the Munſter election, to be delivered to the ſtates of the Empire, which, by anticipation, alſo concerned the election of Ahrenſberg, in caſe ſuch ſhould take place.

His Majeſty does not the leſs approve the wiſe reſolution of his Imperial Majeſty to poſtpone the further ſteps which one or both of the chapters might wiſh to adopt with reſpect to the introduction of the Archduke Anthony; and if the buſineſs on both ſides is thus to remain in uncertainty, the King will in like manner abide by the preliminary meaſures which he has hitherto taken.

But even if his Majeſty were agreed on the laſt point with the court of Vienna, yet he could not grant his approbation to the principle of the maintenance of the three eccleſiaſtical electorates. This principle is in direct contradiction to thoſe which his Majeſty has at all times expreſſed in perfect agreement with the French government as one of the contracting powers, and which are founded on the contracts which are now to be put into execution.

In theſe is to be found the expreſs and eſſential determination, that the loſſes of the parties are to be made up by means of ſecularizations, and that in theſe the loſſes of the ſuffering parties muſt be reckoned.

1. According to the 7th article of the treaty of Luneville, the hereditary princes who have loſt their poſſeſſions, either in whole, or in part, on the left bank of the Rhine.

2. According to the 5th article of the ſame treaty, the Grand Duke of Tuſcany, and the Houſe of Orange, in which Pruſſia and France had enſured a ſuitable indemnity, by a convention concluded much earlier, on the 5th of Auguſt, 1796, which inconteſtably makes the rights and pretenſions of the Houſe of Orange equal to thoſe of Tuſcany. From the obligations contained in thoſe treaties, it follows, that the powers intereſted, muſt endeavour to regulate and to liquidate the maſs of the real loſs, and to bring it into proportion with the objects which

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are deſtined to produce an equivalent for the ſame. As the indemnification for the claimants, pointed out in the above-mentioned treaties muſt be complete, ſo muſt it be carefully examined before-hand, how far the maſs ariſing and preſenting itſelf out of the ſecularizations is ſufficient to indemnify the parties who have ſuſtained loſſes.

If, after a calculation made, funds ſufficient were found to raiſe or to reſtore one or more of the eccleſiaſtical ſees, to which the electoral dignity is applicable, the King, far from oppoſing it, would take meaſures to ſupport in this the wiſhes and views of his Imperial Majeſty; but it would be a contradiction in principle at this time, and before the maſs of the loſſes can be weighed againſt the maſs of the objects of indemnification, to decide beforehand, or to prereſolve on the maintenance of the preſent eccleſiaſtical electorates.

As the King is accuſtomed, in all his declarations to the court of Vienna, to be very free, ſo it is agreeable to him to ſtrengthen anew the principles which he ſhows in all his tranſactions, and which he has invariably laid down as the ground of his conduct. His Majeſty has therefore authorized the underſigned to lay them again before Count Stadion in the preſent note. He fulfils his duty, and repeats to the Count the aſſurance of his high conſideration.

(Signed) HAUGWITZ.

Armiſtice between the French Republic and his Majeſty the King of the Two Sicilies. Dated Foligno, Feb. 18, 1801.

PENETRATED with the ſentiments of moderation and generoſity of the French government, and with the marks of kindneſs which his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias does not ceaſe to ſhow towards the court of Naples; wiſhing, in fine, to put an end to the calamities of war between France and his Sicilian Majeſty, and to contribute on their part to a general peace:

I. An armiſtice ſhall take place between the armies of his Sicilian Majeſty and thoſe of the French republic, by land and ſea. All prizes, taken within ten days after the ſignature of the preſent treaty, to be reſtored.

II. The Neapolitan army is immediately to evacuate the Eccleſiaſtical Eſtates.

III. The French army ſhall keep its poſition on the banks of the Nova, not paſſing the confluence of that river with the Tiber.

IV. All the ports of the kingdom of Naples and Sicily ſhall be ſhut againſt all the Engliſh and Turkiſh ſhips of war and merchantmen, until a definitive peace between thoſe two powers. Such as ſhall come into the ſaid ports after the ſigning of the armiſtice, ſhall be obliged to depart within twenty-four hours after notification ſhall be given to them of that fact. The ſhips of war and merchant veſſels of the French republic, and its allies, ſhall enjoy, in the ports of the Two Sicilies, all the privileges granted to the moſt favoured nations.

V. Every communication between Porto Ferrajo and Longone is prohibited, as long as the Engliſh

liſh remain in poſſeſſion of the former port.

VI. All the French harbours during this truce ſhall be open to Neapolitan veſſels.

VII. The Turkiſh and Engliſh ſhips which may be in the ports of Naples and Sicily ſhall not be furniſhed with any military ſtores or proviſions, except neceſſaries for their ſubſiſtence on their route for their deſtination, which muſt be the next port. All exportation of grain, proviſions, and military ſtores, ſhall be prohibited to the Engliſh and Turks, and particularly for the iſland of Malta, by his Majeſty the King of the Two Sicilies, until a general peace.

VIII. The Citizen Dolomieu, the Generals Monſecourt and Dumas, are immediately to be ſet at liberty, with all the French made priſoners on their return from Egypt. All the Neapolitan priſoners are alſo to be ſet at large.

IX. All tribunals of rigour being aboliſhed within the realm of the Two Sicilies, his Majeſty engages, in his negotiations for a definitive peace, to ſtipulate for the intereſts of perſons detained in cuſtody, or who have emigrated, on account of their opinions.

X. This armiſtice is to laſt for thirty days, with ten days of its rupture.

XI. Plenipotentiaries are to be appointed for the purpoſe of further negotiation.

XII. Officers ſhall be named on either ſide to watch over the execution of the preſent treaty.

(Signed) MICHEROUX.
MURAT.

(A true Copy.) BERTHIER.

In conſequence of this treaty, and immediately after the publication of the patent articles, an embargo was laid upon the Engliſh veſſels in the ports of Sicily and the kingdom of Naples.

Treaty of Peace between the Firſt Conſul of the French Republic and his Majeſty the King of the Two Sicilies.

THE Firſt Conſul of the French republic, in the name of the French people, and his Majeſty the King of the Two Sicilies, equally animated with a deſire to put a definitive end to the war which exiſts between the two ſtates, have nominated for their plenipotentiaries, that is to ſay, the Firſt Conſul of the French republic, in the name of the French people, Citizen Charles Jean Marie Alquier; and his Sicilian Majeſty, the Sieur Antoine de Micheroux, knight of the royal order Conſtantinien de St. Georges, and of the Imperial Ruſſian order of St. Anne, of the firſt claſs, and colonel in the ſervice of his Majeſty, who, after having exchanged their full powers, have agreed to the following articles:

Art. I. There ſhall be peace, friendſhip, and good underſtanding between the French republic and his Majeſty the King of the Two Sicilies. All hoſtilities, by land and ſea, ſhall definitively ceaſe between the two powers, reckoning from the day of the exchange of the ratification of the preſent treaty; and, previouſly, the armiſtice concluded at Foligno on the 18th of February laſt, between the reſpective generals, ſhall receive its full and complete execution.

II. All

II. All acts, engagements, or anterior conventions, on the one part or the other of the two contracting powers, which may be contrary to the preſent treaty, are revoked, and ſhall be conſidered as null and void.

III. All the ports of the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily ſhall be ſhut to all ſhips of war and merchantmen Turkiſh and Engliſh, until the concluſion, as well of a definitive peace between the French republic and theſe two powers, as of the differences which have ariſen between England and the powers of the north of Europe, and particularly between Ruſſia and England.

The ſaid ports ſhall remain, on the contrary, open to all the ſhips of war and merchantmen, as well of his Imperial Majeſty of Ruſſia, and of the ſtates compriſed in the maritime neutrality of the North, as of the French republic and its allies. And if, in conſequence of this determination, his Majeſty the King of the Two Sicilies ſhould find himſelf expoſed to the attacks of the Turks, or the Engliſh, the French republic binds itſelf to place at the diſpoſal of his Majeſty, and upon his demand, to be employed in his ſtates, a number of troops equal to that which ſhall be ſent to him as an auxiliary force by his Imperial Majeſty of Ruſſia.

IV. His Majeſty, the King of the Two Sicilies, renounces, in perpetuity, for himſelf and his ſucceſſors, in the firſt place, Porto Longone, in the Iſle of Elba, and every thing belonging to it in that iſland. Secondly, the ſtates of the Preſides in Tuſcany; and he cedes them, as alſo the principality of Piombino, to the French government, to be by it diſpoſed of at its pleaſure.

V. The French republic and his Majeſty the King of the Two Sicilies, bind themſelves reciprocally to take off the ſequeſtration from all effects, revenues, and property, ſeized, confiſcated, or detained, from the citizens and ſubjects of the one or the other power, in conſequence of the preſent war, and to admit them reſpectively to the legal exerciſe of the rights and claims which may appertain to them.

VI. In order to remove every trace of the private calamities which have marked the preſent war, and to give peace, re-eſtabliſh the ſtability which can only be expected from a general oblivion of the paſt, the French republic renounces all perſecution in reſpect of facts of which it might complain; and the King, wiſhing, on his part, to contribute as much as in him lies to repair the evils occaſioned by the troubles which have taken place in his ſtates, binds himſelf to pay, within three months, reckoning from the day of the exchange of the preſent treaty, a ſum of 500,000 francs, which ſhall be diſtributed among the agents and French citizens who have been particularly the victims of the diſorders which have been produced at Naples, Viterbo, and in the other points of the ſouth of Italy, by the conduct of Neapolitans.

VII. His Sicilian Majeſty binds himſelf alſo to permit that all thoſe of his ſubjects who have not been proſecuted, baniſhed, or forced to expatriate themſelves voluntarily, but for acts relating to the reſidence of the French in the kingdom of Naples,

Naples, ſhall return without moleſtation to their country, and be reinſtated in their properties. His Majeſty alſo promiſes that all perſons now in cuſtody on account of political opinions which they have declared, ſhall be immediately ſet at liberty.

VIII. His Majeſty the King of the Two Sicilies binds himſelf to reſtore to the French republic the ſtatues, pictures, and other objects of the arts which have been carried off from Rome by the Neapolitan troops.

IX. The preſent treaty is declared common to the Batavian, Ciſalpine, and Ligurian republics.

X. The preſent treaty ſhall be ratified, and the ratifications exchanged in the ſpace of thirty days without delay.

Done and ſigned at Florence, the 7th Germinal, 9th year of the French republic, 28th March, 1801.

(Signed)

ALQUIER.

ANTOINE DE MICHEROUX.

Treaty between the French Republic and Spain, ſigned at Madrid, March 21, 1801, by the Prince of Peace and Citizen Lucien Bonaparte.

THE Firſt Conſul of the French republic, and his Catholic Majeſty, willing to eſtabliſh on the moſt ſecure footing, the ſtates which the ſon of the Infant of Parma is to receive as an equivalent for the dutchy of Parma, have agreed upon the following articles; and have named as their plenipotentiaries as follows: The Firſt Conſul names Citizen Lucien Bonaparte, the preſent ambaſſador of the French republic; and his Catholic Majeſty the Prince of Peace. Theſe have concluded the following articles:

Art. I. The reigning Duke of Parma renounces for ever, for himſelf and his heirs, the dutchy of Parma, with all its dependencies, in favour of the French republic, and his Catholic Majeſty ſhall guaranty this renunciation. The grand dutchy of Tuſcany, which the Grand Duke in the ſame manner renounces equally, and the ceſſion of which is guarantied by the Emperor of Germany, ſhall be given to the ſon of the Duke of Parma, as an indemnification for the countries ceded by the Infant his father, and in conſequence of another treaty concluded anteriorly between his Catholic Majeſty and the French republic.

II. The Prince of Parma will go to Florence, where he will be acknowledged ſovereign of all the poſſeſſions which belong to the grand dutchy, and receive from the conſtituted authorities the keys of the forts, and the oath of fidelity will be taken to him as ſovereign. The Firſt Conſul will exert his authority, in order that theſe acts may be peaceably executed.

III. The Prince of Parma will be acknowledged King, with all the honour due to his rank. The Firſt Conſul ſhall acknowledge him, and ſhall cauſe him to be ſo conſidered by the other powers of Europe. The meaſures neceſſary for this purpoſe ſhall be taken before the Prince takes poſſeſſion.

IV. The part of the Iſle of Elba which belongs to Tuſcany, and depends upon that ſtate, ſhall remain to the French republic; and the

First Conſul ſhall give as an indemnity to the King of Tuſcany the country of Piombino, which belongs to the King of Naples.

V. As this treaty originates from that which has been concluded between the Firſt Conſul and his Catholic Majeſty, and by which the King cedes to France the poſſeſſion of Louiſiana, the contracting parties agree to put in execution the articles of the former treaty, and to uſe their reſpective rights till the ſettlement of thoſe differences mentioned in it.

VI. As the new family to be eſtabliſhed in Tuſcany is of the family of Spain, theſe eſtates ſhall remain for ever united to Spain, and an Infant of that family ſhall be called to that throne, in caſe the preſent King or his children have no poſterity: in this caſe, the ſons of the reigning family of Spain ſhall ſucceed to theſe eſtates.

VII. The Firſt Conſul and his Catholic Majeſty agree to procure for the reigning Duke of Parma, in conſideration of this renunciation in favour of his ſon, proportionable indemnities, whether in poſſeſſions or revenues.

VIII. The preſent treaty ſhall be ratified and exchanged in the courſe of three weeks.

(Signed)

LUCIEN BONAPARTE.

THE PRINCE OF PEACE.

Proclamation of the King of Spain againſt Portugal.

SINCE I happily concluded a peace with the French republic, my principal care was to procure the ſame advantage to other powers, particularly thoſe which were connected with me by the ties of blood. The republic has been pleaſed to accept of my good offices for ſome, and my mediation for others. Since that period I made many attempts to procure for Portugal ſuch an advantageous peace as would place it in a ſtate of ſecurity. With this object I looked only to the happineſs of Portugal: my intention was to ſeparate it from England, to which, by its maritime ſituation, it afforded great advantages; and by theſe means to force the latter, if poſſible, to a peace, ſo much wiſhed for by all Europe, and which that power alone oppoſes. My reiterated advice was employed to overcome the repugnance of the Portugueſe court, influenced by that of London; was intended to induce it to enter into negotiations with the republic. Its plenipotentiary ſigned at Paris, in 1797, a treaty more advantageous to it than the reſpective ſituations of the two powers gave it reaſon to expect. In the mean time, England, ſeeing that it would ſnatch from it one of the moſt uſeful inſtruments of its ambitious views, redoubled its efforts; and amuſing the credulity of that cabinet by chimerical ideas of aggrandiſement, made it take the ſtrange reſolution of refuſing to ratify that treaty, thus fruſtrating all my hopes, and what would have been done by my potent intervention.

Since that time the conduct of that government has aſſumed a character more audacious; and, not contented with affording England, my enemy, all the means in its power of annoying me, as well as my ally, the French republic, it has proceeded to the extravagant

length

length of doing injury to my ſubjects, and failing in that reſpect due to me, by its obſtinate reſiſtance to my advice.

Thus does Europe behold with ſcandal, a ſecure aſylum offered in the ports of Portugal to the ſquadrons of the enemy, from which they are enabled to purſue, with advantage, hoſtilities againſt my veſſels, and thoſe of my ally, the French republic.

We have ſeen Portugueſe mixed with Engliſh ſhips, forming a part of their fleets, facilitating their proviſioning and their tranſports, and partaking in all thoſe acts of hoſtility which the Engliſh commit againſt me: we have ſeen their naval crews and their marine officers inſult the French, even in the port of Carthagena: Portugal authorized it by its refuſal to give ſuitable ſatisfaction, and by committing, at Ferrol, ſimilar exceſſes againſt my ſubjects. The ports of Portugal are the public market of the Spaniſh and French prizes made upon its coaſts, and in the ſight of its fortreſſes, by the ſquadrons of the enemy; while its Admiralty releaſes the prizes taken and led into the ſame ports by my ſubjects. My ſhips have never found a good reception in theſe ports. In the river Guadiana, the Portugueſe ſoldiers committed the moſt violent exceſſes againſt my peaceful ſubjects. They attacked and fired on them, as if they were in a ſtate of open war, without the Portugueſe government attempting to give any ſatisfaction; in a word, Portugal, under the appearance of friendſhip, has conſtantly acted againſt my kingdoms in Europe, and in the Indies; and the evidence of its conduct muſt render unneceſſary the recital of the numerous facts which might be alleged in ſupport of theſe charges. What conduct had I to obſerve in the midſt of ſo many outrages? The French republic, juſtly irritated againſt Portugal, is deſirous of inflicting a juſt vengeance upon it, and its victorious arms would have long ſince ſpread deſolation through its provinces, if my fraternal affection for the Moſt Faithful Queen and her auguſt children had not ſuſpended the blow with which it was threatened by my ally the republic. My mediation has always prevented the progreſs of the French. My paternal care for theſe provinces making me forget all preceding grievances, and all the freſh ones which I had to complain of, induced me to endeavour to divert the ſucceſſes of the French armies, and to obtain an advantageous peace. I ſtrongly repreſented to the court of Portugal the dangers to which it expoſed itſelf, in the openneſs of my heart; I employed the moſt engaging language of paternal tenderneſs and friendſhip, to induce its determination.

The obſtinacy of Portugal ſoon obliged me to uſe harſher language. I tried by rational advice, by menaces of my wrath, and by reſpectable channels of expoſtulation, to recall it to its duties. The court of Portugal, however, deaf to all I could ſay, only ſought to gain time by vain promiſes, ſeveral times ſending plenipotentiaries without powers, or with limited powers, and uſing all thoſe methods of delay, and all thoſe ſubterfuges, dictated by a fallacious and verſatile policy. The blindneſs of the Prince Regent has gone ſo far as to name his ally, the King of Great Britain,

Britain, in a letter which he addreſſed to me, forgetful of what is due to the conſanguinity which unites us; to the reſpect that is due to me; and giving the name of alliance to what is no more than the abuſe of that aſcendency which England has arrogated over his country.

Having thus exhauſted all the means of conciliation, after having perfectly ſatisfied all the claims of kindred and of attachment to the Prince of Portugal; convinced of the inability of my endeavours; ſeeing that the Prince Regent evaded the royal promiſe which he ſo often made in favour of peace, in various circumſtances; and, in complaiſance to England, my enemy, abuſed thoſe promiſes which I made to France; I have determined that a longer toleration on my part would be injurious to the welfare of my people, and my ſubjects attacked in their rights and property by an unjuſt aggreſſor; that it would be forgetting the dignity of my rank toward a prince who was willing to forego thoſe ties of blood which connected him with me; that it would be a want of fidelity towards my ally, the French republic, which ſuſpended its vengeance out of its regard for me; and, in fine, that it would be in oppoſition to thoſe principles of ſound policy which direct my operations as a ſovereign.

Nevertheleſs, before taking the painful reſolution of war, I wiſhed to renew, for the laſt time, my propoſitions to her Moſt Faithful Majeſty. I have ordered my ambaſſador, the Duke de Fryas, that in reſpect to delays of the negotiations, he ſhould explain to her the inconvenience and injuſtice of her conduct; the abyſs which ſhe is threatened to be involved in, and the only means of eſcaping by the treaty which France ſtill, on account of my mediation, has agreed to accept. The court of Portugal anſwered in the uſual manner, and ſent a negotiator with inſufficient powers, at the ſame time that it rejected my propoſitions. Thus, as it is of importance to the tranquillity of all Europe to force that power to make peace with France, and to ſecure my dear ſubjects the remuneration to which they are entitled, I have ordered my ambaſſador to quit Liſbon; I have given a paſſport to the Portugueſe ambaſſador at my court to depart, being decided, though with regret, to attack that power, by the union of my forces with thoſe of the republic, whoſe cauſe is become the ſame by the imprudent negotiation in which I engaged myſelf, by our connexions in point of intereſt, and in order to avenge the particular inſults that have been offered to me. For this purpoſe I declare war againſt her Moſt Faithful Majeſty, her kingdom and ſubjects, wiſhing this reſolution to be known through all my ſtates, in order that all convenient meaſures may be taken for the defence of my ſtates and my ſhips, as alſo to attack my enemies.

Done at Aranjuez, February 27, 1801.

Proclamation publiſhed at Liſbon prior to April 26, 1801.

CLERGY, Nobility, and People! you all know that the prince who governs us, and for whom we are indebted to Providence,

dence, endeavours, without ceasing, to procure by every means of justice and loyalty, for his subjects, whom he loves as his own children, the calm and tranquillity necessary to their happiness, in the midst of all the agitations of which Europe has been the prey. An active vigilance, a firm and imposing justice, has secured to the Portuguese the repose which they have enjoyed since 1790. This state, continuing free, while so many countries were subjugated, presents to Europe the example of a scrupulous fidelity in the fulfilment of all its promises to foreign nations. It has given to Spain a recent example of its good faith in the observance of treaties; a Portuguese army marched in 1793 to succour her, and the support which she received from our august sovereign was rather determined by the want of that power than other circumstances. Whoever has done his duty has nothing to fear, and founds upon rigid justice his right to gratitude; yet though Spain ought to be, in all cases, the first power to show itself sensible of the sentiment and generous conduct of Portugal, it is she, who, in terminating her war against France, has not only compromised the nation that succoured her, but declared war against it for having remained faithful to its treaties. She pretends that those who were sworn in the presence of God and man, should at once violate their oath, and that the august prince and nation should become perjured. This would be enough to rouse your patriotism; but there are farther powerful motives to animate you. It is sought to degrade you, to debase you by reducing you to mere suppliants for your commerce. Spain demands that our ports should be guarded by her troops as a security for our fidelity. A nation which knew how to resist the Romans, to conquer Asia, discover a passage upon the seas, to break, when she was still weak, the hereditary yoke of a foreign sceptre; to recover and maintain her independence; this nation, I say, ought now to recollect the honourable facts of its history. Portuguese, we will still preserve the courage and the sentiments of honour transmitted to us by our ancestors. Justice is on our side; the true God, propitious to our cause, will punish by our arms the injuries done by our enemies; he will crown with glory our generals and legitimate sovereign. Our zeal, the equity of our cause, the remembrance of our exploits, secure us victory.

Treaty between Spain and Portugal.

AS the object which his Catholic Majesty had in view, and which he considered as necessary for the general good of Europe, when he declared war against Portugal, is obtained, his Majesty has resolved, after conferences had, to restore and renew the bonds of friendship and good understanding by means of a treaty of peace; and the plenipotentiaries of the three belligerent powers having met together, have agreed to conclude two treaties, which in their essential parts will be but one, as the guarantee will be interchangeable, and will cease with respect to both when either shall be infringed. To carry into full effect this important object, his Catholic

Majesty

Majeſty the King of Spain, and his Royal Highneſs the Prince of Portugal and Algarve, have granted their full powers, as follows: namely, his Catholic Majeſty the King of Spain, to his Excellency Don Manuel de Godoy Alvarez de Faria Rios Sanches y Zargoza, Prince of Peace, lieutenant of Alcudia, lord of Soto di Roma, and of the diſtricts of Albala, count of Everamonto, grandee of Spain of the firſt claſs, perpetual governor of the city of Madrid, and of the towns of Santiago, Cadiz, Malaga, and Ecija, knight of the illuſtrious order of the Golden Fleece, Grand Croſs of the diſtinguiſhed Spaniſh order of Charles III. commander of Valencia, del Ventoſo, Rivera, &c. Grand Croſs of the order of St. John, counſellor of ſtate, chamberlain, generaliſſimo, and captain-general of the armies of his Catholic Majeſty, and colonel-general of the Swiſs troops, &c.; and his Royal Highneſs the Regent of Portugal and Algarve, to his Excellency Louis Pinto de Souza Contintro, Counſellor of ſtate, Grand Croſs of the order of Aviz, knight of the illuſtrious order of the Golden Fleece, miniſter and ſecretary of ſtate for the affairs of the kingdom, and lieutenant-general of its armies; who, after having exchanged and verified their full powers in good and proper form, have concluded and ſigned, according to the orders and intentions of their ſovereigns, the following articles:

Art. I. There ſhall be peace, amity, and good underſtanding between his Catholic Majeſty the King of Spain, and the Prince Regent of Portugal and Algarve, as well by ſea as land, through the whole extent of their kingdoms and poſſeſſions; and all captures which ſhall be made by ſea, after the ratification of the preſent treaty, ſhall be faithfully reſtored, with all their goods and effects, or their reſpective value paid.

II. His Royal Highneſs will ſhut the ports of his whole territories againſt the ſhips of Great Britain in general.

III. His Catholic Majeſty will reſtore to his Royal Highneſs the fortreſſes and places Gurumena, Aronches, Portalegri, Caſtel Davide, Barbaamar Camp, Major and Ouguela, with all the territories hitherto conquered by his arms, or which may hereafter be conquered, with all their artillery, fire-arms, or other warlike ſtores, and in the ſame condition in which they were ſurrendered to him; and his Catholic Majeſty will take as a conqueſt the fortreſs of Olivenza, with its territory and inhabitants from the Guadiana, and unite the ſame for ever to his own territory and ſubjects, as that river above mentioned ſhall be the boundary of the reſpective kingdoms on that part.

IV. His Royal Highneſs the Prince Regent of Portugal and Algarve will not permit any depôts of prohibited and contraband goods, which may be prejudicial to the intereſts of the crown of Spain, to be formed on the frontiers of his kingdom, excluſive of ſuch as appertain to the revenues of the crown of Portugal, or are neceſſary for the conſumption of the reſpective territories in which they are eſtabliſhed; and if this

or any other article ſhall not be maintained, the treaty which is now concluded between the three powers, including the interchangeable guarantee, ſhall be null and void, as is expreſſed in the articles of the preſent treaty.

V. His Royal Highneſs will immediately repair and make good all damages or injuries which the ſubjects of his Catholic Majeſty may have ſuſtained during the preſent war, from the ſhips of Great Britain or the ſubjects of the court of Portugal, and for which they can rightfully claim indemnification; and in like manner his Catholic Majeſty engages to make ſuitable ſatisfaction for all captures which may have been made by the Spaniards before the preſent war, in violation of, or within cannon-ſhot of the Portugueſe territory.

VI. Within the ſpace of three months, reckoning from the ratification of the preſent treaty, his Royal Highneſs will pay to the Treaſury of his Catholic Majeſty the expenſes left unpaid when they withdrew from the war with France, and which were occaſioned by the ſame, according to the eſtimate given in by the ambaſſador of his Catholic Majeſty, or which may be given in anew; with the exception, however, of any error that may be found in the ſaid eſtimates.

VII. As ſoon as the preſent treaty ſhall be ſigned, all hoſtilities ſhall ceaſe on both ſides within twenty-four hours, without any contributions or requiſitions being laid after that time on any of the conquered places, except ſuch as may be allowed to friendly troops in time of peace; and as ſoon as this treaty ſhall be ratified, the Spaniſh troops ſhall leave the Portugueſe territory within ſix days, and ſhall begin their march within ſix hours after receiving notice, without offering any violence or injury to the inhabitants in their way; and they ſhall pay for whatever may be neceſſary for them, according to the current price of the country.

VIII. All priſoners which may have been taken by ſea and land, ſhall, within fifteen days after the ratification of the preſent treaty, be ſet at liberty and delivered up on both ſides; and, at the ſame time, all debts which they may have contracted during their impriſonment, ſhall be paid. The ſick and wounded ſhall remain in the reſpective hoſpitals, there to be taken care of, and in like manner delivered up as ſoon as they ſhall be able to begin their march.

IX. His Catholic Majeſty engages to guarantee to his Royal Highneſs the Prince Regent of Portugal the entire poſſeſſion of all his ſtates and poſſeſſions, without the leaſt exception or reſerve.

X. The two high contracting parties engage to renew the treaty of defenſive alliance which exiſted between the two monarchies, but with ſuch clauſes and alterations as the connexions entered into by the Spaniſh monarchy with the French republic may demand; and in the ſame treaty ſhall be regulated what aid ſhall be mutually afforded, ſhould neceſſity require.

XI. The preſent treaty ſhall be ratified within ten days after it is ſigned, or ſooner, if poſſible.

In

In witneſs of this, we, the underſigned miniſters plenipotentiary, have ſubſcribed the preſent treaty with our own hands, and ſealed it with our arms.

(L. S.)
The PRINCE of PEACE.
(L. S.)
LOUIS PINTO DI SOUZA.
Done at Badajos, June 6, 1801.

Treaty of Peace between the French Republic and the Kingdom of Portugal.

THE Firſt Conſul of the French republic, in the name of the French people, and his Royal Highneſs the Prince Regent of the kingdom of Portugal and of Algarva, equally animated with a deſire of re-eſtabliſhing the connexions of commerce and amity, which ſubſiſted between the two ſtates before the preſent war, have reſolved to conclude a treaty of peace by the mediation of his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, and for this purpoſe have named as their plenipotentiaries, viz. the Firſt Conſul of the French republic, in the name of the French people, Citizen Lucien Bonaparté; and his Royal Highneſs the Prince Regent of the kingdom of Portugal and of Algarva, his Excellency Cyprian Ribeiro Freire, commander, of the Order of Chriſt, member of his Royal Highneſs's council, and miniſter plenipotentiary to his Moſt Catholic Majeſty; which plenipotentiaries, after exchanging their reciprocal powers, have agreed upon the following articles.

Art. I. There ſhall in future and for ever be a peace, amity, and good underſtanding, between the French republic and the kingdom of Portugal; all hoſtilities ſhall ceaſe by land as well as by ſea, dating from the exchange of the ratification of the preſent treaty, viz. in fifteen days for Europe, and the ſeas which waſh its coaſt; and thoſe of Africa on this ſide the equator, forty days after the ſaid exchange for the countries and ſeas of Africa and America, beyond the equator; and three months after, for the countries and ſeas ſituated to the weſt of Cape Horn, and to the eaſt of the Cape of Good Hope. All prizes made after each of theſe periods in the ſeas to which they apply, ſhall be reſpectively reſtored. The Priſoners of war ſhall be given up on both ſides, and the political relations between the two powers ſhall be re-eſtabliſhed on the ſame footing as before the war.

II. All the ports and harbours of Portugal, in Europe, ſhall be immediately ſhut, and ſhall remain ſo till peace between France and England, to all Engliſh ſhips of war and merchantmen; and the ſame ports and harbours ſhall be open to all ſhips of war or merchantmen belonging to France or its allies.

In regard to the ports and harbours of Portugal, in the other parts of the world, the preſent article ſhall be obligatory, according to the terms above fixed, for the ceſſation of hoſtilities.

III. Portugal engages, not to furniſh during the courſe of the preſent war to the enemies of the French republic, and its allies, any aid in troops, ſhips, arms, warlike ammunition, proviſions or money, under whatever name or

denomination. Every anterior act, engagement, or convention, which may be contrary to the preſent article, ſhall be revoked, and ſhall be conſidered as null and void.

IV. The limits between the two Guianas, the French and Portugueſe, ſhall be determined in future by the river Carapanatuba, which empties itſelf into the Amazon, at about one third of a degree of the equator above Fort Macapa. Theſe limits ſhall follow the courſe of the river to its ſource, whence they ſhall proceed towards the great chain of mountains which divides the waters; they ſhall follow the inflections of that chain to the point where it approaches neareſt the Rio-Branco, towards about $2\frac{1}{3}$ degrees north of the equator.

The Indians of the two Guianas, who in the courſe of the war may have been taken from their habitations, ſhall be reſpectively reſtored.

The citizens or ſubjects of the two powers, who may find themſelves comprehended in the new determined limits, may reciprocally retire into the poſſeſſions of their reſpective ſtates: they ſhall have power alſo to diſpoſe of their property, moveable and immoveable, during the ſpace of two years, dating from the exchange of the ratifications of the preſent treaty.

V. There ſhall be negotiated between the two powers a treaty of commerce and navigation, which ſhall definitively fix the commercial relations between France and Portugal. In the mean time it is agreed:

1ſt. That the communications ſhall be re-eſtabliſhed immediately after the exchange of the ratifications, and that the agencies and commiſſaries of commerce ſhall be put in poſſeſſion of the rights, immunities, and prerogatives, which they enjoyed before the war.

2d. That the citizens and ſubjects of the two powers ſhall equally and reſpectively enjoy in the ſtates of both all the rights which are enjoyed by the ſubjects of the moſt favoured nations.

3d. That the articles of trade and commerce, the produce of the ſoil, or manufactories of each of the two ſtates, ſhall be reciprocally admitted without reſtriction, and without their being ſubjected to any duty which ſhall not bear equally upon analogous articles imported by other nations.

4th. That French cloths may be immediately introduced into Portugal, on the footing of the moſt favoured merchandiſes.

5th. All ſtipulations in regard to commerce, inſerted in preceding treaties, and not contrary to the preſent treaty, ſhall be proviſionally until the concluſion of a definitive treaty.

VI. The ratifications of the preſent treaty of peace ſhall be exchanged at Madrid, within the term of twenty days at moſt.

Done, in duplicate, at Madrid, 29th Sept. 1801.

(Signed)

LUCIEN BONAPARTE.

CYPRIANA BIBEIRO FREIRE.

The

The Declaration of the 16th of Auguſt 1800, by which his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias invited Sweden, Denmark, and Pruſſia, to concert reſpecting the Convention for re-eſtabliſhing the Rights of Neutrality.

EUROPE had made known the unanimous approbation it gave to the meaſures taken by the greater part of the maritime powers, for eſtabliſhing the principles of a wiſe and impartial neutrality, when in 1780 a maritime war between two great powers impoſed on the reſt the duty of watching over the ſafety of the commerce and navigation of their ſubjects. This act, founded on juſtice, muſt have been generally approved; and it was then only that the baſis of the rights of nations was re-eſtabliſhed. Ruſſia at this time had the valuable advantage of bringing to a concluſion this ſalutary work, and of becoming, as it were, the regulator of the different meaſures to be purſued in order to conciliate univerſal reſpect. Each of the powers which wiſhed to accede to it, found in it innumerable advantages; and Ruſſia took this arrangement as the baſis of all future treaties of commerce; univerſal ſuffrage had made it a form of code for nations, as it was alſo the code of humanity: general intereſt ſecured the maintenance and execution of it.

But at the epoch of the diſſolution of a great power, when the fatal influence of that event made itſelf be felt by all others, when all political ties were broken, or received a new direction in the war which was the reſult of it (a war ſo different from all others, ſo fertile in variegated and extraordinary events, which deſtroyed all preceding combinations), too little care was taken to give a new ſanction to theſe principles: when the public attention was, as it were, abſorbed by events of ſuch high intereſt, it could not be directed with ſufficient conſtancy towards the means of enforcing a ſtrict obſervation of theſe ſalutary ſtipulations. Beſides, the equity of the belligerent powers muſt have offered means of preſervation, and neutral nations thought they were aſſured of a ſufficient guarantee, which would enſure reſpect to their commerce, and to their navigation at leaſt, on the part of the regular powers, when a new event ſhowed them how much the independence of crowns might be endangered, if they neglected to re-eſtabliſh the principles and maxims on which the protection and ſafety of the neutral powers reſt in the courſe of this war.

On the 13th and 25th of July, ſome Engliſh frigates fell in with, in the Channel, a Daniſh frigate, convoying ſome Daniſh veſſels bound for different ports. Though the Daniſh captain declared that his convoy had no contraband merchandiſe on board, and though he refuſed to ſuffer them to be ſearched, he was attacked and obliged to yield to ſuperior forces. He was immediately conducted into an Engliſh port.

The firſt care of his Daniſh Majeſty, a friend and ally of his

Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias, was to inform this ſovereign of that event, and to aſk, under what point of view ſo manifeſt an infraction of the rights of nations, and the principles of neutrality, the baſis of the treaty of commerce between Ruſſia and Denmark, was to be viewed?

Though his Imperial Majeſty was then perſuaded that this infraction on the part of his Britannic Majeſty could be only the effect of a miſtake, that he would be as ready to diſavow it, as inclined to give to the court of Copenhagen a juſt ſatisfaction for the inſult offered to his flag; his Imperial Majeſty then foreſaw, for the purpoſe of preventing ſuch acts in future, the neceſſity of re-eſtabliſhing the principles of the neutrality, under the protection of which his own ſubjects, as well as thoſe of all the neutral powers, might enjoy the fruits of their induſtry, and the advantages of neutral nations in all the ſeas, without being afterwards expoſed to arbitrary meaſures, which none of the belligerent powers are permitted to exerciſe againſt them with impunity.

As the manifeſt intereſt of his Imperial Majeſty, both in regard to the navigation of his own ſubjects, and that of his ports bordering on other nations, requires that the ſeas which waſh the coaſts of the Ruſſian empire ſhould be ſheltered from ſuch acts of violence, he invites the powers who poſſeſs ports in theſe diſtricts, and particularly his Majeſty the King of Pruſſia, his Majeſty the King of Denmark, and his Majeſty the King of Sweden, to concert with his Imperial Majeſty reſpecting meaſures which will be ſucceſſively communicated to them for re-eſtabliſhing in their full force the principles of an armed neutrality, to ſecure the liberty of the ſeas. He makes known by the preſent declaration, that he is diſpoſed to employ all the forces of his crown, to maintain the honour of his flag, and that of his allies; to ſecure his ſubjects from every infraction of thoſe rights, reſpected by all nations; and to procure to them, under the protection of their reſpective governments, the advantages of the liberty of commerce and navigation.

His Imperial Majeſty declares, with the ſame ſpirit of candour and impartiality, that, in forming a rule for the exact obſervation of the rights of neutrality, he has no intention of infringing any one; and that the meaſures he will in his wiſdom purſue, and the conduct of his officers and commanders, will be guided by ſuch views of rigorous juſtice, that the belligerent powers ſhall not be able to deny the neceſſity, as well as the beneficence of the intentions by which they have been dictated.

By the expreſs order of his Imperial Majeſty, his miniſter addreſſes the preſent declaration to his Excellency Baron de Stedink, the ambaſſador extraordinary of his Majeſty the King of Sweden, with a requeſt that it may be immediately communicated to his court.

(Signed) COUNT ROSTOPCHIN.
COUNT PANIN.

Proclamation

Proclamation of his Imperial Majeſty, Emperor of all the Ruſſias, &c. &c. &c.

WHEREAS it has been repreſented by many ſubjects of Ruſſia, that large ſums of money are due to them from Engliſh merchants reſident in Ruſſia, and that payment of ſuch debts cannot be obtained; his Imperial Majeſty's College of Commerce at St. Peterſburgh, by virtue of powers veſted in them, for the purpoſe of promoting an adjuſtment and liquidation of the debts due to the Ruſſian merchants from the Engliſh merchants, have appointed and ordained an eſpecial commiſſion, or board of commiſſioners, for managing Engliſh property, and they direct the ſaid board to be conſtituted, and their operations and proceedings to be guided by the following regulations:

I. It ſhall conſiſt of two Ruſſian, two Engliſh, and two merchants of other nations, all of whom ſhall be men of known good character, and the Engliſh ſhall be choſen or ſelected by the Engliſh merchants, to whom ſhall be added one of the members of the Imperial College of Commerce in St. Peterſburgh.

II. All matters that come under their cognizance, ſhall be adjuſted conformably to the accuſtomed rules and eſtabliſhed uſage in trade: they are to decide amongſt themſelves, by a majority of votes, upon matters under diſcuſſion; but in caſe of any points involving the intereſts of the Ruſſian commerce, the opinion of his Imperial Majeſty's counſellor of the College of Commerce is to ſuperſede the majority of votes, ſubject, however, to the concurrence of the College of Commerce.

III. Every Britiſh merchant reſident in Ruſſia, without excepting ſuch as have ſubſcribed themſelves viſitors, ſhall deliver to the commiſſioners, in writing, a ſtatement of all the balances of accounts in their books, and a ſchedule of effects and goods in their poſſeſſion: and they ſhall, when required, deliver to the commiſſioners their books of accounts out of their accompting houſes.

IV. Every Ruſſian ſubject, who has any claim or demand upon an Engliſhman, of whatever nature or kind it may be, or who is indebted to a Britiſh ſubject, ſhall tranſmit an account of the particulars of ſuch debts or claims to the commiſſioners, within four months from the date of the publication of this ordinance in the newſpapers; and in default thereof, the commiſſioners are not to take cognizance of any claims after that period.

V. The commiſſioners are to diſpoſe of all Engliſh effects now ſequeſtrated, and to receive all balances of accounts, and to bring the whole into one general maſs.*

VI. The Ruſſian ſubjects ſhall receive out of the fund of the Engliſh property (collected as before directed), after admiſſion of the validity and juſtneſs of the claimants, an equal dividend upon their reſpective demands, and full ſatisfaction.

VII. In caſe the fund of Eng-

* Similar to a bankrupt's effects.

liſh

liſh property does not prove adequate to the demands of the Ruſſian creditors; or that there ſhall remain a ſurplus, then the reſult ſhall be communicated to the College of Commerce at St. Peterſburgh.

VIII. The commiſſioners ſhall not be accountable or reſponſible for their deciſions, nor ſhall there be any appeal from their determinations, either by petition or in any other way, on any account whatever.

IX. To defray the expenſe and management of the board of commiſſioners, and for the ſalary of their clerks and agents, both debtors and creditors, ſhall allow them one half per cent. upon the amount of the reſpective ſums brought under their conſideration.

St. Peterſburgh, the 17th November 1800.

Firſt Note of Lord Carysfort to Count Haugwitz.

Berlin, Nov. 16, 1800.

THE inſtant Lord Carysfort, envoy extraordinary and miniſter plenipotentiary of his Britannic Majeſty, learned that his Pruſſian Majeſty was preparing to order a detachment of his troops to enter Cuxhaven, and that the reaſon which the public thought proper to aſſign for that meaſure, was the refuſal given by the government of Hamburgh, to cauſe a veſſel to be releaſed, which, taken by one of the ſhips of war of his Britannic Majeſty, had been compelled, in order to avoid the dangers of the ſea, to enter that port, he thought it his duty to demand an audience of his Excellency Count Haugwitz, miniſter of ſtate and of the cabinet, for the purpoſe of obtaining information with reſpect to that affair.

He received from his Excellency the aſſurance that the intentions of his Pruſſian Majeſty, were in no view hoſtile or contrary to the intereſts of Great Britain; but that the occupation of Cuxhaven had for its principal object the maintenance of the authority of his Pruſſian Majeſty, in his character of chief and protector of the neutrality of the north of Germany, and that it was conducted with the conſent of the city of Hamburgh itſelf.

Lord Carysfort not being exactly acquainted with the circumſtances under which the veſſel in queſtion found itſelf, deferred to another occaſion, the obſervations which he might have wiſhed to ſubmit to his Excellency. He has now grounds to believe, that, laden with contraband goods, it was captured by one of his Britannic Majeſty's ſhips as it was entering into the Texel; that is to ſay, into a port belonging to the enemies of his Majeſty; and that it was reſtored as ſoon as the officer who had the charge of it could be informed of the orders of his ſuperiors.

With reſpect to the occupation of the town of Cuxhaven by the Pruſſian troops, which muſt have been founded on particular conventions between his Pruſſian Majeſty and the Senate of Hamburgh, he does not think himſelf called upon to take part in that diſcuſſion; but he feels himſelf authorized to claim, in favour of the ſubjects and veſſels of the King his maſter, all the rights to which they have a juſt pretenſion in a neutral

neutral port belonging to a republic, whoſe connexions with the ſtates of his Majeſty are very ancient, and generally known; no convention made between the city of Hamburgh and his Pruſſian Majeſty being capable of invalidating or altering his rights.

In conſequence of theſe conſiderations he dares hope that his Pruſſian Majeſty may ſtill ſuſpend the occupation of Cuxhaven, until the two courts ſhall have the means of entering into mutual explanations, more particularly ſince ſuch occupation, in the actual circumſtances, might give room to illdiſpoſed minds to attribute to his Pruſſian Majeſty views not leſs oppoſite to the ſentiments of juſtice and moderation which govern all his meaſures, than to the friendſhip and the good harmony which ſubſiſt between him and his Britannic Majeſty.

At all events, it will not eſcape the wiſdom and humanity of his Majeſty, that the entrance of a numerous corps of troops into a village both poor and with a ſmall extent of territory, would probably augment the miſery of the inhabitants; and that the city of Hamburgh having always poſſeſſed that place, ſo indiſpenſably neceſſary to the preſervation of the navigation of the Elbe, all which may trouble that poſſeſſion, derange ancient cuſtoms, and influence the pilots there at preſent to ſeek a refuge elſewhere, would ſtrike a ſenſible blow at the commerce of all the countries of the north of Germany, and even at that of the ſtates of his Pruſſian Majeſty.

(Signed)

CARYSFORT.

Second Note, from the ſame.

Berlin, November 18, 1800.

THE underſigned, extraordinary envoy and miniſter plenipotentiary of his Britannic Majeſty, thinks himſelf obliged again to addreſs himſelf to his Excellency Count Haugwitz, relative to the intention of his Pruſſian Majeſty, in taking military poſſeſſion of Cuxhaven. When the underſigned had the honour of tranſmitting to his Excellency the verbal note of the 16th, it was not exactly known "that the Pruſſian veſſel brought into that port had been reſtored." The fact being now certain, as well as the zeal manifeſted by the Senate of Hamburgh to fulfil the wiſhes of the King; the ſurpriſe and conſternation excited from the moment when the orders for marching a detachment of troops were known, would be raiſed to their utmoſt height, if it were aſcertained, that, notwithſtanding the complete ſatisfaction given to his Pruſſian Majeſty on all the points reſpecting which he thought proper to complain, he ſhould not appear leſs attached to his determination of cauſing Cuxhaven to be occupied by his troops. In fact, it appears at firſt ſight that this occupation would be ſo calculated to give the moſt ſerious alarms to all commercial nations, that, without alluding to the interpretations which calumny might be deſirous of giving to the meaſure, ſtrong hopes are entertained, from the juſtice and moderation of his Pruſſian Majeſty, for that reaſon only, that he will not come to the reſolution of carrying it into effect.

The underſigned would not, however,

ever, think he had executed his duty, ſhould he neglect to repreſent to his Excellency the lively alarms which neceſſarily reſult from the uncertainty in which the affair remains. The reiterated aſſurances which the underſigned has received from his Excellency of the friendſhip and good wiſhes of his Pruſſian Majeſty towards the King of Great Britain, do not allow him to believe that any miſunderſtanding can ariſe between the two courts; but he cannot avoid thinking that the enemies of humanity and public tranquillity will endeavour to turn to their purpoſes the alarm which is generally diffuſed, in order to ſcatter diſcord among the powers, which will all unite and maintain the ſafety and independence of Europe at large.

(Signed) CARYSFORT.

Anſwer of Count Haugwitz.

THE underſigned, miniſter of ſtate and of the cabinet, is authorized by the orders of the King to completely tranquillize the anxieties and apprehenſions which my Lord Carysfort, envoy extraordinary and miniſter plenipotentiary of his Britannic Majeſty, expreſſed to him in his two notes of the 16th and 18th of November. The Pruſſian veſſel the Triton has, it is true, been reſtored to its owner; but the mode of releaſe was in every reſpect as irregular as the proceedings which had previouſly taken place with reſpect to it; and after an examination of all the circumſtances relative to the incident which forms the ſubject of complaint, there appears throughout the whole a manifeſt infraction of the principles of the neutrality of the north of Germany. It is this ſuperior conſideration, added to the unjuſt refuſal of the magiſtracy of Hamburgh, which dictated to the King the reſolution of cauſing a body of his troops to occupy the port of Cuxhaven, and the bailiwick of Ritzebuttle. This meaſure was executed the moment it was determined upon, and it is no longer capable of being revoked, the example of what has taken place, impoſing on his Majeſty the neceſſity of effectually watching over the maintenance of that neutrality which he has guarantied to his co-eſtates. The King cannot imagine that his Britannic Majeſty, after participating, in his character of Elector of Hanover, in the advantages and benefits of this happy neutrality, can conceive the ſmalleſt alarm at ſeeing a Pruſſian garriſon enter into the port which England has fixed on as her point of communication with the north of Germany. Being thus placed under the immediate guarantee of the King, it will be the more effectually put out of the reach of all violation, and the troops of his Majeſty will have no other duty to perform than that of cauſing the laws of good order and equity to be reſpected. The utmoſt confidence may be placed in the prudent diſpoſitions of the reigning Duke of Brunſwick, who is inveſted with the command of the line of demarcation.

But, if more particular aſſurances be requiſite upon this ſubject, the King feels a pleaſure in giving them by the preſent communication to his Britannic Majeſty, and in declaring to him, in expreſs and poſitive terms, that the preſent order of things will in no reſpect interrupt

interrupt the freedom of commerce and navigation in the port of Cuxhaven; nor, above all, the continuation of the correſpondence with England. On the contrary, the officer commanding the troops of the King garriſoned in the bailiwick of Ritzebuttle, will make it his duty to give it every poſſible facility.

On the whole, the proceeding which the King has, from neceſſity, been obliged to follow, does not admit of any equivocal interpretation. It has no other object than the maintenance of the ſyſtem of which he is the author and defender; and this object ſhall not be exceeded. His views and conduct have procured him the confidence of all Europe, and they never will be found inconſiſtent; and though it is not to be anticipated that the other powers will be diſpoſed to miſconceive the purity of his views in the preſent caſe, yet his Majeſty reſerves to himſelf the privilege of explaining himſelf further and in a ſuitable manner to thoſe who may be entitled to ſuch explanation.

(Signed) HAUGWITZ.

Convention of Sweden and Ruſſia, for the Re-eſtabliſhment of an armed Neutrality, between his Majeſty the King of Sweden, of the one Part, and his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias, on the other Part; concluded and ſigned at St. Peterſburgh, the 4th (16th) of December, 1800; accepted and ratified by his Swediſh Majeſty on the 20th of December, and by his Imperial Majeſty of all the Ruſſias on the 8th (20th) December, in the ſame Year.

In the Name of the moſt Holy and undivided Trinity.

IN order that the freedom of navigation, and the ſecurity of the merchandize of the neutral powers, may be eſtabliſhed, and the principles of the laws of nations be fully aſcertained, during the continuance of the preſent maritime war, his Majeſty the King of Sweden, and his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias, actuated by their love of juſtice, and by a reciprocal deſire to promote whatever may be for the public advantage of their reſpective ſtates, have to that effect determined to give a new ſanction to thoſe principles of their neutrality, which are in their nature indiſſoluble, and require that it may be reſpected by all powers intereſted in their preſervation. With this view, their Majeſties have, by their declaration of the 15th Auguſt to the northern courts, who are equally concerned in the maintenance of thoſe general regulations anciently recognized, given them to underſtand how ſincerely it is the object of their hearts to reſtore, in its full independence, the right of all nations to convey their ſhips and merchandize freely, and without being ſubject to the controul of the powers at war. His Swediſh Majeſty imparted his wiſhes and his ſentiments to his great allies, and an happy conformity of their mutual intereſts has induced them to adopt the reſolution of re-eſtabliſhing that ſyſtem of an armed neutrality, which was attended with ſuch advantages during the American war, and to renew its beneficial principles in a convention adapted to the preſent circumſtances. To this end, his Majeſty the King of Sweden, and

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his Imperial Majeſty of all the Ruſſias, have nominated, as their plenipotentiaries, namely, his Swediſh Majeſty, Baron Count Von Stedingk, ambaſſador extraordinary to his Imperial Majeſty of all the Ruſſias, lieutenant-general chamberlain of the Queen dowager, colonel of a regiment of infantry, knight, and commander of the Order of the Sword, and knight of the French Order *Pour les Merites Militaires*; and his Imperial Majeſty of all the Ruſſias, Baron Count Theodore Von Roſtopſin, his right truſty privy councillor, member of the council principales, miniſter of the college of foreign affairs, director general of the poſts of the empire, grand chancellor and grand croſs of the ſovereign Order St. John of Jeruſalem, knight of the firſt claſs of the Orders of St. Andrew, St. Alexander Newſky, and St. Anne, knight of the Order of St. Lazarus, *de l'Annonciade*, of St. Morrice and St. Lazarus, of St. Ferdinand and St. Hubert; who, after exchanging their reſpective full powers, have agreed upon the following articles:

Art. I. His Majeſty the King of Sweden and his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias, declare that they will ſtrictly prohibit the exportation of contraband merchandize on the part of their ſubjects with every power whatever, whether at preſent engaged in war, or which may hereafter be engaged in war.

II. In order to prevent all doubt and miſunderſtandings as to what ſhall be conſidered contraband, his Majeſty the King of Sweden, and his Imperial Majeſty of all the Ruſſias, declare, that they will acknowledge the following articles as contraband, namely, cannons, mortars, fire-arms, balls, flints, flint-ſtones, matches, gun-powder, ſaltpetre, ſulphur, helmets, pikes, ſwords, hangers, cartridge-boxes, ſaddles and bridles, with the exception of ſuch a quantity of the above articles as may be neceſſary for the defence of the ſhips and their crews; all other articles not herein enumerated, ſhall not be conſidered as war or naval ſtores, they ſhall not be ſubject to confiſcation, but ſhall paſs free and without reſtraint. It is alſo hereby agreed, that the preſent article ſhall be without prejudice to the particular ſtipulations of former treaties with the powers at war, by virtue of which the things above-mentioned are allowed or prohibited.

III. And whereas it is reſolved, that whatever, by virtue of the foregoing article, can be deemed contraband, ſhall be excluded from the commerce of neutral nations; in like manner his Majeſty the King of Sweden, and his Imperial Majeſty of all the Ruſſias, will and determine that all other merchandize ſhall be and remain free; and in order that the general principles of the laws of nature, of which the freedom of trade and navigation, as well as the rights of neutral nations, are the immediate conſequence, may be placed under a competent and ſure ſafeguard, they have reſolved no longer to delay that voluntary explanation from which they have hitherto been reſtrained by motives of their ſeparate and temporary intereſts. With this view they have hereby determined,

1. That every ſhip may freely navigate from one harbour to another,

other, and on the coaſts of the belligerent nations.

2. That the effects which belong to the ſubjects of the belligerent powers in neutral ſhips, with the exception of contraband goods, ſhall be free.

3. That, in order to determine what ſhall be conſidered as a blockaded harbour, ſuch denomination ſhall be admitted to apply only where the diſpoſition and number of the ſhips of the power by which it is inveſted, ſhall be ſuch as to render it apparently hazardous to enter; and that every ſhip which ſhall go into a blockaded harbour, that is evidently ſo blockaded, violates the preſent convention as much as if the commander of the blockade had previouſly adviſed it of the ſtate of the harbour, and it had nevertheleſs endeavoured by force or artifice to obtain admiſſion.

4. That, with regard to neutral ſhips, except thoſe which for juſt reaſons and upon evident grounds ſhall be detained, ſentence ſhall be pronounced without delay; the proceedings againſt them ſhall be uniform, prompt, and lawful. Over and above the indemnity to which they ſhall be entitled for the damage they ſhall have ſuſtained, complete ſatisfaction ſhall be given for the inſult committed againſt the flag of their Majeſties.

5. That the declaration of the officers who ſhall command the ſhip of war, or ſhips of war, of the King or Emperor, which ſhall be convoying one or more merchant ſhips, that the convoy has no contraband goods on board, ſhall be ſufficient; and that no ſearch of his ſhip, or the other ſhips of the convoy, ſhall be permitted. And the better to enſure reſpect to thoſe principles, and the ſtipulations founded upon them, which their diſintereſted wiſhes to preſerve the impreſcriptible rights of neutral nations have ſuggeſted, the high contracting parties, to prove their ſincerity and juſtice, will give the ſtricteſt orders to their captains, as well of their ſhips of war, as of their merchant ſhips, to load no part of their ſhips, or ſecretly to have on board any articles, which, by virtue of the preſent convention, may be conſidered as contraband; and for the more completely carrying into execution this command, they will reſpectively take care to give directions to their courts of admiralty to publiſh it whenever they ſhall think it neceſſary, and to this end the regulation which ſhall contain this prohibition, under ſeveral penalties, ſhall be printed at the end of the preſent act, that no one may plead ignorance.

IV. In order to place the commerce of their ſubjects upon the moſt legal and permanent baſis, his Majeſty the King of Sweden, and his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias, have deemed it expedient to equip a number of ſhips of war and frigates, which ſhall be charged to ſee that object obtained; and the ſquadrons of each power ſhall take thoſe ſtations, and protect thoſe convoys, which their commerce and their navigation may require, and who ſhall be conformable to the courſe of trade of each nation.

V. To provide againſt all inconveniences which may proceed from any nation abuſing the privilege of their flag, it is eſtabliſhed as a regulation not to be departed from,

from, that every tranſport, be it whoſe it may, belonging to the country whoſe flag it bears, ſhall have on board a captain, and the half of the crew compoſed of the ſubjects of that country, and the paſſport ſhall be drawn up in due and regular form. Every tranſport which ſhall not obſerve theſe regulations, or ſhall violate the command printed at the end of this preſent convention, ſhall forfeit all right to the protection of the contracting parties; and the government to which it may belong ſhall alone be reſponſible for all the loſs, damage, or inconvenience it may ſuſtain.

VI. Should it nevertheleſs happen that the merchant ſhips of one of the powers ſhould find itſelf in a ſituation where the ſhips of war of that nation are not ſtationed, and where they cannot have the protection of their own convoys, in ſuch caſe the commandant of the ſhips of war of the other power, if it ſhall be required, ſhall duly and faithfully afford ſuch aſſiſtance as may be neceſſary. The ſhips of war and frigates of each nation ſhall afford protection and aſſiſtance to the merchant veſſels of the other, provided, in the mean time, that the veſſel requiring ſuch aſſiſtance ſhall not have violated the principles of neutrality, by having carried on any illicit commerce.

VII. This convention ſhall have no retroſpective operation, conſequently it ſhall have no reference to any differences that exiſted previous to its concluſion. Its application ſhall only be to future acts of violence and aggreſſion, and it ſhall form the baſis of a ſyſtem for the protection of all the neutral nations of Europe, whoſe rights may hereafter be denied or violated.

VIII. Should it, notwithſtanding all the poſſible care of the powers, and notwithſtanding the obſervance of the moſt perfect neutrality on their ſides, ſo happen that the merchant ſhips of his Majeſty the King of Sweden, or of his Imperial Majeſty of all the Ruſſias, ſhould be inſulted, plundered, or taken by the ſhips of war or privateers of one or other of the belligerent powers, the miniſter of the injured party ſhall forthwith repreſent the ſame to the government whoſe ſhip of war or privateer ſhall have committed ſuch act of violence; he ſhall reclaim the captured veſſels, demand due ſatisfaction, and by no means loſe ſight of the inſult offered to the flag. The miniſter of the other contracting power ſhall alſo enforce the complaint in the moſt energetic and determined manner poſſible, and they ſhall generally and uniformly act in concert together. Should their juſt complaint meet with no redreſs, or ſhould it be poſtponed from time to time, then ſhall their Majeſties have recourſe to repriſals againſt ſuch power as ſhall have refuſed to do juſtice; and they ſhall, by every poſſible means, give effect to ſuch repriſals.

IX. Should it happen that one or the other of the two powers, or both, on account of, or from diſlike to the preſent convention, or any circumſtance connected with it, ſhould be diſquieted, moleſted, or attacked, in ſuch caſe it is agreed, that the two powers ſhall make it a common cauſe, mutually to defend each other; and that they ſhall reciprocally employ every exertion to obtain full and complete ſatisfaction,

faction, as well for the inſult done to their flag as for the injury ſuſtained by their ſubjects.

X. The principles and regulations ſtipulated and ſettled by this preſent act ſhall apply to every maritime war, by which Europe may unhappily be diſquieted. Theſe ſtipulations ſhall alſo be conſidered as perpetual, and upon all occaſions ſhall be appealed to by the contracting powers for the regulation of their commerce and navigation, and for the maintenance of the rights of neutral nations.

XI. As the object and main conſideration of this convention is to aſſure the general freedom of commerce and navigation, his Majeſty the King of Sweden, and his Imperial Majeſty of all the Ruſſias, hereby agree, and bind themſelves to each other, to give their conſent that other neutral powers may become parties to it, adopt its principles, conform to its obligations, and partake of its advantages.

XII. In order that the belligerent powers may not have to plead ignorance of the arrangements concluded between their ſacred Majeſties, information ſhall be given to ſuch belligerent powers of the regulations they have determined upon, which are ſo little of an hoſtile nature, that they can be detrimental to no other country whatever; but, on the contrary, are only calculated to ſecure the commerce and navigation of their reſpective ſubjects.

Art. XIII. The preſent convention ſhall be ratified by the two contracting parties, and the ratification ſhall be exchanged, in due and good form, within ſix weeks, or ſooner if poſſible, from the day of ſigning it.

In teſtimony of the ſame, we, the underſigned, furniſhed with full powers, have hereunto ſigned our names and affixed our ſeals.

Given at St. Peterſburgh, the 4-16th of December, 1800.

(Signed)

COUNT VON STEDIGNK.

COUNT VON ROSTOPSIN.

[Here follows the ratification of their Swediſh and Imperial Majeſties, counterſigned by Joh. Chriſt. de Toll, and Count Roſtopſin.]

Regulations alluded to in the Northern Convention, as publiſhed by the King of Sweden.

THE preamble ſtates the neceſſity of rendering the rights of commerce clear and explicit. For this effect, in order to ſecure the protection of the government, the commerce of Sweden muſt obſerve the following requiſites:

1. In order that a ſhip be entitled to be conſidered as a Swede, ſhe muſt be built in Sweden, or the provinces under her dominion; or ſhipwrecked on the Swediſh coaſt, and there ſold; or bought in a foreign country by a legal and authentic contract. If ſuch purchaſe is made in a country threatened with war, it ſhall be conſidered as lawful as ſoon as three months have elapſed before its actually breaking out. Every ſhip purchaſed muſt be naturalized. As however the naturalization of ſhips bought in a foreign country, and afterwards taken by a cruizer belonging to any of the belligerent powers, may frequently produce diſagreeable explanations in the ſequel, it is hereby declared, that in

in time of war ſhips ſhall not be allowed to be naturalized which have formerly been the property of the belligerents or their ſubjects: nevertheleſs, with the exception of all ſhips that were naturalized before the preſent regulation was adopted, which ſhall enjoy all the rights which are connected with the character of neutrals and Swedes.

2. The captain of the ſhip muſt be provided with all papers requiſite and proper for the ſecurity of his voyage. Of this kind are (in caſe the ſhip goes through the Sound), a certificate of the place where the veſſel was built, an invoice, letters ſhowing the cargo not contraband, Turkiſh and Latin paſſports, a certificate by the magiſtrate of the place, a paſs for the crew, a copy of the oath of the owner; a charter-party with the ſubſcription of the freighter, the captain, and the perſon freighting the veſſel; a manifeſt with the like ſubſcriptions, containing a liſt of the different articles of the lading, and the conditions of the intended voyage; and a bill of health when the ſame is neceſſary. If the voyage is merely to the ports of the Baltic or the Sound, the Turkiſh and Latin paſſes are not neceſſary; but the captains muſt have all the other papers enumerated, without exception.

3. All theſe documents muſt be made out and delivered in a Swediſh port, unleſs when a ſhip has loſt her papers by accident, or where they have been forcibly taken away, in which caſe theſe documents may be renewed in a foreign port, if the captain, immediately on his arrival, takes the precaution to exhibit an authentic and properly certified declaration, by which the accident is proved, or the ground ſtated on which he deſires the renewal.

4. The captain is prohibited to have falſe acts or certificates, or duplicates thereof. He is likewiſe prohibited to make uſe of a foreign flag.

5. It is required that the captain and half of the crew ſhall be Swediſh ſubjects.

6. Captains going to the main ocean ſhall be bound to follow the courſe pointed out in their inſtructions, and agreeable to the contents of their certification.

7. Ships deſtined for the ports of a belligerent power muſt, with the utmoſt care, and under the ſevereſt penalties, avoid carrying any contraband commodities. To prevent all doubt or miſunderſtanding reſpecting what is contraband, it is agreed that the following goods ſhall be conſidered contraband.

8. All Swediſh ſubjects are prohibited to fit out privateers againſt the belligerents, their ſubjects and property.

9. A Swediſh ſhip cannot be employed by a belligerent power to tranſport troops, arms, or any warlike implements. Should any captain be compelled to do ſo by ſuperior force, he is bound at leaſt to exhibit a formal proteſt againſt ſuch violence.

10. When a merchant ſhip is not under convoy, and happens to be brought to by a ſhip of war or privateer belonging to any of the belligerents, the captain ſhall not, in that caſe, oppoſe the ſearching of his veſſel, but be bound faithfully to ſhow all acts and documents which relate to her cargo. The captain and his people are ſtrictly pro-

prohibited to keep back or deſtroy any of their papers.

11. If, however, ſuch ſhip makes part of a convoy, the foregoing article ſhall not ſerve as the rule; but the captain's duty conſiſts in punctually obeying the ſignals of the commodore of the convoy, for which purpoſe therefore he ſhall ſeparate as little as poſſible from the convoy.

12. All captains are expreſsly forbidden to attempt going into a blockaded port, as ſoon as they are formally apprized by the officer commanding the blockade. In order to aſcertain what a blockaded harbour is, this appellation is confined to thoſe to which, by the exertions of the blockading power with ſhips deſtined and adequate to the object, it is evidently dangerous to attempt running in.

13. In caſe a Swediſh merchant ſhip is captured by a ſhip of war or privateer of any of the belligerents, the captain ſhall immediately tranſmit a circumſtantial account, and duly explained, to the Swediſh conſul or vice-conſul of the place to which the ſhip is taken; and ſhould there be no conſul or vice-conſul there, he ſhall tranſmit a memorial to the Swediſh conſul of the diſtrict to which the place into which his ſhip is taken belongs.

14. Every captain of a Swediſh merchantman, who ſtrictly obſerves the above regulations and orders, ſhall enjoy a free voyage, protected by the laws of nations and the proviſion of treaties; and to this end all public agents and Swediſh conſuls are required, in caſe of attack or inſult, to give their ſupport to the juſt and well-founded complaints on the ſubject. But thoſe who, in any point whatever, neglect or violate their orders, muſt anſwer for the conſequences of their conduct, without relying upon the protection of his Majeſty.

15. By the contents of a recent order, his Majeſty has prohibited the privateers of a foreign nation to enter or bring their prizes into the ports of his kingdom, except in caſe of their being driven in by ſtreſs of weather. In this caſe it is expreſsly prohibited to all whatſoever to buy the prizes, or any of the effects which the privateers have taken.

To which end publication, &c.

Given at St. Peterſburgh, 23d December, 1800.

(Signed)

GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS.

Subſtance of a Note, delivered on the 17th October, 1800, by the Spaniſh Ambaſſador, the Chevalier de Huerta, to the Swediſh High Chancellor, Baron Ehrenheim, reſpecting the Violation of the Swediſh Flag by ſome Engliſh Veſſels, in the Capture of certain Spaniſh Ships in the Road of Barcelona.

"THE complaint which has been made reſpecting this affair is not intended to ſave appearances, or exhibited *pro forma*, then to be conſigned to oblivion. In it are involved the common intereſts of all the powers in Europe, which, if Sweden were to ſhut her eyes to ſuch a crying outrage upon all the rights of nations, would conſider her as reſponſible for the misfortunes that might afterwards enſue from it. Sweden, and the other northern powers, have lately ex-

perienced an example of the bad faith of the nation, whose subjects were guilty of the proceeding at Barcelona; since the nation in question, after insulting their flag, sent a squadron to the entrance of the Baltic, to demand satisfaction for that very insult which she had committed; thus showing to the northern powers, that no course remained for them but to unite, and bend all their force to compel to return within the bounds of duty, a state that would sacrifice the peace and tranquillity of all Europe to its own policy."

To the above note Baron Ehrenheim returned an answer, blaming the negligence of the Spaniards in defending their own rights, and permitting violence to be done to neutrals in the Spanish ports.

Reply of the Chevalier De Huerta, the Spanish Ambassador at the Court of Stockholm, to the Swedish High Chancellor Baron Ehrenheim, respecting the Violation of the Swedish Flag by some English Vessels, in the Capture of certain Spanish Ships in the Road of Barcelona.

Stockholm, Dec. 29, 1800.

Sir,

I HAVE this moment received from my court an answer to the dispatches, in which I communicated the first steps which I had taken with his Swedish Majesty, when I had the honour to present my first note on the subject of the outrage of which the English were guilty in the road of Barcelona.

The King, my master, has observed with regret the coldness with which the Swedish court has received the complaint, while it has confined itself to feeble and indecisive measures, from which it does not even indulge the hope of any advantage. This view of the matter shows the small interest with which Sweden is prepared to act in the business. I cannot conceal from you, Sir, that this inactivity, which is observed in the applications of the court of Sweden to that of London, might afford room to believe that this negotiation will be connected with other objects of private interest which demand temporising measures, incompatible with that energy and zeal which his Catholic Majesty expected to see displayed by his Swedish Majesty, in regard to an affair which, as it involves the honour of his flag, would have afforded him an occasion to prove to Europe the warm part he takes in the interest of the maritime powers, as well as to testify the value he puts upon the good understanding which hitherto has prevailed between the two courts. In pursuance of a new order from my court, I repeat, and formally insist upon what I demanded in my last note of the 17th October. I fondly flatter myself that his Swedish Majesty will adopt far more active measures than the contents of your note allowed me to hope. It is not probable that you will expose Swedish ships to all the severity of the measures which circumstances require to be exercised against suspected vessels, and whose conduct might be considered as connived at, unless the Swedish court receives from England the most ample reparation respecting the affair of Barcelona.

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed)

The Chevalier DE HUERTA.

Note

Note tranſmitted by Mr. Drummond to the Daniſh Miniſter for Foreign Affairs, dated Dec. 27, 1800.

THE court of London, informed that Denmark is carrying on with activity negotiations very hoſtile to the intereſts of the Britiſh empire, thinks that it cannot better fulfil the duties which ſuch a circumſtance preſcribes, than by addreſſing itſelf directly to the miniſter of his Daniſh Majeſty, to demand from him a frank and ſatisfactory explanation.

In all the courts of Europe they ſpeak openly of a confederacy between Denmark and ſome other powers, to oppoſe by force the exerciſe of thoſe principles of maritime law on which the naval power of the Britiſh empire in a great meaſure reſts, and which in all wars have been followed by the maritime ſtates, and acknowledged by their tribunals.

His Britannic Majeſty, relying with confidence upon the loyalty of his Daniſh Majeſty, and upon the faith of the engagements recently contracted between the two courts, has not demanded from him any explanation on this head. It was his wiſh to wait for the moment when the court of Denmark ſhould think it its duty to contradict thoſe reports, ſo injurious to its good faith, and ſo little compatible with the maintenance of the good underſtanding which had been re-eſtabliſhed between the two countries.

At preſent the conduct and the public declaration of one of the powers, which it is pretended have entered into this confederacy, do not permit his Majeſty to preſerve any longer towards the reſt the ſame ſilence which he has hitherto obſerved.

The underſigned therefore finds himſelf bound to demand from his Excellency Count de Bernſtorff, a plain, open, and ſatisfactory anſwer on the nature, object, and extent of the obligations which his Daniſh Majeſty may have contracted, or the negotiations which he is carrying on with reſpect to a matter which ſo nearly concerns the dignity of his Britannic Majeſty, and the intereſts of his people.

His Britannic Majeſty, always ready to return all the marks of friendſhip which he may receive on the part of his Daniſh Majeſty, hopes to find, in the anſwer of the court of Copenhagen to this requeſt, only a new occaſion of manifeſting theſe diſpoſitions.

In tranſmitting this note to M. the Secretary of State, the underſigned avails himſelf, with pleaſure, of this opportunity to aſſure him of the high conſideration with which he has the honour to be,

His very humble and obedient ſervant,

W. DRUMMOND.

To his Excellency the Count de Bernſtorff, Secretary of State of his Daniſh Majeſty, &c. &c.

Note in Anſwer.

THE underſigned Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, having given an account to the King his maſter of the contents of the note which Mr. Drummond has done him the honour to tranſmit to him on the 27th inſtant, is authorized to return the anſwer which follows:

The court of London muſt have received very incorrect information,

to have been able for a moment to presume that Denmark had conceived projects hostile against it, or incompatible with the maintenance of the good understanding which subsists between the two crowns; and the King is very much obliged to his Britannic Majesty, for having furnished him with the opportunity of contradicting, in the most positive manner, reports as ill founded, as contrary to his most decided sentiments.

The negotiation which is carrying on at St. Petersburgh, between Russia, Prussia, Sweden, and Denmark, has no other object than the renewal of the engagements which, in the years 1780 and 1781, were contracted by the same powers for the safety of their navigation, and of which a communication was at that time made to all the courts of Europe.

His Majesty the Emperor of Russia, having proposed to the powers of the North to re-establish these engagements in their original form, Denmark has so much the less hesitated to consent to it, as, far from having ever abandoned the principles professed in 1780, she has thought it her duty to maintain them, and claim them upon all occasions, and not allow herself to admit in respect of them any other modifications than those which result from her treaties with the belligerent powers.

Very far from wishing to interrupt those powers in the exercise of rights which the war gives them, Denmark introduces into the negotiation with her allies none but views absolutely defensive, pacific, and incapable of giving offence or provocation to any one. The engagements she will make will be founded upon the strictest fulfilment of the duties of neutrality, and of the obligations which her treaties impose upon her; and if she wishes to shelter her innocent navigation from the manifest abuses and violence which the maritime war produces but too easily, she thinks she pays respect to the belligerent powers by supposing, that, far from wishing to authorize or tolerate those abuses, they would, on their side, adopt measures best calculated to prevent or repress them.

Denmark has not made a mystery to any one of the object of her negotiation, upon the nature of which some suspicion has been infused into the court of London; but she has not thought that she departed from the usual forms, in wishing to wait the definitive result of it, in order to communicate an official account of it to the powers at war.

The undersigned, not knowing that any of the powers engaged in this negotiation has made a declaration, or adopted measures relative to its object, at which Great Britain might take offence or umbrage, cannot without ulterior explanation reply to this point of Mr. Drummond's note.

Much less does he conceive in what respect the engagement taken by the previous convention of the 29th of August last can be considered as contrary to those which Denmark is about to enter into with the neutral and united powers of the North; and in all cases in which he shall find himself called upon to combat or remove the doubts that shall have been conceived with respect to the good faith of the King, he shall consider

ſider his taſk to be very eaſy, as long as this good faith ſhall be introduced into the reproaches or ſuſpicions advanced againſt his Majeſty. He flatters himſelf that the Engliſh government, after having received the required explanations, will have the frankneſs to allow that the proviſional and momentary abandonment, not of a principle, the queſtion with reſpect to which remained undecided, but of a meaſure, whoſe right has never been, nor ever can be, conteſted, cannot be found at all in oppoſition to the general and permanent principles, relative to which the powers of the North are upon the point of eſtabliſhing a co-operation, which, ſo far from being calculated to compromiſe their neutrality, is deſtined only to ſtrengthen it.

The underſigned would fain believe that theſe explanations will appear ſatisfactory to the court of London; and that the latter will do juſtice to the intentions and ſentiments of the King, and particularly to his Majeſty's invariable deſire to maintain and cement, by all means in his power, the friendſhip and good underſtanding which ſubſiſts between Denmark and Great Britain.

He has the honour to offer to Mr. Drummond the aſſurance of his moſt diſtinguiſhed conſideration.

(Signed) BERNSTORFF.

Copenhagen, Dec. 31, 1800.

Note from the Engliſh Ambaſſador at Berlin, Lord Carysfort, to the Pruſſian State and Cabinet Miniſter, Count Von Haugwitz.

AS the underſigned ambaſſador extraordinary and miniſter plenipotentiary has been directed by his court to communicate to the Pruſſian miniſtry his Majeſty's note, which, by command of his Majeſty the King of Great Britain and Ireland, was preſented to the miniſters of Denmark and Sweden, he cannot diſcharge this commiſſion without likewiſe expreſſing his ſincere ſatisfaction in being authorized to declare how thoroughly his Majeſty is convinced that Pruſſia can never have ſanctioned the meaſures which have given riſe to the above cited note. Thoſe meaſures openly diſcloſe an intention to preſcribe rules to the Britiſh empire, on a ſubject of the greateſt importance; to force thoſe rules upon Great Britain, and for that end, before any of the powers who have concurred in it have given the ſmalleſt intimation to his Majeſty, to enter into a league, the object of which is to renew pretenſions which Great Britain at every time has conſidered hoſtile to its rights and intereſts, and ſo declared whenever an opportunity preſented—pretenſions which the Ruſſian court has abandoned, not only in fact, but which, by a treaty actually in force, Ruſſia is bound to oppoſe, and the execution of which treaty his Majeſty is entitled to inſiſt upon. When a ſhip of war belonging to his Daniſh Majeſty reſiſted by force the execution of a right, which the King of Great Britain and Ireland, by virtue of the cleareſt and moſt expreſs ſtipulations of his treaties which the court of Denmark had demanded, his Majeſty, on that occaſion, confined himſelf to the adoption of ſuch meaſures as the protection of the trade of his ſub-

jects required to be given againſt that meaſure of hoſtility, which this conduct on the part of an officer bearing his Daniſh Majeſty's commiſſion, ſeemed to ſhow. An amicable arrangement put an end to this diſpute, and the King flattered himſelf, not only that all miſunderſtanding on that ſubject was removed, but amity between the two courts was ſtrengthened anew and confirmed. In this ſituation of affairs his Majeſty muſt have learned with no leſs aſtoniſhment than concern, that the court of Copenhagen was employed in negotiations to renew the hoſtile confederacy againſt Great Britain which took place in 1780, and that alſo great preparations were going on in the ports of Denmark. Under theſe circumſtances the King muſt have been compelled to call for explanations from the court of Denmark. At this moment he received information that a confederacy was ſigned at Peterſburgh, and the anſwer of the Daniſh miniſter left no doubt reſpecting the nature and object of this convention, as he declared in the moſt expreſs manner, "That theſe negotiations had in view the renewal of thoſe relations which had been entered into between the ſame powers in the years 1780 and 1781," adding, "that his Majeſty the Emperor of Ruſſia had propoſed to the northern powers the renewal of their connexion in its original form." The engagements alluded to had for their object principles of maritime law which never had been recognized by the tribunals of Europe, and the contracting parties mutually engaged to maintain them by force, and to compel by force other nations to adopt them. They are ſtill more repugnant to the expreſs ſtipulations of the treaties which ſubſiſt between the courts of Stockholm and Denmark, and the Britiſh empire. The convention which theſe engagements were to renew was negotiated at a time when the court of Peterſburgh had adopted hoſtile meaſures againſt the perſons and property of his Majeſty's ſubjects, and when nothing but the extraordinary moderation of the King could have authorized other powers not to conſider him as at open war with that court. In ſuch a ſtate of things, nothing certainly could be more inconſiſtent with the ideas of neutrality, and nothing more diſtinctly indicate a hoſtile diſpoſition, than that thoſe engagements were not poſtponed till it was aſcertained whether Ruſſia was not to be conſidered as a belligerent power. Such forbearance was the more to be expected, and particularly from the court of Copenhagen, as, by an expreſs article of the league of 1780, the Daniſh ports and havens in Norway were placed at the diſpoſal of Ruſſia for the purpoſe of facilitating the proſecution of hoſtilities out of the Baltic. When therefore the King was informed by one of the contracting parties that the object of the negotiations which had been begun at Peterſburgh, without giving the leaſt intimation, and which at laſt, according to the information received by the King, had terminated in the concluſion of a convention, was no other than to renew the former confederacy to preſs upon his Majeſty a new code of law to which he had already refuſed his aſſent; and when moreover he had the

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moſt certain intelligence, and could no longer doubt, that the powers of the Baltic, engaged in this tranſaction, were purſuing warlike preparations with the utmoſt activity; when one of thoſe powers had placed itſelf in a ſtate of actual hoſtilities with his Majeſty; no other alternative remained, but either to ſubmit, or to adopt meaſures which were calculated to put an effectual ſtop to the hoſtile operation of a league, which, by the declaration of the Daniſh court itſelf, was openly directed againſt his Majeſty. Meanwhile his Majeſty has not omitted on this occaſion to diſplay his wonted juſtice and good will. Although he felt it neceſſary, for the maintenance of his rights, to ſecure ſome pledge againſt the hoſtile attacks which were meditated againſt his rights, yet he has taken the utmoſt care to guard againſt loſs and injury to individuals. Firmly convinced that his conduct towards neutral ſtates has been conformable to the recognized principles of laws, whoſe baſis and ſanction is to be found not in paſſing intereſts and momentary convenience, but in the general principle of juſtice; of laws which have been received and obſerved by the admiralty courts of all the maritime powers of Europe; his Majeſty does not yet forego the hope that the courts of Stockholm and Copenhagen will not take upon them the reſponſibility that will fall upon the authors of the war; that particularly they will not expoſe themſelves to that reſponſibility for the introduction of innovations, the notorious injuſtice of which has induced thoſe powers by which they were firſt broached, to oppoſe, when they found themſelves at war; innovations beſides, which are expreſsly repugnant to thoſe treaties which have been concluded with his Majeſty. The ſtep on which his Majeſty has reſolved muſt have long been foreſeen. The Britiſh government has never concealed that it conſidered the league of 1780 as hoſtile, and had never ceaſed that attention with which it watches over the rights of the nation. It immediately reſiſted the attempt to renew the principles which at the above-mentioned period had been agitated, and the underſigned declared to Count Haugwitz at the firſt conference he had with him on his arrival at Berlin, "That his Majeſty would never ſubmit to pretenſions which were irreconcilable to the true principles of public law, and which ſtrike at the foundations of the greatneſs and maritime power of his kingdoms." Still later, in the beginning of November, the underſigned had the honour to repreſent to his Excellency, as the miniſter of a power connected with his Majeſty by the moſt intimate friendſhip, what diſagreeable conſequences muſt follow from the attempt of the northern powers to preſs forward thoſe pretenſions. He has never ceaſed to renew this declaration, when, by the command of his Majeſty, he has been the interpreter of that ſatisfaction given to the King by the repeated aſſurances of the friendſhip of his Majeſty the King of Pruſſia, and of thoſe conſtant ſentiments of perfect juſtice of which his Majeſty has never for a moment entertained a doubt. His Excellency Count Haugwitz will likewiſe eaſily recollect the time when the underſigned, ultimately con-

vinced of the friendly intentions of the Pruſſian government, communicated to him, by the command of his Britannic Majeſty, the King's reſolution to allow of no meaſures which had for their object to introduce innovations in the maritime law now in force, but, on the contrary, to defend that ſyſtem in every event, and to maintain its entire execution as it had ſubſiſted in all the courts of Europe prior to the year 1780.—If the court of Denmark had announced in the moſt unequivocal manner, the real objects and contents of the engagements into which it had entered, the declaration of that court, that Pruſſia was one of the powers concerned in the negotiation, would have been ſufficient to ſatisfy the King, and to prove to him that it could have no hoſtile views againſt his government; and even ſtill his Majeſty is convinced that he may implicitly rely on the friendſhip of his Pruſſian Majeſty. It is true, that, in relation to Great Britain and Ireland, there can be no ſimilarity between the northern powers and Pruſſia. Thoſe powers are connected with his Majeſty by the ſtipulations of mutual treaties, which are leſs favourable to their intereſts, and which more or leſs modify and ſoften the rigour of the general law; whereas between his Majeſty the King of Great Britain and Pruſſia no treaty of commerce exiſts, and all intercourſe between them is regulated by the general principles of the law of nations, and eſtabliſhed uſages.—If, however, his Majeſty were to conſider his own ſentiments, and the inceſſant wiſh he has ſhown to preſerve the friendſhip of a monarch with whom he is connected by ſo many ties, he could not at all anticipate the poſſibility of a difference which might not eaſily and ſpeedily be terminated by an amicable diſcuſſion. The repeated aſſurances of ſuch ſentiments on the part of his Pruſſian Majeſty, which the underſigned has been empowered to tranſmit to his court, confirm this agreeable anticipation; and the known principles which have conſtantly directed his Majeſty the King of Pruſſia, do not tend to countenance the ſuppoſition that the latter has entered into the confederacy, or can enter into the confederacy, to ſupport by force principles in common with other powers, whoſe hoſtile views againſt his Britannic Majeſty have been openly proved. Whatever ſentiments the Pruſſian government may entertain in regard to the new principles themſelves, yet it is too juſt, and knows too well what ſovereigns owe to their people, and to one another, to favour for a moment the deſign to employ force in order to induce his Britannic Majeſty to acknowledge a code which the latter deems inconſiſtent with the honour and ſecurity of his crown.

(Signed) CARYSFORT.

Berlin, Jan. 27, 1801.

Subſtance of the Terms in which Lord Grenville replied to Count Roſtopſchin, the Ruſſian Chargé d'Affaires, in anſwer to his Repreſentations reſpecting the Capture of Malta.

THAT all explanations aſked by Ruſſia were uſeleſs, as the court of London was under the neceſſity of inſiſting on the embargo and the ſequeſtra-

ſequeſtration impoſed by the Emperor Paul being taken off, and upon indemnity for what had paſſed; that the convention relative to Malta, the execution of which was demanded by the court of Peterſburgh, was merely a plan ſubmitted by that court to the Britiſh adminiſtration, in anſwer to which they had ſent back their plan; but before the cabinet of London had ſent their anſwer, the court of Peterſburgh had diſmiſſed their ambaſſador Lord Whitworth; that the negotiations of the court of Peterſburgh to organize an armed neutrality by ſea, had made the greater impreſſion on the court of London, becauſe Ruſſia had propoſed to Great Britain to prevent, in conjunction with her, the contraband trade which was carried on with France under Daniſh and Swediſh colours; that if a good underſtanding were to take place between the two courts, the firſt meaſure to be taken would be the re-eſtabliſhment of the diplomatic relations between the two countries, and the mutual interchange of new ambaſſadors, to be brought about by the mediation of a neutral court friendly to both powers.

Ratification of the Northern Convention by his Imperial Majeſty of all the Ruſſias.

WE Paul I. by the grace of God, Emperor and Autocrat of all the Ruſſias, of Moldavia, Kiovie, Waldimiz, Novogorod; Czar of Caſan, and Grand Maſter of the Sovereign Order of St. John of Jeruſalem, &c. do notify by the preſent, that in concert with His Majeſty the King of Sweden, our reſpective plenipotentiaries have concluded and ſigned, in our city of St. Peterſburgh, on the 16th December 1800, a convention for a naval armed neutrality, the tenor of which runs as follows. (See the treaty, page 317)

After a due examination of the motives therein enumerated, we ſanction, confirm, and ratify it by the preſent, in the moſt ſolemn manner, and in every article promiſing, on our Imperial word, for ourſelves and our ſucceſſors, inviolably to obſerve and execute every thing ſtipulated by the ſaid convention; in virtue of which we have ſigned our preſent Imperial ratification with our own hand, have thereunto affixed the great ſeal of our empire.

Done at St. Peterſburgh, (8) 20th December 1800, and of our reign the 5th year.

PAUL.

COUNT DE ROSTOPSIN.

Order of Council, laying an Embargo on Ruſſian, Daniſh, and Swediſh ſhips.

At the Court at St. James's, the 14th January 1801; preſent, the King's Moſt Excellent Majeſty in Council.

WHEREAS his Majeſty, has received advice, that a large number of veſſels belonging to his Majeſty's ſubjects have been and are detained in the ports of Ruſſia; and that the Britiſh ſailors navigating the ſame, have been and now are detained, as priſoners, in different parts of Ruſſia; and alſo,

alſo, that during the continuance of theſe proceedings, a confederacy of a hoſtile nature, againſt the juſt rights and intereſt of his Majeſty, and his dominions, has been entered into with the court of St. Peterſburgh by the courts of Denmark and Sweden, reſpectively; his Majeſty, with the advice of his Privy Council, is thereupon pleaſed to order, as it is hereby ordered, that no ſhips or veſſels belonging to any of his Majeſty's ſubjects be permitted to enter and clear out for any of the ports of Ruſſia, Denmark, or Sweden, until further order; and his Majeſty is further pleaſed to order, that a general embargo or ſtop be made of all Ruſſian, Daniſh, and Swediſh ſhips and veſſels, whatſoever, now within, or which hereafter ſhall come into any of the ports, harbours, or roads within the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, together with all perſons and effects on board the ſaid ſhips and veſſels; but that the utmoſt care be taken for the preſervation of all and every part of the cargoes on board any of the ſaid ſhips or veſſels, ſo that no damage or embezzlement whatever be ſuſtained:

And the Right Hon. the Lords Commiſſioners of his Majeſty's Treaſury, and the Lords Commiſſioners of the Admiralty, and the Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports, are to give the neceſſary directions herein as to them may reſpectively appertain.

W. FAWKENER.

Note preſented on the 15th January 1801, by Lord Grenville to the Daniſh and Swediſh Ambaſſadors, reſpecting the Embargo laid on Daniſh and Swediſh Veſſels.

THE underſigned, principal Secretary of State for foreign Affairs, has been commanded by his Majeſty to make the following communication to Count Von Wedel Jarlſberg, and Baron Von Ehrenſward, Daniſh and Swediſh envoys at this court.

His Majeſty has heard with the ſincereſt concern, that at the moment when the court of Peterſburgh had adopted the moſt hoſtile meaſures againſt the perſons and property of his Majeſty's ſubjects, the two courts of Copenhagen and Stockholm had concluded a convention with that power for the maintenance of a naval armed confederacy in the north of Europe. If the circumſtances under which the convention alluded to was negotiated and concluded, could have left any doubt in his Majeſty's mind reſpecting the objects to which it is directed, that doubt would, by the declarations of the court of Peterſburgh, and ſtill farther by the recent and official declarations of the court of Copenhagen, have been completely removed. It is ſufficiently known with what hoſtile intentions an attempt was made, in the year 1780, to introduce a new code of public law againſt Great Britain, and to ſupport by force a ſyſtem of innovation prejudicial to the deareſt rights of the Britiſh empire. But his Majeſty has hitherto had the ſatisfaction to ſee that thoſe arbitrary and injurious meaſures have been completely given up. At the beginning of the preſent war, the court of Peterſburgh, which had

had taken a moſt active part in the eſtabliſhment of the former alliance, entered into articles with his Majeſty, which are not merely incompatible with the convention of 1780, but which are directly in the face of it; engagements which were ſtill in force, and the reciprocal execution of which his Majeſty is entitled to demand upon every principle of good faith, during the continuance of the war. The conduct of his Majeſty towards the other Powers of the Baltic, and all the deciſions of his courts of juſtice in regard to prizes, have been uniformly, and notoriouſly, founded upon thoſe principles which previouſly to the year 1780 had guided all other European courts of admiralty. Nor had the intention to renew the former confederacy been communicated to his Majeſty on the part of any of the contracting powers, till he received information of the actual ſigning of the convention, and had been apprized by the declaration of one of the parties, that the object of it was to confirm the ſtipulations entered into in the year 1780 and 1781, in their original ſhape. No farther doubts therefore can remain, that the object of their confederacy, and the naval preparations, which the contracting parties purſue with vigour, is nothing leſs than to place themſelves in a ſituation to maintain by force, pretenſions which are ſo obviouſly inconſiſtent with the principles of juſtice, that thoſe powers, which, when neutral, brought them forward, were the firſt to oppoſe them when they became belligerent, and the eſtabliſhment of which, if it ſhould be effected, would be one of the principal means of overthrowing the ſtrength and ſecurity of the Britiſh empire. On the knowledge of theſe circumſtances, his Majeſty the King would act contrary to the intereſts of his people, the dignity of his crown, and the honour of his flag (which by the diſcipline, courage, and ſkill of his navy, has riſen to ſo extraordinary a pitch of greatneſs), were he to delay the adoption of the moſt effectual meaſures to repel the attack he has already experienced, and to oppoſe the hoſtile effects of the confederacy armed againſt him. His Majeſty has therefore authorized the underſigned officially to communicate to Count Wedel Jarlſberg and Baron Von Ehrenſward, that an embargo has been laid upon all the Daniſh and Swediſh ſhips in the ports belonging to his Majeſty. But in the execution of this meaſure his Majeſty will take care that no violent or ſevere proceedings ſhall be exerciſed on the part of his Majeſty towards innocent individuals. His Majeſty is ſtill animated by the moſt anxious deſire that the circumſtances which have rendered theſe ſteps neceſſary may ceaſe, and that he may be enabled to return to thoſe relations with the courts of Stockholm and Copenhagen, which exiſted between them, till that mutual good underſtanding was interrupted by the preſent attempts to renew former pretenſions.

(Signed) GRENVILLE.

Anſwer of the Daniſh Ambaſſador.

The underſigned, envoy extraordinary from his Daniſh Majeſty,

jeſty, will tranſmit this day with regret to his court the official communication he had the honour to receive yeſterday from Lord Grenville, upon the ſubject of the embargo laid upon the Daniſh veſſels in the Britiſh ports.

While he waits until the orders of the King his maſter, relative to this offenſive meaſure, arrive, he cannot avoid proteſting againſt the validity of the motives alledged in the ſaid note, and againſt the juſtice of the conſequences, which the Britiſh government has conceived it could accredit againſt the court of Copenhagen.

A difference which aroſe between the courts of Peterſburgh and London during the negotiation, deſtined ſolely to the protection of a perfect neutrality in the North, has no relation whatever with that; and as his Imperial Majeſty of all the Ruſſias has cauſed to be publiſhed a formal declaration on the ſubject of the motives of the meaſures adopted on his part, Denmark finds in it a complete refutation of the argument advanced by the Britiſh Miniſter.

With reſpect to the principles of the northern powers reſpecting the ſacred rights of neutrality they have not been abandoned. Ruſſia, in her belligerent quality, has only ſuſpended the application, and Denmark and Sweden have, by their convention of the 27th March 1794 (officially communicated to all the belligerent powers), declared in the face of all Europe, that their ſyſtem of protection in favour of innocent commerce was invariable.

Hence it follows that his Daniſh Majeſty only now renews ties which have not ceaſed to exiſt. The underſigned thinks himſelf, in conſequence, authorized to proteſt, formally, againſt proceedings of ſo hoſtile a nature, which the King his maſter could not but have conſidered as an open and premeditated provocation, had not the communication been accompanied with the aſſurance that his Britannic Majeſty ſtill deſires to maintain good harmony with Denmark; a deſire which his Daniſh Majeſty has conſtantly profeſſed, and of which he has given the moſt unequivocal proofs.

The underſigned, who for a number of years has felicitated himſelf upon being the interpreter of the unalterable ſentiments of the King his maſter, is deeply hurt that falſe impreſſions have juſt menaced the good underſtanding between the two crowns. He wiſhes that he could ſtill be the inſtrument of an explanation calculated to do away injurious doubts, and to prevent incalculable conſequences to the intereſts of the reciprocal powers.

It is with theſe ſentiments, and with thoſe of perfect conſideration, that he has the honour to renew to his Excellency Lord Grenville the homage of his reſpect.

(Signed) WEDEL JARLSBERG.
Jan. 16, 1801.

The Anſwer of Baron Ehrenſward to the Notification of Lord Grenville, of the 15th January, ſtating, that an Embargo had been laid on the Daniſh and Swediſh ſhips in England.

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THE underſigned, miniſter plenipotentiary of his Imperial Swediſh Majeſty, received the official notification, by which his Excellency Lord Grenville, firſt miniſter of ſtate, ſignified to the underſigned, that his Britannic Majeſty had ordered an embargo to be laid on all the Swediſh ſhips that ſhould be found in the harbours within his dominions. So unexpected an event between powers who were in relations of friendſhip towards each other, was received with aſtoniſhment by his Imperial Majeſty, who was not only unconſcious of having given his Britannic Majeſty the leaſt cauſe of complaint, but on the contrary was entitled to have demanded indemnification for repeated aggreſſions. Actuated by this reflection, he rather expected that the notification was tranſmitted with the view to bury his grievances in oblivion, than to give occaſion for freſh ones, which ſhould renew the remembrance of the paſt.

As the Engliſh court has ſtated, as the ground of this notification, that a maritime convention was in contemplation, it would doubtleſs have acted with more juſtice, had it waited for an official communication from the Swediſh court, which it moſt aſſuredly would in proper time have received, of a convention, which is conſidered in ſo odious a point of view, as to urge it to an act of violence againſt a court, whoſe connexion with England nothing elſe could have diſturbed. As the diſpute between the Ruſſian and Engliſh courts related to the iſland of Malta, and the declaration of the Daniſh court referred to the convention of 1780, the underſigned can ſee no juſt reaſon why the Swediſh court, which had given no cauſe of complaint to the Engliſh, and from which no other declaration was required than what related to the note of the 31ſt of December, which has juſt been received, ſhould be attacked in ſo hoſtile a manner before any anſwer had been given to the inſinuations contained in that note.

The underſigned, who imparted the contents of the note of his Excellency Lord Grenville to his court, is obliged, in conformity to the orders of his maſter, to proteſt, as far as by the preſent act he can formally proteſt, againſt the embargo laid on the Swediſh ſhips, and all loſs or damage that may be thereby occaſioned. He demands, in the moſt forcible and expreſſive terms, that, in purſuance of the ſtipulations of the treaty of 1661, the embargo may be taken off, the continuance of which can no otherwiſe be conſidered than as a deſigned and premeditated declaration of war on the part of England, as well by the detention of the convoy, as in reſpect to the affair at Barcelona. The underſigned, whom the expreſſion of the deſire of the Britiſh court could not eſcape, obſerves in the hoſtile determination by which it is accompanied, only to give his Imperial Swediſh Majeſty cauſe of complaint, as well by the detention of the convoy, as in reſpect to the affair at Barcelona. He wiſhes the Britiſh court had conformed to the truth of its aſſurances by its actions, in which caſe this court would

would have been actuated by corresponding ſentiments.*

(Signed)

BARON VON EHRENSWARD.

London, Jan. 17, 1801.

Orders of Council reſpecting the Embargo on Ruſſian, Daniſh, and Swediſh Veſſels.

At the Court at St. James's, the 28th of January 1801; *preſent, the King's Moſt Excellent Majeſty in Council.*

WHEREAS his Majeſty, by and with the advice of his Privy Council, has been pleaſed to cauſe an embargo to be laid upon veſſels belonging to the ſubjects of Ruſſia, Denmark and Sweden, now within, or which hereafter ſhould come into any of the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, together with all perſons and effects on board the ſaid veſſels: and whereas it has been repreſented to his Majeſty, that the goods on board ſeveral of the veſſels ſo detained by the embargo are the property of his Majeſty's ſubjects, or the property of perſons not being ſubjects of Ruſſia, Denmark, or Sweden, his Majeſty is thereupon pleaſed, by and with the advice of his Privy Council, to order, as it is hereby ordered, that all goods laden on board Ruſſian, Daniſh, or Swediſh veſſels, now detained under the ſaid embargo, and intended to be exported, ſhall be delivered to the diſpoſal of the owners or their agents, upon affidavit made and produced to the officer in whoſe cuſtody the ſaid veſſels may be, that the ſaid goods were not at the time of ſhipment, nor are now, the property of the ſubjects of Ruſſia, Denmark, or Sweden; and alſo, that all goods which, by virtue of licenſes under his Majeſty's ſign manual, have been imported in veſſels belonging to the ſubjects of Ruſſia, Denmark, or Sweden, ſhall in like manner be forthwith delivered to the diſpoſal of the owners or their agents, on their making and producing a like affidavit, and on ſufficient proof that his Majeſty's licenſe to import the ſaid goods had been obtained.

And his Majeſty is hereby further pleaſed to order, that all goods which have been imported into this country, in Ruſſian, Daniſh or Swediſh veſſels, without licenſe under his Majeſty's ſign manual, and which are now detained by the embargo, ſhall likewiſe be delivered to the owners or their agents, on affidavit being made, that ſuch goods were not at the time of ſhipment, nor are now, the property of ſubjects of Ruſſia, Denmark or Sweden; and on their giving ſufficient bail to abide adjudication, if any proceedings ſhould be commenced againſt the ſaid goods within two months from the date of ſuch delivery; but in caſe no ſuch proceedings ſhould be commenced within two

* In conſequence of the above official intelligence being received at Stockholm, all Swediſh ſhips were immediately ſtopped from going to England, and an embargo was laid upon all Engliſh ſhips in the Swediſh harbours.

months

months from the date of such delivery, but in case no such proceedings should be commenced within two months from the date of such delivery, then the bond so given to be void: and the Right Honourable the Lords Commissioners of his Majesty's Treasury, the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, and the Judge of the High Court of Admiralty, are to give the necessary directions herein as to them may respectively appertain.

W. FAWKENER.

At the Court of St. James's the 28th of January 1801; *present the King's Most Excellent Majesty in Council.*

WHEREAS his Majesty, by and with the advice of his Privy Council, has been pleased to cause an embargo to be laid upon vessels belonging to the subjects of Russia, Denmark, and Sweden, now within, or which hereafter should come into any of the ports of the United kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, together with all persons and effects on board the said vessels; his Majesty, by and with the advice of his Privy Council, is pleased to order, and it is hereby ordered, that no person residing within his Majesty's dominions do presume to pay any money or bills due or payable to, or on behalf of, any person or persons being subjects, or residing within the dominions of the Emperor of Russia, or of the Kings of Denmark or Sweden, or any of them, for the freight of merchandise imported in any Russian, Swedish, or Danish ship, which is detained under the said embargo, or which shall hereafter be brought into any of the ports of his Majesty's dominions, until his Majesty's pleasure shall be further known, or until other provision shall be made by law:—whereof all persons whom it may concern are to take notice, and govern themselves accordingly.

W. FAWKENER.

Note presented on the 1st *of February to his Excellency the State and Cabinet Minister Count Haugwitz.*

THE undersigned, ambassador extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of his Britannic Majesty, has the honour to address himself to Count Haugwitz, by command of his court, in order to communicate to him the following particulars:

The spirit of patience and of moderation which prevails in the note of Lord Grenville to Count Kostopshin, will not escape the notice of his Excellency.

A solemn treaty between the two powers had given the respective subjects of each a complete security for the prosecution of their trade; and even in case of a rupture, it had been agreed, that not only no embargo should be laid, but that the subjects on both sides should have a whole year to carry away their effects, and to arrange their affairs in the country.

Notwithstanding these sacred stipulations, the ships of British subjects in the Russian ports are detained, and their property in an extraordinary manner, upon various pretexts, sequestrated or sold. Their persons are likewise put

put under arreſt, and a number of Britiſh ſailors have been forcibly taken out of their ſhips, and been ſent under guard and in the midſt of winter into the interior of the country.

In conſequence of theſe new acts of violence, Lord Grenville, ſecretary of ſtate for foreign affairs, received his Majeſty's order to addreſs a ſecond note to Count Koſtopſhin, in which his Majeſty ſtated his having appointed a commiſſary to ſuperintend the ſafety and the wants of his unfortunate ſubjects; a circumſtance which is uſual even among the powers that are actually at war. Lord Grenville in that paper likewiſe formally inſiſted on the execution of the treaty of 1793. But, though he made the ſtrong and juſt remonſtrances which ſuch circumſtances demanded, yet his Majeſty's conſtant diſpoſition again to reſtore the former connexion and good underſtanding between the two crowns has been in vain.

His Britannic Majeſty anticipates the ſentiments which the King of Pruſſia will entertain when he is informed of the unheard-of and unjuſtifiable manner in which his Britannic Majeſty's remonſtrances were heard by the court of St. Peterſburgh. The note of Count Koſtopſhin to Lord Grenville, of the 20th of December, O. S. a copy of which the underſigned is ordered to communicate to Count Haugwitz, will enable his Pruſſian Majeſty to judge whether the underſigned is called upon to make any obſervations upon it.

The underſigned has received orders to make known to the court of Berlin, that this conduct, on the part of the Emperor of Ruſſia, has put an end to all correſpondence between the courts of London and St. Peterſburgh; and the connexion between the extraordinary violence committed upon the perſons and property of his Majeſty's ſubjects, and with the concluſion of a hoſtile confederacy, which the Emperor of Ruſſia has formed for the expreſs and avowed purpoſe of introducing thoſe innovations into the maritime code, which his Britannic Majeſty has ever oppoſed, has at length produced a ſtate of open war between Great Britain and Ireland and Ruſſia.

It will not be uſeleſs to remark, that the Emperor of Ruſſia, at the preſent criſis, cannot be conſidered as a neutral power, becauſe he was at war with Great Britain before he himſelf was at peace with France.

The underſigned ſhall have done juſtice to the charge with which he is intruſted, when he declares in the name of the King his maſter, that his Majeſty, on weighing the preſent circumſtances of Europe, is willing to forbear demanding from the court of Pruſſia that ſuccour which was ſtipulated by treaty, though he conſiders the *caſus fœderis* as completely comin within thoſe circumſtances in which they ſtand; and that his Britannic Majeſty cannot doubt that he will receive from his ally all the proofs of friendſhip which the events of this new war would have required.

The underſigned has the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) CARYSFORT.

Berlin, Feb. 1, 1801.

Swediſh

*Swediſh Proteſt on the Subject of the alledged Proceeding in the Harbour of Barcelona.**

BY this public inſtrument of proteſt, be it known and made manifeſt to all people whom it may concern, that on the ſeventh day of February one thouſand eight hundred and one, before me Thomas Paine, notary public, reſiding in the town and port of Dover, in the county of Kent, by lawful authority admitted and ſworn, perſonally appeared Martin Rubarth, maſter of a ketch or veſſel called Hoffnung, belonging to Barth, in Swediſh Pomerania, of the burden of thirty-eight heavy Swediſh laſts, or thereabouts, now lying in Dover harbour, and Jacob Chriſtopher Glaſen, and Johan Henderick Heuer, mariners, alſo belonging to the ſaid veſſel, and upon their faith and honeſty ſolemnly declared, and for truth affirmed and witneſſed by the interpretation of Roelof Symons, of Dover aforeſaid, gentleman; that the ſaid veſſel took in ballaſt at Oporto, and ſet ſail and departed from thence in good order and condition, ſtaunch and tight, on the 19th day of July laſt paſt, with the wind favourable, bound to the Mediterranean in ſearch of freight, and proceeded, with eaſterly winds and variable weather, without any thing particular occurring, until the 23d day of Auguſt following, when they arrived and brought up in the road of Alicant, and were there put under quarantine, and on the 25th in the afternoon releaſed from ſuch reſtraint, when the ſaid maſter made inquiries for a freight, but none could be obtained, and the wind was at north-eaſt and eaſt-ſouth-eaſt, and they repleniſhed their ſtock of water and got in readineſs to proceed; and on the 28th weighed with a light breeze northerly, and ſteered for Barcelona; and on the 29th being under Cape St. Martius, they were boarded by a Spaniſh privateer, and her crew took from the ſaid veſſel ſome ſtock-fiſh and vegetables, and then quitted her, and they proceeded with variable winds and weather, without any thing particular occurring, until the 3d day of September following, when, being between Sitger and the Caſtle de Fel, two other Spaniſh privateers rowed from the land towards the ſaid veſſel and hailed her, when the ſaid maſter informed them they came from Alicant, and were deſtined to Barcelona; and the people on board the ſaid privateer then inquired whether the ſaid appearer had ſeen any Engliſh frigates or other veſſels, which being anſwered in the negative, the ſaid privateers quitted the ſaid veſſel, and ſteered ſouth-weſt, and it fell calm; and on the 4th, at half paſt one o'clock in the afternoon, a breeze ſprung up at weſt-ſouth-weſt and ſouth-weſt, the point of Cape de Fel bearing north-weſt

* This proteſt relates to the Swediſh ſhip which was alledged, in the correſpondence between Spain and Sweden, to have been made uſe of by the Engliſh for the purpoſe of capturing the two frigates at Barcelona. The maſter and people made this proteſt reſpecting that tranſaction.

by weſt, diſtant about one and an half German miles, and they ſteered along the land for Barcelona aforeſaid, and about five o'clock in the afternoon ſaw under the land of Lobregat, a line of battle ſhip and a frigate with Spaniſh colours flying, and a boat and crew came from the ſhore, which the ſaid appearers afterwards found belonging to the ſaid line of battle ſhip; and the crew ſpeaking the Engliſh language, the ſaid appearers found that the colours they had ſeen flying were falſe, and that the ſaid ſhips of war were Engliſh: and the crew of the ſaid boat then aſked from whence the ſaid veſſel came, where bound, and what ſhe was laden with? to which the ſaid maſter replied, he came from Alicant with ballaſt, and intended going to Barcelona to procure a freight, and had brought a cargo of ſtaves from Pillau to Oporto; whereupon the ſaid boats crew examined the ſaid veſſel's papers, and aſked the ſaid maſter if he had letters to any perſon in Spain, as, if he had, his ſaid veſſel would be a good prize; who replied, no ſuch letters were on board; when the ſaid boat and crew, quitted the ſaid veſſel, and commanded the ſaid maſter to lay his topſail back, and keep after the ſaid line of battle ſhip, and that when they got on board, if a flag of any nation was hoiſted, he might proceed on his voyage; but no ſuch flag was hoiſted, and the ſaid two ſhips of war kept in for the land, and fired a ſhot at the ſaid appearers' veſſel, which obliged them to follow; and a boat with two officers and a great number of men came on board, and took the command and poſſeſſion of the ſaid veſſel; when the ſaid maſter aſked what was their intention for ſo doing? and the ſaid officers replied, that they did not know, but were obliged to follow their commander's orders; and toward evening when it came on to be dark, they kept out to ſea with the top-ſail conſtantly laid back, and then many boats (to the beſt of the ſaid appearers' recollection eight in number) came along ſide, filled with armed officers and men, and they got on board the ſaid veſſel, at which the ſaid appearers were greatly alarmed; and the ſaid maſter aſked the officer who commanded the man at the helm, what was intended to be done with the ſaid veſſel and her crew? who informed him that the captain was on board, and that the ſaid maſter might go forward and inquire of him, which he accordingly did; and he commanded him to be ſilent, and ſpoke to another officer, who put a piſtol to the ſaid maſter's breaſt, and informed him if he uttered a word to any man, a ſhot ſhould end his exiſtence; and they ſteering the ſaid veſſel for Barcelona Road, the ſaid maſter begged he might be allowed to get her anchors ready, which was permitted; and while the ſame was doing, one of the crew ſpoke a few words, when an officer immediately jumped up, and would have killed him, had he not fortunately been prevented by another officer, and between eight and nine o'clock in the evening they arrived in Barcelona Road, and were hailed by a Spaniſh frigate riding at anchor, when the ſaid maſter not being permitted to reply, one of the

ſaid Engliſh officers called out, "Sueco, Sueco," and a firing began from the ſaid Spaniſh frigate at the ſaid veſſel, when the ſaid Engliſh officers and people took to their boats and proceeded towards her, and the firing continuing, the ſaid appearers put their helm a-lee, and ran into the cabin to prevent being ſhot, and ſoon afterwards the ſaid firing ceaſed, when the ſaid maſter and his crew got on the deck to ſave the ſails, and bring the ſaid veſſel up; and as ſoon as they had let the anchor go, and hauled the foreſails down, another firing commenced, by which Hans Peter Rubarth (the then mate of the ſaid veſſel, and brother to the ſaid maſter) was ſhot through his left ſhoulder and arm, and fell to all appearance dead; at which the ſaid appearers were much alarmed, and let the ſaid veſſel drive with the little cable ſhe had out, and haſtened to aſſiſt him into the cabin; and the ſaid appearers diſcovered, that the ſaid Engliſh officers and men captured in their ſaid boats two Spaniſh frigates, in which they paſſed the ſaid veſſel, and the wind got more off the ſhore, and the firing continued, and the ſhots went over her abaft, and ſhe drove into deep water; and, to prevent drifting out to ſea, they let go both anchors, and made the ſails faſt, and, when the ſaid two Spaniſh frigates had got out a conſiderable diſtance to ſea, ſome Spaniſh gun-boats came near, whereupon the ſaid appearers were much alarmed, apprehending they would ſtill conſider the ſaid veſſel an enemy, and ſink her, and therefore hoiſted a light as a ſignal that they were friends; and the people on board the ſaid gun boats inquired if they had any Engliſhmen left, when the ſaid maſter informed them there were not, but that his mate was ſeverely wounded; when one of the ſaid gun-boats came alongſide, and her crew inquired if any other perſon was ſick; and being anſwered that all the others were in perfect health, an officer came on board, who, ſeeing the ſaid maſter weeping over his wounded brother, promiſed to acquaint Mr. Almgren, the Swediſh conſul at Barcelona aforeſaid, of his diſtreſs, and to ſend people on board, to aſſiſt in weighing the anchors, and conduct the ſaid veſſel into the harbour of Barcelona aforeſaid, to obtain a ſurgeon; that on the 5th one came on board with four men, and ſhe was towed into the ſaid harbour, and moored in a proper place to perform quarantine, and continued under ſuch reſtraint ten days, and was then releaſed, and during the ſame the ſaid maſter was obliged to keep the ſaid four men, and alſo the ſurgeon and two other men, to watch the ſaid mate; and the rigging, ſails, and yawl, which were ſhot and much damaged, they repaired and ſtopped as well as they could, and as ſoon as *prattic* was obtained, the ſaid mate was taken on ſhore to the hoſpital at Barcelona aforeſaid; and the ſaid maſter having obtained freight on the 9th day of October laſt, ſailed from Barcelona aforeſaid, but the ſaid mate continued ſo ill, he was obliged to be left in the ſaid hoſpital. That in the latter part of the month of December following, the ſaid maſter received a letter, dated the 14th day of the ſaid month, from

Daniel Chriſtopher Hingſt, of Barth aforeſaid, the owner of the ſaid veſſel, ſtating that the ſaid mate died of his wounds in the hoſpital of Barcelona aforeſaid, on the 29th day of the ſaid month of October, leaving a widow and three infant children.—And alſo the ſaid appearers declared, that they have been informed, and verily believe, that the ſaid line of battle ſhip is called the Minotaur, Capt. T. Lewis, but they have not been enabled to learn the name of the ſaid Engliſh frigate, or of her commander, and that they uſed their utmoſt endeavours for the preſervation of the ſaid veſſel; that whatever damage or loſs the ſame ſuſtained was not occaſioned by or through any neglect or default of them, or any of the then crew, or by reaſon of any defect or fault in the ſaid veſſel or her tackling, but merely by means of the ſaid capture. Therefore the ſaid maſter has deſired a proteſt; wherefore I, the ſaid notary, at his requeſt, have ſolemnly proteſted, and by theſe preſents do proteſt, againſt the ſaid Captain T. Lewis, and the other officers and crew of the ſaid ſhip Minotaur, and alſo the officers and crew of the ſaid Engliſh frigate, and every other perſon and cauſe occaſioning the ſaid capture and detention, of and for all loſſes, coſts, charges, damages, demurrages, ſuits, and expenſes already and hereafter to be ſuffered and ſuſtained thereby, to be allowed and recovered in time and place convenient. Thus done and proteſted in Dover aforeſaid, in the preſence of James Moon and John Finnings, witneſſes thereto, called and requeſted. In teſtimony of the truth thereof, the ſaid appearers, interpreter, and witneſſes, ſubſcribed their names in the regiſtry of me the ſaid notary; and I, the ſaid notary have hereunto ſet my hand, and affixed my notarial ſeal. Dated the day and year firſt above written.

(Signed) THO. PAIN.

The ſaid Martin Rubarth, Jacob Chriſtopher Glaſſen, and Johan Henderick Heuer, were ſworn on the Holy Evangeliſts to the truth of the aforegoing proteſt; the ſaid Roelof Symons being firſt ſworn faithfully to interpret to them, at Dover aforeſaid, the ſaid ſeventh day of February 1801, before me,

(Signed) THO. PAIN,
A Maſter Extraordinary in Chancery.

Hoffnung, Martin Rubarth, Maſter. Proteſt dated February 7th, 1801.

Copy of the Note tranſmitted on the 12th day of February, by the Pruſſian Miniſter Count Haugwitz, to Lord Carysfort, the Engliſh Ambaſſador at Berlin.

THE underſigned, ſtate and cabinet miniſter, has laid before his Pruſſian Majeſty the two notes which Lord Carysfort, envoy extraordinary and miniſter plenipotentiary from his Majeſty the King of Great Britain and Ireland, has done him the honour to tranſmit to him on the 27th of January, and 1ſt of February laſt.

The underſigned having it in commiſſion to return an explicit and

and circumſtantial anſwer, is under the neceſſity of informing Lord Carysfort, that his Majeſty cannot ſee without the utmoſt grief and concern, the violent and haſty meaſures to which the court of London has proceeded againſt the northern naval powers. Error alone can have given occaſion to theſe meaſures, as the aſſertions in the note of the 27th ſufficiently ſhow. In that it is ſaid, that the maritime alliance "has for its object, to annul the treaties formerly concluded with England. and to preſcribe laws to her, with reſpect to the principles of them; that the neutrality is only a pretext to impoſe theſe laws on her by force, and to eſtabliſh a hoſtile alliance againſt her."

Nothing, however, is farther from the above-mentioned negotiation than the principles here ſuppoſed. It is founded in juſtice and moderation, and the communication of a copy of the convention to ſuch of the belligerent powers as had the juſtice and patience to wait for the ſame, will prove this beyond the poſſibility of a denial.

When in the beginning of January the miniſter of his Britannic Majeſty, officially propoſed to the underſigned, the queſtion, "whether the northern courts had actually concluded the confederation which had been reported; and whether Pruſſia had acceded to it?"—the King conceived that the reſpect which ſovereigns owe to each other, and the liberty poſſeſſed by every independent ſtate to conſult its own intereſts, without rendering an account to any other power, authorized him to withhold any communications relative to himſelf and his allies; and contented himſelf with anſwering, that as he had ſeen, without interfering, the connexions which England had entered into without conſulting him, he conſidered himſelf entitled to the ſame confidence; and that if the King of Great Britain thought it his duty to ſupport the rights and intereſts of his kingdom, his Pruſſian Majeſty conſidered it as not leſs his duty to employ every means in the defence of the rights and intereſts of his ſubjects.

This anſwer might have ſufficed a few weeks ſince; but in the ſituation in which affairs now are, the King thinks himſelf called upon to make an explicit declaration to the court of London, relative to the ſpirit of the treaty which has probably been attacked becauſe it was not known, and which is far from having the offenſive views of which the contracting powers have been arbitrarily accuſed. They have expreſsly agreed, that their meaſures ſhall be neither hoſtile nor tend to the detriment of any country, but only have for their object the ſecurity of the trade and navigation of their ſubjects. They have been attentive to adapt their new connexions to preſent circumſtances. The ſtrict juſtice of his Majeſty the Emperor of Ruſſia has, even in the detail, propoſed modifications, which alone might be ſufficient to indicate the ſpirit of the whole. It has ſince been determined, that the treaty ſhall not be prejudicial to theſe which had before been concluded with any of the belligerent powers. It was alſo reſolved, that this determination ſhould be candidly

communicated to thoſe powers, to prove the purity of the motives and views of the contracting parties. But England would not allow time for this; had ſhe waited this confidential communication, ſhe might have avoided thoſe intemperate meaſures which threaten to ſpread the flames of war ſtill wider.

Beſides, it only depended on England, previouſly to draw ſatisfactory information from the correſpondence with Denmark, if, inſtead of taking hold of two iſolated paſſages, which Lord Carysfort, in his firſt note, extracted from Count Bernſtorff's note of the 31ſt of December, the court of London had liſtened to the ſolemn declaration which it contained; "That it could never have been ſuppoſed for a moment that Denmark had formed hoſtile projects againſt England, or plans that could not ſubſiſt together with the maintenance of harmony between the two crowns, and that the court of Copenhagen congratulated itſelf on finding an opportunity for contradicting, in the moſt poſitive manner, ſuch unfounded reports." This plain and preciſe declaration agrees with the language which the underſigned had uſed more than once to Lord Craysfort, when ſpeaking on that ſubject; and it can ſcarcely be conceived how the Engliſh court, after that declaration had been received, could conclude from the note of the miniſter of Denmark, "That the engagements of the contracting powers had for their object the introduction of principles of naval rights, which had never been acknowledged by the tribunals of Europe, and which were of a hoſtile tendency againſt England." The concluſion is totally falſe, and is not authorized even more by the contents of the anſwer of the Daniſh court, than the other unmerited reproach made to it, "of having renewed an alliance of a hoſtile tendency againſt England, and of being actively employed in armaments with that view." Never were meaſures more evidently defenſive, than the meaſures of the court of Copenhagen, and their ſpirit will be miſconceived ſtill leſs, when it is conſidered what menacing demonſtration that court had experienced from the Britiſh government, on occaſion of the affair with the Freya frigate, before the above meaſures were reſorted to. England's arbitrary conduct on this occaſion is naturally explained by the pretenſions which it had made for ſome time paſt, and which it has repeatedly renewed in the notes of Lord Carysfort, at the expenſe of every commercial and naval power. The Britiſh government, has in the preſent more than in any former war, uſurped the ſovereignty of the ſeas; and by arbitrarily framing a naval code, which it would be difficult to unite with the true principles of the law of nations, it exerciſes, over the other friendly and neutral powers, an uſurped juriſdiction, the legality of which it maintains, and which it conſiders as an impreſcriptible right, ſanctioned by all the tribunals of Europe. The ſovereigns have never conceded to England the privilege of calling their ſubjects before its tribunals, and of ſubjecting them to its laws, in caſes where the abuſe of power has got the better of equity, and

which,

which, alas! are but too frequent. The neutral powers have always had the precaution of addreſſing to it the moſt energetic reclamations and proteſts, but experience has ever proved their remonſtrances fruitleſs; and it is not ſurpriſing, that, after ſo many repeated acts of oppreſſion, they have reſolved to find a remedy againſt it, and for that purpoſe to eſtabliſh a well-arranged convention, which fixes their rights, and which places them on a proper level even with the powers at war.

The naval alliance, in the manner as it has juſt been conſolidated, was intended to lead to this ſalutary end, and the King heſitates not to declare to his Britannic Majeſty, that he has again found in it his own principles, that he is fully convinced of its neceſſity and utility, and that he has formally acceded to the convention, which has been concluded on the 16th of December, laſt year, between the courts of Ruſſia, Denmark, and Sweden. His Majeſty is, therefore, among the number of the contracting parties, and has bound himſelf, in that quality, not only to take a direct ſhare in all the events which intereſt the cauſe of the neutral powers, but alſo, in virtue of his engagements, to maintain that connexion by ſuch powerful meaſures as the impulſe of circumſtances may require. The note of Lord Carysfort, mentions a ſubject, to which his Majeſty believes himſelf neither obliged to anſwer, nor even to have a right of entertaining an opinion with reſpect to it. There exiſts diſcuſſions between the courts of Peterſburgh and London, which have by no means any thing to do with the buſineſs which the latter has interwoven with it. But in the ſame meaſure in which the conduct of Pruſſia has hitherto been directed by the moſt blameleſs impartiality, the King's conduct will henceforth be directed by his regard for engagements, which in themſelves are a proof of it. To ſtipulations which contain nothing hoſtile, and which the ſafety of his ſubjects required, he owes all the means which Providence has laid in his power. Unpleaſant as the extremes may be to which England has proceeded, yet his Majeſty doubts not the poſſibility of a ſpeedy return to conciliating and peaceable diſpoſitions, and he relies on the ſentiments of equity which, on former occaſions, he has had the advantage of meeting with in his Britannic Majeſty.

It is only by revoking, and by entirely taking off the embargo, that affairs can be brought to their former ſituation; and it is for England to judge whether it ought to come to that reſolution, in order to offer means to the neutral powers for proceeding to thoſe communications which they intended to make.

But while thoſe meaſures exiſt which have been reſorted to from hatred againſt a common principle, and againſt an alliance which can no longer be ſhaken, the hoſtile reſolution, which muſt be the conſequence will be the neceſſary reſult of the treaty; and the underſigned is ordered to declare to the miniſter of his Britannic Majeſty, that the King, while he expreſſes his concern at events of which he has not been the cauſe,

will

will ſecretly fulfil the engagements preſcribed to him by treaties. The underſigned, thus executing his orders, has the honour of aſſuring Lord Carysfort of his high eſteem.

(Signed) HAUGWITZ.

12th February, 1801.

Note from the Daniſh to the Britiſh Miniſter.

London, Feb. 23, 1801.

THE underſigned, having informed the King his maſter of the official communication of Lord Grenville, dated the 15th January laſt, has received orders to declare, that his Majeſty is deeply affected at ſeeing the good underſtanding which has hitherto ſubſiſted between Denmark and Britain, ſuddenly interrupted by the adoption of a meaſure as arbitrary as injurious on the part of Great Britain; and that he is not leſs afflicted and alarmed at ſeeing that meaſure juſtified by aſſertions and ſuppoſitions as unjuſt as ill-founded. He remarks, with ſurpriſe, that, by confounding the cauſe of the meaſures taken in Ruſſia againſt the intereſts of Great Britain, with the object of the convention relative to neutral navigation, the Britiſh government evidently mixes two affairs which have not the leaſt connexion with each other. It is a ſubject of perfect notoriety, that the incident of the occupation of Malta by the troops of his Britannic Majeſty, has alone been the occaſion of the embargo on the Britiſh ſhips in the ports of Ruſſia, and that the miniſters of the neutral courts at Peterſburgh acted according to their full powers and inſtructions anterior to that event. The diſpute relating to it is abſolutely foreign to the court of Copenhagen. It knows neither its origin nor foundation, or at leaſt but very imperfectly, and its engagements with Peterſburgh have no relation whatever to it. The nature of theſe engagements has been ſolemnly declared to be only defenſive; and it is inconceiveable how general principles, conformable to every poſitive obligation, and modified according to the ſtipulations of treaties, could be juſtly conſidered as attacks on the rights or dignity of any ſtate whatever. While the powers who profeſs them require only their acknowledgement, the conflict of principles reciprocally maintained, cannot be provoked but by thoſe means which, operating as a denial of facts, place them in direct and inevitable oppoſition. The underſigned, by order of the King his maſter, calls the ſerious attention of the Britiſh government to theſe reflections, and to theſe juſt and incontrovertible truths; they are analogous to the loyal ſentiments of a ſovereign, the ancient and faithful ally of Great Britain, who is not only incapable of offering, on his part, any injuries real or voluntary, but who has well founded titles to a return of forbearance and juſtice. The prompt ceſſation of proceedings hoſtile to the intereſts of Denmark, is a circumſtance to which his Majeſty ſtill looks forward with the confidence he has ever wiſhed to entertain with regard to his Britannic Majeſty; and it is in his name, and conformably to the inſtructions expreſſed on his part, that

that the underſigned inſiſts on the embargo placed on the Daniſh veſſels in the ports of Great Britain, being immediately taken off. By a conſtant ſeries of moderation on the part of the King, the meaſures to which the outrageous proceedings of the Britiſh government authorized him to have had recourſe, have been ſuſpended, his Majeſty deeming it an act of glory to give, by this means, a deciſive proof of the falſehood of the ſuſpicions advanced againſt him, and of the doubts thrown on his intentions. But if contrary to all expectation, the Britiſh government perſiſts in its violent reſolutions, he will ſee himſelf, with regret, reduced to the urgent neceſſity of exerting thoſe means which his dignity and the intereſts of his ſubjects will imperiouſly preſcribe.

(Signed) WEDEL JARLSBERG.

Anſwer.

Downing Street, Feb. 25, 1801.

LORD Hawkeſbury preſents his compliments to Count Wedel Jarlſberg, and has the honour to inform him, that he ſhall loſe no time in communicating to the Daniſh government his Majeſty's ſentiments on the contents of Count Wedel Jarlſberg's note of the 23d inſtant. Lord Hawkeſbury requeſts that count Wedel Jarlſberg will accept the aſſurances of his high conſideration.

Note from the Swediſh to the Britiſh Miniſter.

London, March 4, 1801.

THE underſigned has conſtantly repoſed an unlimited confidence in the ſentiments and moderation of his Britannic Majeſty. He has conſequently only endeavoured, in the preliminary note of Lord Hawkeſbury, dated the 25th of laſt month, in anſwer to his official note of the 23d, to diſcover the expreſſion of an aſſurance of theſe ſentiments which ſhould be tranſmitted to Copenhagen; and he is perſuaded that the effect of them on the part of his Britannic Majeſty will be manifeſted, by calling, in the moſt efficacious and ſatisfactory manner, the attention of the government to the repreſentations of his Daniſh Majeſty, tranſmitted through the organs and offices of the underſigned. But as the adoption of conciliatory meaſures is conſtantly found ſuſpended, and as, on the contrary, thoſe of violence and injuſtice are daily accumulating, the underſigned cannot acquieſce, in ſilence, in the continuation of this ſtate of things, which only tends to bar the way to amicable explanations, and to compromiſe the deareſt intereſts of each nation. He haſtens, in conſequence, to renew with earneſtneſs, the demand made in the name of his court, that the embargo placed on the Daniſh veſſels ſhould be immediately taken off. And, in expectation of a ſatisfactory anſwer, he has the honour to aſſure his Excellency Lord Hawkeſbury of his reſpectful conſideration.

(Signed) WEDEL JARLSBERG.

Anſwer of the Britiſh Miniſter.

Downing Street, March 6, 1801.

THE underſigned, his Majeſty's principal

principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, has the honour to acknowledge the receipt of the note of Count Wedel Jarlſberg, his Daniſh Majeſty's Envoy Extraordinary and Miniſter Plenipotentiary, of the 4th inſtant, and to inform him that he has tranſmitted to his Majeſty's Chargé d'Affairs at Copenhagen, an anſwer to his former note of the 23d of February, which will be delivered to the Daniſh government, and which will fully explain his Majeſty's ſentiments on the differences ſubſiſting between the two countries. The underſigned requeſts Count Wedel Jarlſberg to accept the aſſurance of his high conſideration.

(Signed) HAWKESBURY.

Count Wedel Jarlſberg, &c.

Note tranſmitted on 4th March, by Baron Von Ehrenſward, the Imperial Swediſh Miniſter Plenipotentiary at London, to Lord Hawkeſbury, the Engliſh Secretary of State.

THE underſigned, Miniſter Plenipotentiary of his Swediſh Majeſty, has the honour to tranſmit to his Excellency Lord Hawkeſbury, firſt Secretary of State of his Britannic Majeſty, a printed copy of the naval convention concluded on the 16th December, 1800, between his Swediſh Majeſty and his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias, as well as a printed copy of the naval regulations which the King has recently ordered to be drawn up.

The underſigned, who, at the command of his court, has the honour to make this communication to the miniſter of his Britannic Majeſty, has it likewiſe in commiſſion expreſsly to declare, that their Majeſties, by the ſaid naval convention, have reciprocally determined and ſettled thoſe rights which, as neutral powers, they believe themſelves entitled to, and by the naval regulations have aſcertained thoſe duties, for the performance and obſervance of which, on the part of their ſubjects, they, as neutral powers, make themſelves anſwerable. The object of their Majeſties is to confirm and ſtrengthen their rights of neutrality, and to promote the repoſe of their reſpective ſtates, by the naval convention they have entered into; and nothing is farther from their intention than by ſuch a ſtep to provoke hoſtilities. The reſpect which is due to the rights of nations and to treaties, the conſciouſneſs that their own intereſts are inſeparably united with the intereſts and the love of juſtice and peace, are the only motives by which their Majeſties have been actuated: they have, therefore, learnt, with the greateſt aſtoniſhment, that the firſt news of the concluſion of this convention in England, has been the occaſion of ſo violent a meaſure as that of laying an embargo on the Swediſh ſhips.

So far from deſiring to introduce any innovations with reſpect to the maritime ſtate of Europe, by the aſſertion of their rights of neutrality, their Majeſties are ſenſible that it gives no power whatever where thoſe rights were not acknowledged by former treaties. England has ſeen thoſe treaties; England has ſeen thoſe treaties executed; they were officially communicated to her, and ſhe did not proteſt againſt them. In like manner

ner it was, with regard to the convention of 1780 and 1781; and the miniſtry, who now proceed with ſo much violence, know that the partial renewal of that convention between Sweden and Denmark in 1794, and the armament that followed, operated, during a period of three years, without ever being conſidered as grounds for hoſtilities; yet a ſimilar convention is now deemed an hoſtile confederacy againſt England. A line of conduct ſo contradictory, proceeds not from the circumſtance of the principles and claims of neutral rights having been now enforced; but it ſeems to have its foundation in that maritime ſyſtem which England has eſtabliſhed in the courſe of the preſent war. It appears alſo, that that government, which Europe, from its pacific ſentiments, has ſo often endeavoured to convince of the injuſtice of its pretenſions, has now determined to commence a war for the ſubjection of the ſea, after it has rendered itſelf ſo renowned in the war undertaken for the freedom of Europe.

If the Britiſh miniſter will refer to the conduct of England againſt Sweden, and the neutral powers in general, during this war, he will find the real cauſe why his Swediſh Majeſty has been induced to believe that the formal alliance of ſeveral powers, acting upon the ſame principles, would more effectually tend to convince the court of London of the validity of thoſe principles, than by any one power renewing thoſe reclamations which have hitherto been made in vain; at the ſame time his Majeſty never ſuppoſed that ſuch an alliance would be conſidered as an act of hoſtility. The Britiſh miniſter complains that the court of London was not before inſtructed of the intention of the reſpective courts to renew the convention of 1780; but in the ſame note he ſtates, that England had entered into engagements this war with its allies reſpecting neutrals; thus the avowal of the Britiſh miniſter is an anſwer to his own charge.

If his Majeſty was not fully convinced of the innocence of his intentions, and if he was deſirous of deviating from that line of moderation he has ever obſerved, he might make an invidious and cenſurable enumeration of the conduct of England; of the unpuniſhed offences of the commanders of Engliſh ſhips of war, even in Swediſh harbours; of the inquiſitorial examinations which the captains and crews of the ſhips detained, as well in the Weſt Indies as in England, have been ſubject; of the detention of the convoy in 1798; of the deceitful chicanery with which the proceedings of the courts of admiralty were accompanied; of the abſolute denial of juſtice in many inſtances; and laſtly, by the inſult offered to the Swediſh flag at Barcelona. His Swediſh Majeſty muſt, doubtleſs, ſtate among the offences of which he has cauſe to complain, that after one of his miniſters had been ſent to the Britiſh court, its aggreſſions, inſtead of being admitted and remedied, were juſtified. But he has ſought no revenge; his Majeſty wiſhes only to procure that ſecurity to his flag to which it is entitled. In conſequence of this ſentiment, the underſigned is empowered to declare, that the Britiſh court ſhall acknowledge the rights of Sweden; that it ſhall do juſtice with regard to the

the convoys detained in 1798, as well as reſpecting the violence offered to the Swediſh flag at Barcelona; and above all, that it ſhall take off the embargo which has been ſo unjuſtly laid on the Swediſh ſhips. His Majeſty will, with the greateſt pleaſure, ſee his ports again opened to the trade of England, and the ancient good underſtanding between the two courts renewed. His Majeſty, impreſſed with that dignity due to his empire, has, in conſequence of the embargo laid upon the Swediſh ſhips, placed a ſimilar embargo on all Engliſh veſſels in the harbours of Sweden.

As the pacific tendency of the preſent convention has been proved to a demonſtration, his Majeſty therefore hopes that no conſideration, reſpecting any accidental occurrence which may have taken place between the ally of his Majeſty the Emperor of Ruſſia and the court of London, will be introduced. The act of the convention itſelf proves, that its baſes are the rights of neutrality, and that it is in its nature unconnected with every other ſubject of diſpute.

While the underſigned Miniſter Plenipotentiary of his Swediſh Majeſty recommends the contents of this preſent note to the earneſt conſideration of the miniſter of his Britannic Majeſty, he has the honour to entreat that his Excellency Lord Hawkeſbury will tranſmit him an anſwer, which he hopes will ſpeak the ſentiments of the King his maſter.

His Majeſty has commanded the underſigned to preſent this to his Excellency. Should the conciliatory views with which it was dictated prove fruitleſs, it is his Majeſty's opinion, that the preſence of the underſigned at the court of London will no longer be of any advantage.

The underſigned has the honour to aſſure his Excellency Lord Hawkeſbury of his higheſt eſteem.

(Signed)

THE BARON VON EHRENSWARD.

London, March 4, 1801.

Copy of Lord Hawkeſbury's Reply to the Note of the Swediſh Ambaſſador.

THE underſigned, his Majeſty's principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, has the honour to acknowledge the receipt of the note of Baron Ehrenſward, his Swediſh Majeſty's Miniſter Plenipotentiary, of the date of the 4th inſtant; his Majeſty has already repeatedly communicated his fixed unalterable determination, to maintain thoſe eſtabliſhed principles of maritime law, which have been found by the experience of ages, beſt calculated to afford equal ſecurity to the juſt rights and intereſts, as well of neutral as of belligerent powers.

The explanations attempted to be given to the preſent convention, have in no degree weakened the impreſſion which the firſt peruſal of it produced, that the views and motives of the contracting powers were hoſtile to his Majeſty's dominions; and this impreſſion is moſt fully confirmed by the conſideration, that the northern courts have recurred to the principles of the convention of 1780, at a moment when the circumſtances of the war, and the relative ſtate of the navies of the belligerent powers, convert that which was pretended to be a meaſure

measure of common equity to all countries, into an instrument of exclusive injury to Great Britain.

Under these circumstances, the embargo on Swedish vessels can be considered in no other view than as an act of just and necessary precaution, which will not be revoked, so long as the court of Stockholm continues to form a part of a confederacy, which has for its object to impose by force on his Majesty a new system of maritime law, inconsistent with the dignity and independence of his crown, and the rights and interests of his people.

The undersigned requests Baron Ehrensward will accept the assurances of his high consideration.

(Signed) HAWKESBURY.

Downing-street, March 7, 1801.

Proclamation published at Riga, 12th February, 1801.

HIS Excellency the Civil Governor and Counsellor of State, Chevalier Von Richter, has received the following communication from the Commercial College of the Empire: "That his Imperial Majesty, being convinced by experience, that the productions and merchandize of his empire were exported by Prussia into England, his said Majesty has thought proper to order, that the transportation of these productions and merchandizes through Prussia, whether by land or sea, shall be severely prohibited; and that, in order to accomplish this sovereign order, the most severe inspection shall take place, in conformity with the ukasa of the 15th of December, 1800. The Commercial College has, in consequence, required all civil governors, 1st. To communicate through the medium of the magistrates, this order to the body of the merchants: 2dly, To order the magistrates to instruct their brokers to insert, as a stipulation in their contract, whether made with foreign or Russian merchants, that the articles bought or sold shall not, under any pretence, be sent into Prussia by any channel. The two parties shall bind themselves to this. The magistrates are also bound to suffer none of the merchandizes to pass thither on any pretence; and if any one shall refuse to obey this order, they are to seize the articles, and to send advice thereof forthwith."

In consequence, this order, after having been transmitted by his Excellency the civil governor in council, in order to its being correctly executed, is, by these presents, communicated to the knowledge of all the merchants in this city.

Dated Riga, Feb. 12, 1801.

Proclamation of the Emperor Alexander, of Russia, on his Accession to the Throne.

WE, by the grace of God, Alexander the First, Emperor and Autocrator of all the Russias, &c. &c. declare to all our faithful subjects,

It has pleased the decrees of the Almighty to shorten the life of our beloved parent sovereign Emperor Paul Petrovitz, who died suddenly by an apoplectic stroke, at night between the 11th and 12th day of this month. We, on receiving the Imperial hereditary throne of all the Russias, do receive also at the

the ſame time the obligation to govern the people committed unto us by the Almighty, according to the laws and the heart of her who reſts in God, our moſt auguſt grandmother, Sovereign Empreſs Catharine the Great, whoſe memory will be dear for ever to us, and the whole country. Following the ſteps of her wiſe intentions, we hope to arrive at the object of carrying Ruſſia to the ſummit of glory, and to procure an uninterrupted happineſs to all our faithful ſubjects, whom we do hereby invite to ſeal their fidelity to us by the oath, before the face of all-ſeeing God, whoſe aſſiſtance we implore to grant us power to ſupport the weight now reſting upon us.

Given at St. Peterſburgh, the 12th March, O. S. 1801.

ALEXANDER.

Ruſſian Imperial Ukaſe relative to the Order of Malta.

WE, Alexander the Firſt, by the grace of God, Emperor and Autocrat of all the Ruſſias.

Inaſmuch as we are deſirous of affording a proof of our affection, and of our particular regard towards the ſovereign order of St. John of Jeruſalem, we therefore declare, that we take it under our Imperial protection, and that we will employ our utmoſt means to reinſtate it in all its rights, honours, privileges, and immunities.

To this end, we command our Field-marſhal Bailly, Count Nicolaus Von Soltikoff, to exerciſe the functions and authority of lieutenant, or vicar, of the grand maſter of the order, and to convoke an aſſembly of the great council, and to make known to the ſame, that it is our intention that this our Imperial reſidence ſhall be conſidered as the capital of the ſovereign order of St. John of Jeruſalem, till circumſtances ſhall admit of its having a grand maſter appointed according to its ancient forms and ſtatutes.

In expectation of that epoch, we command, in our character of protector, that the ſame council ſhall maintain the government of the order; make known this our determination to all nations and prioriates; and invite them, for their own advantage, to ſubmit to the decrees of the council.

We confirm, by the preſent declaration, our two Ruſſian and Catholic grand prioriates, conſtituted within our empire, in the enjoyment of all the properties, privileges, and adminiſtrations, conferred upon them; and we ordain, that they, in our name, as protector, ſhall act in obedience to the directions of our Field-marſhal-general Bailly, Count Nicolaus Von Soltikoff, vicar or ſubſtitute of the office of grand maſter.

As ſoon as an agreement ſhall have been concluded with other courts for appointing a proper place, and the neceſſary means, a general chapter of the ſovereign order of St. John of Jeruſalem ſhall be convened; and it ſhall be one of the firſt endeavours of our proclamation, that ſuch chapter ſhall proceed to the election of a grand maſter, who is worthy to preſide, and capable of reſtoring to the order its ancient conſtitution.

Given in our Imperial reſidence at St. Peterſburgh, the 16th March (O. S.)

(O. S.) of the year 1801, and the 1ſt of our reign.

(Signed) ALEXANDER.
(Counterſigned) COUNT VON PAHLEN
(Magnus Cancellarius.)

Ruſſian Ukaſes iſſued by the Emperor Alexander, March 28, 1801.

1. ALL priſoners of ſtate are ſet at liberty.

2. All the late laws relative to contraband are aboliſhed.

3. The tariff of tolls and cuſtoms of 1782 is re-introduced.

4. The Engliſh ſeamen are releaſed from confinement.

5. All ſocieties and clubs are permitted.

6. The Order of Malta is to be nearly ſuppreſſed.

7. The Order of St. Wladimir is reſtored.

8. Every body may dreſs as he pleaſes, provided he does not violate common decorum.

9. The importation of books and literary productions of every ſort is again permitted.

10. The regiments are to bear their old names, and the former regiments of guards are to be reorganized.

11. Every perſon, whether native, foreigner, or exile, ſhall freely enter or quit the Ruſſian dominions, without any moleſtation or difficulty on the frontiers.

12. Alexander by the grace of God, &c. Whereas our manufacturers have not yet gained the neceſſary perfection, nor are ſufficient to ſupply the exigences of our empire, we do hereby command, that the prohibition againſt the importation of china, earthen and glaſs wares, ſteel tool and inſtruments, hard wares, ſilks, cottons, and linens, be from this moment ſuppreſſed, and that for the preſent year the tariff of 1797 be in force.

St. Peterſburgh, March 28th, 1801.

Proclamation publiſhed by the Senate of Hamburgh, the 29th March, 1801.

AS circumſtances of a political nature have created the neceſſity for the Imperial Daniſh troops to remain in the neighbourhood of this city, and as nothing is to be apprehended on that account, either with reſpect to the freedom and independence of the ſtate, or the property and ſafety of the inhabitants; therefore the moſt illuſtrious Senate exhort all citizens and inhabitants to confide in their preſſing interceſſions upon the occaſion; and that, with the aſſiſtance of the College of Citizens, they will do their utmoſt for the advantage and ſafety of the ſtate. And the moſt illuſtrious Senate truſt that every one will demean himſelf peaceably and obediently, and eſpecially with decency and propriety towards the foreign military; by which alone the general ſafety can be enſured, and thoſe inconveniencies avoided, to which any inconſiderate and oppoſite conduct would inevitably ſubject the city.

Given at our Senate-houſe, the 29th March, 1801.

Manifeſto of his Highneſs Field-marſhal Prince Charles, Landgrave of Heſſe.

BY the expreſs command of his

Majeſty the King of Denmark and Norway, it is hereby declared:

The attacks made by the Engliſh government, in oppoſition to all the principles of the laws of nations, againſt the navigation and trade of thoſe powers that have confederated together for the purpoſe of ſecuring and maintaining the rights of neutral flags; and the arbitrary and powerful meaſures adopted by that government, notwithſtanding the moſt preſſing and continued remonſtrances; have impoſed on theſe powers the diſagreeable neceſſity of taking every previous ſtep that may ſerve to bring the ſaid government to a more juſt way of thinking.

As the excluſion of the Engliſh navigation and trade from the Elbe, muſt be an effectual means of promoting this object; and as the poſſeſſion, for a time, of the Imperial city of Hamburgh has been conſidered as unavoidably neceſſary for that purpoſe; his Daniſh Majeſty, unwilling as he is to adopt a meaſure of this kind, has been obliged to give way to a crowd of imperious circumſtances; and conſequently has charged me to carry the meaſure into execution with the troops under my command.

Conformably to the poſitive orders enjoined me, I will moſt vigilantly take care, that the ſtricteſt diſcipline ſhall be obſerved by the troops that enter the city, while they remain there; and that the tranquillity, the property, and municipal rights of the inhabitants ſhall not only be undiſturbed and unmoleſted, but that the ſame ſhall be moſt carefully preſerved and guarded for them. I expect, therefore, that all perſons ſhall conduct themſelves peaceably and friendly towards the royal troops commanded by me; and that nobody ſhall find fault with that neceſſary ſeverity which muſt be put in force in caſe of a contrary behaviour.

CHARLES, Prince of Heſſe.

Pinneberg, March 28, 1801.

Ordinance for laying an Embargo on Engliſh Ships and Goods, publiſhed by the Authority of the King of Denmark.

WE Chriſtian VII. &c. declare as follows: Whereas all amicable means for taking off the embargo laid on the ſhips and property of our ſubjects in the Engliſh ports, have proved fruitleſs; we have been obliged to give directions that all ſhips and goods belonging to the ſubjects of the Britiſh government, and which are now in our ports, ſhall be detained and laid under an embargo. All magiſtrates of towns, and officers of our cuſtoms, are directed to aſſiſt in carrying this meaſure into effect.

The ſame perſons are to prepare every thing that is neceſſary for the preſervation of the goods and ſhips ſo detained; and every care muſt be taken of the crews of the ſhips.

Given under our hand and ſeal at Copenhagen, on the 29th of March, 1801.

CHRISTIAN R.

Declaration of the King of Pruſſia to the Royal and Electoral College at Hanover, and to the Commanders of the Hanoverian Troops.

IN

IN consequence of the oppressions which neutral navigation and commerce have sustained on the part of the English navy, since the commencement of this war, the different powers therein interested could no longer abstain, after so many ineffectual complaints, from protecting their violated rights with a greater degree of energy.

The result was the convention formed on the 16th of December, 1800, at St. Petersburgh, between Russia, Denmark, and Sweden, the just and moderate principles of which had formerly been adopted and followed by the court of London itself; and his Majesty the King of Prussia, who had likewise felt this violence injurious to his states and his flag, did not hesitate to accede to that treaty.

The contracting courts were on the point of communicating to the belligerent powers the convention they had agreed to, and of forming arrangements with them, when England, by an unexpected proceeding, disconcerted this amicable design, by laying an embargo on all the vessels of the naval powers of the North in her ports, and thus declaring herself their enemy.

It might have been expected that his Majesty the King of Prussia would not regard this conduct with satisfaction or indifference. Accordingly he soon after transmitted to the court of London the declaration already known, of the 12th of February, formally and publicly avowing his accession to the convention of St. Petersburgh, and indicating, at the same time, the means by which the differences that had taken place might be accommodated, and a total rupture avoided.

But, instead of adopting the proposed expedient, England passed over in silence the answer transmitted to Lord Carysfort, at Berlin. She continued to treat the flags of the North in a hostile manner; and in a note transmitted by the Secretary of State, Lord Hawkesbury, to the Swedish Envoy, Baron Ehrenschwerd, dated the 7th of March, at London, she has once more manifested those false principles which have been so often refuted:

"Under these circumstances, the embargo on Swedish vessels can be considered in no other view than as an act of just and necessary precaution, which will not be revoked, so long as the court of Stockholm continues to form a part of a confederacy, which has for its object, to impose by force on his Majesty, a new system of maritime law, inconsistent with the dignity and independence of his crown, and the rights and interests of his people."

A similar declaration was soon after sent to the court of Denmark, adding, that she must abandon the coalition of the North, and enter into a separate negotiation with England. After receiving a negative answer, the English Chargé d'Affaires, Drummond, and the Plenipotentiary Extraordinary, Vansittart, left Copenhagen on the same day; and in the mean time the English fleet, under the orders of Admiral Sir Hyde Parker, destined for the Baltic Sea, had actually arrived on the coasts of Zealand.

It appears from all these events, that the court of London has no inclination to desist from her inadmissible demands, and accept the proposed means of amicable con-

ciliation. His Majeſty the King of Pruſſia therefore feels himſelf compelled, in conformity to the obligations he has contracted, to take the moſt efficacious meaſures in ſupport of the convention attacked, and to retaliate for the hoſtile proceedings againſt it: for this purpoſe, he will not only ſhut the mouths of the Elbe, the Weſer, and the Ems, but likewiſe take poſſeſſion of the ſtates belonging to his Majeſty the King of England, as Elector of Brunſwick Lunenberg, ſituate in Germany.

His Majeſty the King of Pruſſia accordingly demands and expects from the Electoral College of Privy Councillors at Hanover, and from the Board of Generals, that they will ſubmit to this diſpoſition without delay or reply; and that they will voluntarily obey the orders which ſhall be given relative to the occupation of the electorate by the Pruſſian troops, and likewiſe with reſpect to the electoral countries. His Majeſty principally demands that the Hanoverian corps which has hitherto occupied part of the northern line of demarcation, ſhall be diſarmed and be diſbanded, with a proportional part of the other troops. His Majeſty requires that the generals and other officers ſhall engage in writing, not to ſerve againſt his Majeſty the King of Pruſſia; but, on the contrary, to follow ſtrictly his orders until the preſent affair be brought to a concluſion. The troops which ſhall continue embodied, ſhall be cantoned, part on the right bank of the Leine, and part on the left bank of the Aller, and behind the Luhe as far as the Elbe, where they ſhall remain diſtributed among the towns of Hanover, Gifhorn, Velgen, Lunenberg, and the other ſmaller towns and villages of that diſtrict. All the other places, including the fortreſs of Hameln, ſhall be delivered up to the Pruſſian troops, under the orders of Lieutenant-general Klein.

His Majeſty declares, at the ſame time, that the Pruſſian troops ſhall be ſubſiſted at the expence of the electoral territory, commencing from the end of the month of April. His Majeſty has ſent his cabinet miniſter, Count Schullenburg, to notify the preſent declaration to the Electoral College of Privy Councillors and commanders of troops. In theſe circumſtances, all connection between the Electoral College and his Majeſty the King of England will ceaſe; and the authorities are, in conſequence, reſponſible to his Majeſty the King of Pruſſia for their adminiſtration and the revenues. In caſe, as it is to be hoped, of a voluntary ſubmiſſion, his Majeſty is diſpoſed, and ready to promiſe ſolemnly, as well to the nobility as to the burgeſſes and to all the inhabitants of the electorate, the complete enjoyment of tranquillity, and the ſecurity of their property.

But, on the contrary, ſhould the government and the general officers attempt to impede the execution of the meaſures taken, and oppoſe the entrance of the Pruſſian troops, his Majeſty would be obliged, though againſt his inclination, to revoke his promiſes, and to treat the electoral ſtates in a hoſtile manner. The civil and military officers are therefore reſponſible for the fatal conſequences which may in this caſe reſult from their conduct. For this reaſon his Majeſty adviſes them

them to ſubmit to this ſummons, and to prevent the rigorous meaſures which will inevitably be adopted in caſe of a refuſal.

By order of his Majeſty,
(Signed) HAUGWITZ.
Berlin, March 30, 1801.

Official Account of the Poſſeſſion of Hamburgh by the Danes. Dated March 31.

IT was on the 24th inſtant that the Hamburgh envoy at Berlin received the unexpected intelligence that his Majeſty the King of Pruſſia had felt himſelf neceſſitated, from political conſiderations, to announce his intention to cauſe a part of the territory of Hamburgh to be taken poſſeſſion of by the troops of his Majeſty, and that within a very ſhort period.

The aſſurances which were communicated to the deputies of Hamburgh, were of that conſoling nature as to leave no doubts on the part of the deputies from Hamburgh relative to the preſervation of the independence, the trade, and commerce of that city. They concluded that the neceſſity of its poſſeſſion would be alleviated by every poſſible means, eſpecially as this city had no reſource, its commerce excepted. The Senate alſo conceived the prejudice too great to ſuffer a moment to be loſt in making the moſt preſſing repreſentations to his Pruſſian Majeſty; and their hopes of ſucceſs were the more flattering, from the circumſtance of the aſſurances received by the Hamburgh deputies on the 26th inſtant, by which they were again informed that the execution of the views of his Pruſſian Majeſty would be ſuch as to ſecure them from every ſpecies of alarm, and were by no means ſo near as might be expected.

But in proportion as theſe aſſurances were confided in, ſo much the greater was the mortification experienced by the Senate on the 28th, when they learned from his Excellency Prince Charles of Heſſe, that it was his intention to occupy this city with the troops quartered in its environs. In conſequence of this notification, it was determined to ſend deputies to his Highneſs at Pinneberg, to make the ſtrongeſt repreſentations againſt a meaſure ſo violent and unexpected. Theſe repreſentations, however, were fruitleſs, as the deputies, upon their return, reported that it was the intention of his Highneſs to ſummon the city the next morning with his troops, and even to uſe force in caſe of reſiſtance. At the ſame time the deputies received the moſt ſatisfactory aſſurances that no fears ought to be entertained for the independence of the city of Hamburgh, or the property of individuals; and further, that his Royal Highneſs would be ſatisfied with the poſſeſſion of the gates and walls of the city, without requiring any troops to be quartered in the city.

Under this imperious ſituation of affairs, the Senate were convoked in the night, and it was the unanimous reſult of their conſultations, that it was better to yield to force, than to expoſe the city to greater evils in conſequence of any reſiſtance.

In conſequence of this determination, yeſterday morning, at eight o'clock, and of the ſummons above mentioned from Prince Charles of

Heſſe, and the moſt ſolemn and ſatisfactory aſſurances given to the deputies then ſent out to him reſpecting their liberty, the preſervation of their property, &c. the gate called the Millenthor, and a part of the fortifications, were immediately given up to a corps of Daniſh troops, and without the leaſt interruption of the public tranquillity.

On the ſame morning appeared the following publicandum:

"Since the preſent ſituation of public affairs has occaſioned the unavoidable approach of the Daniſh troops, which ought not to create the leaſt alarm reſpecting the ſecurity of property, or the preſervation of public tranquillity, the moſt noble burgomaſters ſeriouſly admoniſh the citizens and inhabitants to conform themſelves in every reſpect to ſuch meaſures as may tend to the preſervation of the public peace, and eſpecially to good behaviour towards the Daniſh troops; and by ſo doing, to diminiſh the diſagreeableneſs of the circumſtance; as otherwiſe, the well-being of the city might be committed by the conduct of the obſtinate and unwary.

Given in a full aſſembly of the council, March 29, 1801.

Notification publiſhed at the Exchange of Hamburgh, April 3.

WHEREAS his Majeſty the King of Denmark and Norway has found it neceſſary, for the ſtopping of the Britiſh navigation and trade on the Elbe, to take poſſeſſion, for a time, of the free and Imperial city of Hamburgh, by the troops under the command of his Highneſs General Field-marſhal Prince Charles, Landgrave of Heſſe, and has required, that from the 1ſt of April an embargo ſhall attach upon all Britiſh property, whether ſhips, commodities, or any other; it is hereby ordered, by conſent of the council and citizens, that all perſons ſhall detain ſuch property, and notice will immediately be given to all merchants, captains, &c. of the time, place, and manner in which it ſhall be delivered up.

Given in council, April 3, 1801.

Convention concluded on the 3d April, 1801, between the Regency of Hanover and the Envoys of his Majeſty the King of Pruſſia.

HIS Majeſty the King of Pruſſia having cauſed to be communicated to us, by the Count de Schulembourg, general of cavalry, miniſter of ſtate, of war, and of the cabinet, and his envoy here, a declaration, written and dated at Berlin, on the 30th of March, 1801, reſpecting the meaſures which his ſaid Majeſty has reſolved to purſue in regard to the German ſtates belonging to his Majeſty the King of Great Britain and Ireland, our moſt gracious ſovereign, in his quality of Elector of Brunſwick and Lunenbourg: his Pruſſian Majeſty having beſides invited us repeatedly, and in a poſitive manner, to conform to the preſent circumſtances, to enter without delay into the new engagements which he has propoſed, and for that purpoſe to draw up a convention in the moſt obligatory form, otherwiſe his ſaid Majeſty would find himſelf obliged to treat in a hoſtile

hoſtile manner the German ſtates of the King, our moſt gracious ſovereign: we have, agreeably to circumſtances, promiſed and declared as follows:

The entrance of the Pruſſian troops into the German ſtates of his Britannic Majeſty ſhall take place without their experiencing any reſiſtance, in the hopes, however, that the number will be diminiſhed as much as poſſible, to eaſe the country and the inhabitants: they ſhall conſequently obſerve, in their full extent, all the ordinances and diſpoſitions of his Pruſſian Majeſty, both in regard to the entry of his troops and to the electoral ſtates. The Hanoverian troops, which have hitherto been employed in the army on the line of demarcation in the north of Germany, ſhall be diſbanded, as well as a proportionate number of the other troops of the Electorate. The regency of this country, the commander in chief, and the different officers of theſe troops, ſhall engage not to employ the ſaid troops, nor to ſuffer them to ſerve againſt his ſaid Pruſſian Majeſty, but to make them ſtrictly obſerve the royal ordinances, according to the different meaſures which it may be neceſſary to purſue. The ſaid troops ſhall be diſtributed in the cities of Hanover, Lunebourg, Giſborn, Welzen, and in the places and garriſons on the right of the Leine, on the left of the Aller, and behind the Luhe, as far as the Elbe. All the other places, without exception, comprehending the fortreſs of Hamela, ſhall be evacuated and delivered up to the Pruſſian troops. Particular meaſures ſhall be taken that all deliveries in kind ſhall be made by the ſaid country of Hanover, dating from the 1ſt of May this year. In regard to whatever concerns the adminiſtration of this ſtate, nothing ſhall be undertaken prejudicial to the preſent diſpoſitions and engagements; on the contrary, the ſtatutes and orders of the King, in regard to them, ſhall be punctually obſerved.

For theſe reaſons, we here accept, in the moſt ſolemn manner, the ſupreme promiſe made by his Pruſſian Majeſty, that he will guaranty to the German ſtates of his Britannic Majeſty, their ancient conſtitution, their ſafety, and their repoſe; and that all their property and poſſeſſions ſhall be protected by every means poſſible.

Done at Hanover, the 3d of April, 1801.

(Signed)

COUNT DE KILMANNSEGGE.
DE ARNSWALDY.
DE STEINBERG.
DE DECKEN.
DE WALMODEN.
SIMBORN, Field-marſhal.

Copy and Tranſlation of a Letter from the Royal College of Commerce at Copenhagen, dated the 4th of April, 1801, to Muldrup and Salveſon, his Daniſh Majeſty's Conſuls for Scotland, reſiding in Leith.

Gentlemen,

WE judge it neceſſary to make you acquainted with the actual ſituation of our affairs, as well for your government as for the information of thoſe of our nation who may be at preſent in your conſulage diſtrict.

You muſt have heard that a Britiſh fleet of 54 ſail, under com-

mand of Admirals Sir Hyde Parker and Lord Nelſon, had proceeded to the ſtraits of the Sound, with an intention to enter the Baltic. The fleet actually appeared, and having advanced towards Cronberg, Admiral Parker declared to the commandant that hoſtilities would commence; upon which the fleet began to paſs the fortreſs on the 30th of March, expoſed to an obſtinate fire from our batteries, which was returned with equal ſpirit, but without material damage to either party, as the fleet kept ſo cloſe to the Swediſh ſide that it was with difficulty our balls could reach them. After having cleared the ſtraits, the Britiſh formed themſelves in a line, in ſight of our floating batteries and the ſhips placed for our defence at the entrance of our port. There they remained tranquil until the evening of the 1ſt inſtant, when they aſſumed a more threatening poſition. On the following day (2d April) at half paſt ten o'clock in the morning, the moſt bloody and obſtinate engagement took place in our roads that has ever been remembered. Our ſailors have gained themſelves honour and glory, and if the force of defence had been equal to that of the attack, the ſucceſs would have been doubtful; but, after five hours fighting, the moſt part of our crews were either killed or wounded, the ſhips much ſhattered, and the floating batteries diſmounted; ſo that it became at laſt neceſſary to yield to ſuperior force, at leaſt triple to that which we could employ at the point of defence. The right wing of our defence was broken through by Nelſon's ſquadron; ſome of our floating batteries and ſhips of inferior ſize have fallen into the hands of the enemy. Before the engagement had ſeriouſly commenced with the fleet under Admiral Parker's orders, Nelſon ſent a flag of truce to propoſe a ſuſpenſion of hoſtilities, in order to tranſport the wounded on ſhore, which was agreed to; and the ſuſpenſion of arms has been prolonged, and hoſtilities have not yet recommenced. Nelſon was on ſhore yeſterday, and a negotiation is at preſent going forward, and every thing for the moment tranquil. We do not know preciſely how much the enemy have ſuffered, nor the number of their ſlain; but, according to information from ſome of their officers, their ſhips have been conſiderably damaged, and their loſs of men very numerous.

This, Gentlemen, is the reſult of a day ever memorable to Denmark, and honourable for the intrepidity and bravery of our warriors, whoſe conduct even the enemy has allowed to have been moſt glorious. Make theſe facts known to their countrymen, and inform them at the ſame time, that we ſhall not fail to acquaint them of the ultimate reſult of theſe events.

(Signed)
SCHIMMELMAN.
SCHESTTED.
SMIDT.
PHISSELDECK, &c.

Ukaſes publiſhed by the Emperor Alexander of Ruſſia ſhortly after his Acceſſion to the Throne, prior to the 7th of April, 1801.

IT is ordered by us, that the Britiſh ſailors and maſters that were taken from the ſeveral Britiſh

tiſh ſhips in a ſtate of ſequeſtration, and ſent to various towns throughout our dominions, ſhall be ſet at liberty, and carefully conducted to the ſeveral ports from whence they were taken.

(Signed) ALEXANDER.

AS we wiſh to afford our faithful ſubjects all means of extending their trade, which is the ſource of proſperity, as well for the ſtate as individuals; we order, that all the prohibitions hitherto made againſt the exportation of corn ſhall be removed; and we permit the exportation of all kinds of grain, conformably to the principles of the Tariff of 1797.

(Signed) ALEXANDER.

Conditions of the Convention for a Ceſſation of Arms, concluded between England and Denmark, at Copenhagen, on the 9th of April, 1801.

THE Daniſh government on the one part, and Admiral Sir Hyde Parker, Knight, commander in chief of his Britannic Majeſty's naval force in the Road of Copenhagen, on the other, equally induced by ſentiments of humanity to put a ſtop to the effuſion of blood, and preſerve the city of Copenhagen from the calamitous conſequences of the continuation of hoſtilities, have mutually agreed to a ceſſation of arms.

With this view his Majeſty the King of Denmark has appointed Major-general Erneſtus Frederic Watterſdorf, chamberlain to his Daniſh Majeſty, and colonel of a regiment, and Adjutant-general Hans Lindholm, as commiſſioners to conclude this armiſtice; and Admiral Sir Hyde Parker has, on his part, appointed Lord Horatio Nelſon, knight of the order of the Bath, duke of Bronti in Sicily, grand croſs of the orders of Ferdinand and Merit, and knight of the Auſtrian order of the Creſcent, vice-admiral of the fleet of his Britannic Majeſty; and alſo Lieutenant-colonel William Stewart, commander of a detachment of land troops on board the fleet; which commiſſioners have this day met, and, after exchanging their full powers, agreed to the following conditions:

Article I. From the moment of the ſigning of this armiſtice all hoſtilities ſhall ceaſe between the fleet under the command of Admiral Sir Hyde Parker and the city of Copenhagen, and all the armed ſhips and veſſels belonging to his Daniſh Majeſty, which ſhall be found in the road or harbour of that city; as alſo between the different provinces and iſlands of Denmark, Jutland included.

II. The armed ſhips and veſſels of his Daniſh Majeſty ſhall remain in their preſent condition, with reſpect to the manner in which they are armed, and manner as to their military poſition; and the treaty, known by the name of the Treaty of the Armed Neutrality, ſhall, ſo far as concerns the active co-operation of Denmark, remain ſuſpended, ſo long as this armiſtice ſhall continue in force.

On the other hand, armed ſhips and veſſels under the command of Admiral Sir Hyde Parker, ſhall in no manner whatever diſturb the city of Copenhagen, or the armed ſhips and veſſels of his Daniſh Majeſty, or the coaſts of the different

iſlands

iſlands and provinces of Denmark, Jutland included; and, in order to prevent every thing which may create diſturbance or ſuſpicion, Admiral Sir Hyde Parker ſhall on no account permit any ſhip or veſſel under his command to approach within cannon ſhot of the armed ſhips or fortifications of his Daniſh Majeſty in the Road of Copenhagen. This limitation ſhall, however, not extend to the ſhips which muſt neceſſarily paſs and repaſs through the King's Sound.

III. This armiſtice ſhall ſecure the city of Copenhagen, as alſo the coaſts of Denmark, Jutland, and the iſlands, againſt the attack of any other fleet of war, which now, or hereafter, during the continuance of this armiſtice, may be ſent by his Britannic Majeſty into theſe ſeas.

IV. The fleet of Admiral Sir Hyde Parker ſhall be at liberty to procure from the city of Copenhagen, and along the coaſts of the different iſlands and provinces of Denmark, Jutland included, whatever may be wanted for the health and the cure of the crews.

V. Admiral Sir Hyde Parker ſhall engage to ſend on ſhore all the ſubjects of his Daniſh Majeſty, which are at preſent on board the Britiſh fleet under his command; and the Daniſh government engages to account both for them and for the wounded which were ſuffered to come on ſhore after the battle of the 2d, in the unfortunate caſe of the renewal of hoſtilities with Great Britain.

VI. The coaſting trade of Denmark, with the different parts of the coaſt included within the extent of this armiſtice, ſhall in no manner be diſturbed by any Britiſh armed ſhip or veſſel, and Admiral Sir Hyde Parker ſhall iſſue the neceſſary inſtructions to that purpoſe.

VII. This armiſtice ſhall continue in force during the ſpace of fourteen weeks, from the day of its being ſigned by the contracting parties; after the expiration of that time, each of the ſaid parties ſhall be at liberty to declare it to be terminated, and recommence hoſtilities on giving a previous notice of fourteen days.

The conditions of this armiſtice ſhall, on every occaſion, be explained in the moſt liberal and candid manner, in order to remove every ground of future diſpute, and to facilitate the means of a reſtoration of friendſhip and good underſtanding between the two kingdoms.

In witneſs of this, we, the underſigned, according to our full powers, have ſigned and ſealed with our arms the preſent armiſtice.

Given on board his Britannic Majeſty's ſhip the London, in the Road of Copenhagen, the 9th of April, 1801.

(L. S.) E. F. Wattersdorff.
(L. S.) Nelson, Duke of Bronti.
(L. S.) H. Lindholm.
(L. S.) W. Stewart.

Ratified by me, Hyde Parker, Admiral and Commander in Chief of the Fleet of his Britannic Majeſty.

General Orders iſſued to the Engliſh Fleet on the Concluſion of the Armiſtice between Sir Hyde Parker and the Prince of Denmark.

G. O. *His Majeſty's Ship London, Copenhagen Roads, April* 10, 1801.

AN

AN armiſtice being now concluded between the Government of Copenhagen and the Commander in Chief, by which all hoſtilities are to ceaſe for the ſpace of fourteen weeks, until the courts of Great Britain and Copenhagen have arranged their preſent differences:

It is the Commander in Chief's expreſs direction, that no act of hoſtility or inſult be offered by any officer or ſeaman under his command to the Daniſh flag, as it is meant ſuch ſupplies as are wanted for the fleet are to be ſent off by Daniſh boats from the ſhore. The Commander in Chief ſtrictly prohibits any officers or boats going to the ſhore from the fleet, except by his ſpecial permiſſion firſt granted.

(Signed) W. DOMETT.

Ruſſian Imperial Declaration to Sir Hyde Parker, the Admiral of the Britiſh Fleet in the Baltic.

BY the deceaſe of his Majeſty the Emperor Paul I. of glorious memory, the ſceptre of the Ruſſian empire has deſcended by right of birth into the hands of his Imperial Majeſty, Alexander I. One of the firſt events under the government of this monarch has been, that he has accepted the offer which the Britiſh court had made to his illuſtrious predeceſſor to terminate the diſputes which threatened the ſpeedy breaking out of a war in the north of Europe, by an amicable convention. Faithful to the engagements which he has entered into with the courts of Stockholm, Berlin, and Copenhagen, his Imperial Majeſty has ſignified to them his reſolution not to act but in conjunction with his allies in whatever may concern the intereſt of the neutral powers. His Imperial Majeſty could not have expected that the Britiſh court would have undertaken a hoſtile attack upon Denmark, at the very time when its envoy at Berlin was authorized anew to enter into conferences with the Ruſſian miniſter reſiding there.

The meaſures taken by his Imperial Majeſty were only in conſequence of his wiſh for peace, and the welfare of mankind, and to avoid a deſtructive miſunderſtanding between the contending powers. The hoſtilities commenced againſt Denmark, and the arrival of a hoſtile fleet, would have fruſtrated the wiſh of his Imperial Majeſty to maintain peace, had not this attack upon his allies been before his propoſals were known to the court of London; but as the Britiſh fleet had ſailed for the Sound before his Majeſty aſcended the throne, he will wait the meaſures of the Britiſh court, when it ſhall be informed of the event.

The underſigned General of Cavalry, and Miniſter of State for Foreign Affairs, deſires, therefore, in the name of his illuſtrious ſovereign, that the Admiral in Chief of the fleet of his Britannic Majeſty ſhall deſiſt from all further hoſtilities againſt the flags of the three united powers, till his Excellency ſhall have received further directions from his ſovereign; otherwiſe the Admiral muſt be perſonally reſponſible for the conſe-

conſequences that may enſue from the proſecution of the war.

Though prepared to repel force with force, his Imperial Majeſty perſiſts in his pacific ſentiments; but the juſtice and moderation of the cabinet of London muſt enable him to reconcile the demands of humanity with the duties which he owes to the honour of his crown, and the intereſts of his allies.

(Signed)
VON DER PAHLEN.

This article was publiſhed at Stockholm prior to the 8th of May, 1801.

Subſtance of the Declaration of the Ruſſian Envoy to the Deputies of the Elector of Hanover, on the 27th April, 1801.

THAT the ſentiments of the new Emperor of Ruſſia being entirely conformable to the views of the King of Pruſſia, and the principles which dictate his conduct, it had been reſolved on both parts to put an end to all hoſtile meaſures againſt England, and to terminate amicably the diſputes which have ariſen between the court of London and the allied powers of the North; and that to this effect he had diſpatched a courier to Copenhagen, to invite his Daniſh Majeſty to order his troops to evacuate the town and territory of Hamburgh, and to eſtabliſh the freedom of navigation on the Elbe. The Pruſſian miniſter at the ſame time declared to Mr. Pelrich, deputy from Bremen, that the Pruſſian troops would evacuate the territory of Bremen and the electorate of Hanover, as ſoon as it ſhould be aſcertained that a certain power would not occupy theſe countries.

Declaration delivered in Writing by his Highneſs Field-marſhal Prince of Heſſe to the Moſt Noble Council of Hamburgh, on the 20th May, 1801.

AN eſſential alteration having taken place in political relations in conſequence of late events, the King my maſter has been induced likewiſe to make changes in the meaſures he had adopted.

His Majeſty has thought proper to remove the obſtruction to the Engliſh navigation and trade on the Elbe, which he had conſidered as neceſſary to oppoſe the hoſtilities commenced by England; and in conſequence of a convention concluded between me and the Engliſh envoy, reſiding in the circle of Lower Saxony, and which has been made public, the free navigation of the Elbe is already reſtored. The preſent change of circumſtances has however removed the neceſſity of the object which his Majeſty propoſed in the occupation of Hamburgh by his troops, that is, the obſtruction of the trade and navigation of England on the Elbe; and as his Majeſty, when he reſolved on this meaſure, ſolemnly and publicly declared by me, that he only yielded to the imperious and unavoidable preſſure of circumſtances, he is the more readily inclined to limit its enforcement to the duration of thoſe relations which produced its neceſſity.

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His Majeſty has therefore commanded me to withdraw the troops under my command, from the free Imperial city of Hamburgh and its territory. On this occaſion it is my duty to teſtify the particular ſatisfaction of his Majeſty, and my own acknowledgments for the orderly and peaceable behaviour of the inhabitants of this city, both at the time of their entrance and during their ſtay, and for the ſuitable regulations made by the magiſtracy and ſenate in that reſpect.

Note from the Hanoverian Miniſtry to the Royal Pruſſian Directorial Counſellor Von Dohm, reſpecting the withdrawing of the Pruſſian Troops from the Electorate of Hanover.

Hanover, June 14, 1801.

HIS Majeſty the King of Pruſſia having in the beginning of April of the preſent year, unexpectedly ordered that corps of his troops hitherto acting with the army of obſervation, formed for the general defence, to take poſſeſſion of the diſtricts in Germany belonging to his Britannic Majeſty, as Elector of Brunſwick and Luneburg, the cauſes and motives which induced his Majeſty the King of Pruſſia to reſort to this extraordinary and unexpected meaſure, were ſtated to the German miniſtry of his Britannic Majeſty, in a written declaration of the 30th of March of the preſent year, on the part of his Pruſſian Majeſty, by his miniſter of ſtate, of war, and of the cabinet, Count Schulenberg, ſent to Hanover for that purpoſe. Theſe cauſes and motives were founded on the differences that had ariſen between his Britannic Majeſty and the crowns of Denmark and Sweden, on account of the Peterſburgh convention of the 16th of December, 1800; on the proceedings of England againſt Denmark and Sweden; on the engagements of his Pruſſian Majeſty for his allies, agreeably to his acceſſion to the Peterſburgh convention, and particularly on the circumſtance that England would not reſort to means for an amicable ſettlement of theſe differences. Hence his Pruſſian Majeſty deduced his reſolution "not only to ſhut up the mouths of the Elbe, Weſer, and Ems, but alſo to take poſſeſſion of the ſtates of his Majeſty the King of the united iſlands of Great Britain and Ireland, ſituated in Germany, and belonging to him as Elector of Brunſwick and Luneburg." His Pruſſian Majeſty added, in his letter addreſſed to his Britannic Majeſty's German miniſters at Hanover, "that the ſaid declaration related to the differences that had ariſen between England and the Northern Powers, and was to be conſidered merely as a neceſſary conſequence of the diſagreeable circumſtances that had taken place." By the circumſtances and cauſes therefore, aſſigned as the reaſon on the part of Pruſſia, the agreement was relative, which his Britannic Majeſty's German miniſtry, together with the general commanding his German troops, were obliged to enter into on the 3d of April of the preſent year, and whereby, under the exiſting circumſtances, the entrance of the Pruſſian troops, and their maintenance by the King's German poſſeſſions, were agreed to.

It is now well known that the cir-

circumſtances and cauſes formerly exiſting have been entirely changed and removed in the courſe of the month of April, and ſtill more in the courſe of the month of May; ſo that circumſtances, at preſent, are rather the reverſe. Hoſtilities have ceaſed between England and the Northern Powers; and ſo far from rejecting means for an amicable ſettlement, immediate friendly miſſions have even taken place on both ſides; and the crowns of Denmark and Sweden, imitating the wiſe ſentiments of his Majeſty the preſent Emperor of Ruſſia, are actually engaged in amicably ſettling the differences with the Britiſh government. The happy iſſue of theſe peaceable negotiations not being doubted by any of the parties, the Britiſh government began rendering commerce free in the Baltic; Ruſſia, Denmark, and Sweden have reſtored the commercial intercourſe by public declarations; and the embargo formerly laid on Engliſh ſhips in Ruſſia is again taken off. His Majeſty the King of Pruſſia having, during the courſe of theſe ſucceſſive changes, permitted all commercial and other intercourſe with his Britannic Majeſty's ſubjects, which has likewiſe remained undiſturbed by England, with reſpect to the Pruſſian ſtates, it is evident that his Pruſſian Majeſty has no longer any cauſe for allowing meaſures to be taken, on his part, againſt the crown of England. But his Majeſty the King of Pruſſia has alſo declared already that the meaſures which had been formerly taken, could now no longer be deemed applicable and expedient; ſo that, on the part of Pruſſia, the ſhutting up of the rivers is entirely annulled, and the navigation of the Elbe and Weſer has been again declared free. His Majeſty the King of Pruſſia, from the ſame conſideration, has likewiſe demanded from the crown of Denmark, and effected the evacuation of Hamburgh and Lubeck, and withdrawn the troops that had been ſtationed in the Dutchy of Oldenburg, for the purpoſe of occupying the left banks of the Weſer.

It is impoſſible, therefore, that the occupation of his Britannic Majeſty's dominions, which had been connected with the ſhutting up of the rivers, and grounded on the ſame cauſes, can alone remain and continue. On the contrary, it appears evidently, from the whole courſe of the proceedings, that the cauſes no longer any where exiſt which furniſhed the ground for the letter addreſſed to the King's miniſtry here by the King of Pruſſia, on the 30th of March, the declaration made by his Majeſty in conſequence thereof, and the agreement afterwards entered into. It is impoſſible to conſider this agreeably to his Majeſty's wiſdom and juſtice, but as ſomething which cannot be miſtaken by him, and which, in the events already ſtated, has already been admitted and acknowledged by his Majeſty. The ſentiments which his Majeſty the King of Pruſſia entertains for his Britannic Majeſty, and the friendly relations ſubſiſting between him and the crown of England, will, therefore, leave no doubts on this ſubject, without being under the neceſſity of recurring to the nature of the conſtitution of the German Empire, and the union of its ſtates with each other, with reſpect to this buſineſs, which relates entirely

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to a foreign kingdom, and which has always been, and will ever remain, foreign to the dominions which his Majeſty poſſeſſes as Elector, and as a ſtate of the German Empire.

All this is grounded on the firm confidence which his Britannic Majeſty here wiſhes to manifeſt, that his Majeſty the King of Pruſſia will not heſitate to withdraw his troops from his Majeſty's German dominions; and that maintenance will no longer be demanded for theſe troops, which has been ſo burdenſome to the country. The King's miniſter has, for this purpoſe, addreſſed this note to the Pruſſian directorial counſellor, Von Dohm, entreating him, at the ſame time, to forward it to his court, and to effect a ſpeedy reſolution in conſequence.

(Signed) L. S. By the ROYAL and ELECTORAL MINISTRY.

To the Royal Pruſſian Directorial Counſellor, Von Dohm, at Horneburgh.

Subſtance of the Treaty of Amity, Commerce and Navigation, concluded between Sweden and Ruſſia, at Peterſburgh, on the 1ſt (13th) of March, and ratified at Landſcrona on the 11th of April, and at St. Peterſburgh on the 30th of May (11th June) 1801.

ART. I. There ſhall be a durable peace and true friendſhip between the two realms, and their ſubjects ſhall mutually aſſiſt each other, particularly in tranſactions of commerce and navigation.

II.—III. The Swedes ſhall enjoy full liberty of commerce in Ruſſia, and the Ruſſians in Sweden, and ſimilar protection with the ſubjects of the two countries; but they ſhall not deal in goods, the importation and exportation of which are prohibited.

IV. In order to obviate any inconveniences that might ariſe from an undefined extenſion of this liberty of commerce, both parties have agreed to limit it to all the ports of the two ſtates, without diſtinction; and, as to the commerce in the country, to certain places on the frontiers of the Ruſſian and Swediſh parts of Finland. In theſe frontier places, the ſubjects of the two powers, without going farther into the country, may carry on a wholeſale, but not retail trade, and traffic with ſuch merchants as arrive there from remote diſtricts. Travelling merchants and hawkers of both nations ſhall not be ſuffered, but conſidered as ſmugglers.

V.—VII. The ſubjects of both powers ſhall pay the ſame importation and exportation duties on goods, and in the ſame coin, as the natives of the country to which they trade. They ſhall likewiſe enjoy all legal protection, the free exerciſe of their religion, and the right of leaving the country with their property.

VIII. The merchants of both nations may keep their books in what language they pleaſe, and never ſhall be forced to produce them, excepting in law ſuits, and then only ſuch extracts as are abſolutely neceſſary for clearing up the point conteſted.

IX. X. In caſe of bankruptcy or differences, the ſubjects of either power ſhall be treated agreeably

ably to the laws of the country in which they then reſide. If the ſubject of one power dies in the country of the other, without heirs, his property ſhall, within the ſpace of five years, belong to the government of the country in which he died, if, after a proclamation inſerted in the newſpapers three times, no heir ſhould apply.

XI.—XIII. The reſpective conſuls-general and conſuls ſhall be under the particular protection of the laws, and enjoy the ſame rights and liberties as thoſe of the moſt favoured nations. Sailors who have deſerted ſhall be delivered up by both parties even in foreign ports. Merchant-veſſels ſhall, on no account, take paſſengers without paſſports, or goods without proper certificates. With reſpect to contraband, and the puniſhment of perſons importing it, the laws of the two countries ſhall decide.

XIV. Swediſh alum, ſalt herrings, and ſalt, imported from Sweden into Ruſſia, (Peterſburgh excepted) ſhall pay only one half of the duties mentioned in the regulations of the cuſtoms; and ſmoked herrings imported from Sweden, only one third.

XV. All the produce of Swediſh Finland, even wood, may be imported into Ruſſian Finland (which had hitherto not been the caſe) free from all duties; and the wood from Swediſh Finland may be exported from Wiburg and Fidrickſham.

XVII. Hemp, linen, and tallow, imported into Sweden from Ruſſia, ſhall only pay one half, and linſeed two thirds of the duties hitherto paid. The Ruſſians ſhall remain in poſſeſſion of their ſtorehouſes at Stockholm, the limits of which are to be enlarged.

XVIII. XIX. Contain regulations for preventing Ruſſians and Swedes from navigating foreign ſhips and goods as their own.

XX. XXI. Not more than four ſhips of war of one power ſhall enter the fortified ports of the other at one time, if ſpecial permiſſion has not been granted for a greater number. Ships of war as well as merchant-veſſels, that have ſuffered by ſtorms and other accidents, may be repaired in the ports of the other power.

XXII. XXIII. If ſhips of war of the two powers, the commanders of which are of the ſame rank, meet at ſea, no ſaluting ſhall take place; the commander of inferior rank, however, ſhall ſalute the commander of higher rank, who ſhall return the ſalute, ſhot for ſhot. Ships that have ſtranded, ſhall receive all poſſible aſſiſtance.

XXIV. If one of the contracting parties happens to be at war with other ſtates, the ſubjects of the other party ſhall not, on that account, be prevented from continuing their commerce and navigation with thoſe ſtates, on condition that they do not ſupply theſe ſtates with contraband. Convinced of the principles laid down in the convention concluded at St. Peterſburgh, on the 16th of December, laſt year, for the general good of trading nations, the two crowns declare that they make it the undeviable rule of their conduct. They further declare, that they acknowledge the following principles:—1ſt, That neutral

neutral ships may freely sail for the ports and coasts of the belligerent powers.—2d. That, with exception of warlike contraband, the goods of subjects of the belligerent powers in neutral bottoms are free.—3d. That such ports only are to be considered as blockaded, where, from the proximity of ships of war, there shall actually be danger in entering.—4th, The neutral vessels can be detained only on just grounds, and evident facts.—5th, That no convoy shall be searched when the commander of the ship of war convoying them declares that there is no contraband on board.

XXV.—XXVII. In time of war, one power may shut its ports against the privateers and prizes of the other that is engaged in war. The following articles only are declared to be contraband, viz. guns, mortars, firelocks, pistols, bombs, grenades, balls, muskets, flints, matches, powder, saltpetre, sulphur, cuirasses, pikes, swords, sword-belts, cartridge-boxes, saddles and bridles. All other goods in neutral bottoms, are to be considered as neutral property.

XXVIII. The power engaged in war shall grant leave for fitting out privateers to such of its subjects only as reside in the country, and are able to find security for the damage they may do to neutral vessels.

XXIX. If either of the two powers should be at war with another state, its ships of war and privateers shall be allowed to search such merchant-ships of the other power as are not under convoy; but only two or three men shall be sent on board to investigate the legality and neutrality of the cargo.

XXX. If any such ship should have contraband on board, that only, and nothing else, shall be taken and confiscated.

XXXII. XXXIII. If one of the powers is carrying on war the subjects of the other shall enjoy in the country of such power, all liberty and security as before, and its men and ships shall not be employed in military services. In cases of bankruptcy of the subjects of either country, trustees of the estate shall be appointed.

XXXIV. If a war should break out between the two powers, the space of a twelvemonth, from the date of the declaration of war, shall be allowed to their respective trading subjects, for withdrawing their property from the country of the other.

XXXV. XXXVI. The present treaty is concluded for twelve years, and signed by

Count STEDINGK,
Prince KURAKIN,
Count VON DER PAHLEN,
And Prince SAGAZIN.

[Here follow the ratifications of Gustavus Adolphus, and Alexander I.]

Copy of the Convention with the Court of London, signed at St. Petersburgh, the 5th (17th) June, 1801.

In the Name of the Most Holy and Undivided Trinity.

THE mutual desire of his Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias and of his Majesty the King of the

the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, being not only to come to an underſtanding between themſelves with reſpect to the differences which have lately interrupted the good underſtanding and friendly relations which ſubſiſted between the two ſtates; but alſo to prevent, by frank and preciſe explanations upon the navigation of their reſpective ſubjects the renewal of ſimilar altercations and troubles which might be the conſequence of them; and the object of the ſolicitude of their ſaid Majeſties being to ſettle, as ſoon as can be done, an equitable arrangement of thoſe differences, and an invariable determination of their principles upon the rights of neutrality, in their application to their reſpective monarchies, in order to unite more cloſely the ties of friendſhip and good intercourſe, of which they acknowledge the utility and the benefits, have named and choſen for their plenipotentiaries, viz. his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias, their Sieur Nequita, Count de Panen, his counſellor, &c. and his Majeſty the King of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Alleyn, Baron St. Helens, privy counſellor, &c. who, after having communicated their full powers, and found them in good and due form, have agreed upon the following points and articles:

Art. I. There ſhall be hereafter between his Imperial Majeſty of all the Ruſſias and his Britannic Majeſty, their ſubjects, the ſtates and countries under their domination, good and unalterable friendſhip and underſtanding; and all the political, commercial, and other relations of common utility between the reſpective ſubjects, ſhall ſubſiſt as formerly, without their being diſturbed or troubled in any manner whatever.

II. His Majeſty the Emperor and his Britannic Majeſty declare, that they will take the moſt eſpecial care of the execution of the prohibitions againſt the trade of contraband of their ſubjects with the enemies of each of the high contracting parties.

III. His Imperial Majeſty of all the Ruſſias and his Britannic Majeſty having reſolved to place under a ſufficient ſafeguard the freedom of commerce and navigation of their ſubjects, in caſe one of them ſhall be at war, whilſt the other ſhall be neuter, have agreed:

1. That the ſhips of the neutral power ſhall navigate freely to the ports and upon the coaſts of the nations at war.

2. That the effects embarked on board neutral ſhips ſhall be free, with the exception of contraband of war, and of enemy's property; and it is agreed not to compriſe in the number of the latter, the merchandiſe of the produce, growth, or manufacture of the countries at war, which ſhould have been acquired by the ſubjects of the neutral power, and ſhould be tranſported for their account, which merchandiſe cannot be excepted in any caſe from the freedom granted to the flag of the ſaid power.

3. That, in order to avoid all equivocation and miſunderſtanding of what ought to be qualified as contraband of war, his Imperial Majeſty of all the Ruſſias and his Britannic Majeſty declare, conformably to the 11th article of the treaty

treaty of commerce concluded between the two crowns on the 10th (21ſt) February 1797, that they acknowledge as ſuch only the following objects, viz. cannons, mortars, fire-arms, piſtols, bombs, grenades, balls, bullets, firelocks, flints, matches, powder, ſaltpetre, ſulphur, helmets, pikes, ſwords, ſword-belts, pouches, ſaddles and bridles, excepting, however, the quantity of the ſaid articles which may be neceſſary for the defence of the ſhip and of thoſe who compoſe the crew; and all other articles whatever, not enumerated here, ſhall not be reputed warlike and naval ammunition, nor be ſubject to confiſcation, and of courſe ſhall paſs freely, without being ſubjected to the ſmalleſt difficulty, unleſs they be conſidered as enemy's property in the above ſettled ſenſe. It is alſo agreed, that that which is ſtipulated in the preſent article ſhall not be to the prejudice of the particular ſtipulations of one or the other crown with other powers, by which objects of a ſimilar kind ſhould be reſerved, prohibited, or permitted.

4. That in order to determine what characteriſes a blockaded port, that denomination is given only to that where there is, by the diſpoſition of the power which attacks it with ſhips ſtationary, or ſufficiently near, an evident danger in entering.

5. That the ſhips of the neutral power ſhall not be ſtopped but upon juſt cauſes and evident facts: that they be tried without delay, and that the proceeding be always uniform, prompt and legal.

In order the better to enſure the reſpect due to theſe ſtipulations, dictated by the ſincere deſire of conciliating all intereſts, and to give a new proof of their loyalty and love of juſtice, the high contracting parties enter here into the moſt formal engagement, to renew the ſevereſt prohibitions to their captains, whether of ſhips of war or merchantmen, to take, keep, or conceal on board their ſhips, any of the objects which, in the terms of the preſent convention, may be reputed contraband, and reſpectively to take care of the execution of the orders which they ſhall have publiſhed in their admiralties, and wherever it ſhall be neceſſary.

IV. The two high contracting parties, wiſhing to prevent all ſubject of diſſenſion in future, by limiting the right of ſearch of merchant-ſhips going under convoy, to the ſole cauſes in which the belligerent power may experience a real prejudice, by the abuſe of the neutral flag, have agreed,

1. That the right of ſearching merchant-ſhips belonging to the ſubjects of one of the contracting powers, and navigating under convoy of a ſhip of war of the ſaid power, ſhall only be exerciſed by ſhips of war of the belligerent party, and ſhall never extend to the fitters-out of privateers, or other veſſels, which do not belong to the Imperial or Royal fleet of their Majeſties, but which their ſubject ſhall have fitted out for war.

2. That the proprietors of all merchant ſhips belonging to the ſubjects of one of the contracting ſovereigns, which ſhall be deſtined to ſail under convoy of a ſhip of war, ſhall be required, be-

fore they receive their ſailing orders, to produce, to the commander of the convoy their paſſports and certificates, or ſea letters, in the form annexed to the preſent treaty.

3. That when ſuch ſhip of war, and every merchant-ſhip under convoy, ſhall be met with by a a ſhip or ſhips of war of the other contracting party, who ſhall then be in a ſtate of war, in order to avoid all diſorder, they ſhall keep out of cannon-ſhot, unleſs the ſituation of the ſea, or the place of meeting, render a nearer approach neceſſary; and the commander of the ſhip of the belligerent power ſhall ſend a ſloop on board the convoy, where they ſhall proceed reciprocally to the verification of the papers and certificates that are to prove on one part, that the ſhip of war is authorized to take under its eſcort ſuch or ſuch merchant ſhips of its nation, laden with ſuch a cargo, and for ſuch a port: on the other part, that the ſhip of war of the belligerent party belongs to the Imperial or Royal fleet of their Majeſties.

4. This verification made, there ſhall be no pretence for any ſearch, if the papers are found in due form, and if there exiſts no good motive for ſuſpicion. In the contrary caſe, the captain of the neutral ſhip of war (being duly required thereto by the captain of the ſhip of war, or ſhips of war, of the belligerent power) is to bring to and detain his convoy during the time neceſſary for the ſearch of the ſhips which compoſe it, and he ſhall have the faculty of naming and delegating one or more officers to aſſiſt at the ſearch of the ſaid ſhips, which ſhall be done in his preſence on board each merchant-ſhip, conjointly with one or more officers ſelected by the captain of the ſhip of the belligerent party.

5. If it happen that the captain of the ſhip or ſhips of war of the power at war, having examined the papers found on board, and having interrogated the maſter and crew of the ſhip, ſhall ſee juſt and ſufficient reaſon to detain the merchant ſhip, in order to proceed to an ulterior ſearch, he ſhall notify that intention to the captain of the convoy, who ſhall have the power to order an officer to remain on board the ſhip thus detained, and to aſſiſt at the examination of the cauſe of her detention. The merchant-ſhip ſhall be carried immediately to the neareſt and moſt convenient port belonging to the belligerent power, and the ulterior ſearch ſhall be carried on with all poſſible diligence.

V. It is alſo agreed, that if any merchant-ſhip thus convoyed ſhould be detained without juſt and ſufficient cauſe, the commander of the ſhip or ſhips of war of the belligerent power, ſhall not only be bound to make to the owners of the ſhip and of the cargo a full and perfect compenſation for all the loſſes, expenſes, damages, and coſts, occaſioned by ſuch a detention, but ſhall further be liable to an ulterior puniſhment for every act of violence or other fault which he may have committed according as the nature of the caſe may require. On the other hand, no ſhip of war with a convoy ſhall be permitted, under any pretext whatſoever, to reſiſt by force the detention of a merchant

chant ſhip or ſhips by the ſhip or ſhips of war of the belligerent power; an obligation which the commander of a ſhip of war with convoy is not bound to obſerve towards privateers and their fitters-out.

VI. The high contracting powers ſhall give preciſe and efficacious orders that the ſentences upon prizes made at ſea ſhall be conformable with the rules of the moſt exact juſtice and equity; that they ſhall be given by judges above ſuſpicion, and who ſhall not be intereſted in the matter. The Government of the reſpective ſtates ſhall take care that the ſaid ſentences ſhall be promptly and duly executed, according to the forms preſcribed. In caſe of the unfounded detention, or other contravention of the regulations ſtipulated by the preſent treaty, the owners of ſuch a ſhip and cargo ſhall be allowed damages proportioned to the loſs occaſioned by ſuch detention. The rules to obſerve for theſe damages, and for the caſe of unfounded detention, as alſo the principles to follow for the purpoſe of accelerating the proceſs, ſhall be the matter of additional articles, which the contracting parties agree to ſettle between them, and which ſhall have the ſame force and validity as if they were inſerted in the preſent act. For this effect their Imperial and Britannic Majeſties mutually engage to put their hand to the ſalutary work which may ſerve for the completion of theſe ſtipulations, and to communicate to each other without delay the views which may be ſuggeſted to them by their equal olicitude to prevent the leaſt grounds for diſpute in future.

VII. To obviate all the inconveniencies which may ariſe from the bad faith of thoſe who avail themſelves of the flag of a nation without belonging to it, it is agreed to eſtabliſh for an inviolable rule, that any veſſel whatever, to be conſidered as the property of the country the flag of which it carries, muſt have on board the captain of the ſhip, and one half of the crew of the people of that country, and the papers and paſſports in due and perfect form; but every veſſel which ſhall not obſerve this rule, and which ſhall infringe the ordinances publiſhed on that head, ſhall loſe all rights to the protection of the contracting powers.

VIII. The principles and meaſures adopted by the preſent act ſhall be alike applicable to all the maritime wars in which one of the two powers may be engaged whilſt the other remains neutral. Theſe ſtipulations ſhall in conſequence be regarded as permanent, and ſhall ſerve for a conſtant rule to the contracting powers in matters of commerce and navigation.

IX. His Majeſty the King of Denmark, and his Majeſty the King of Sweden, ſhall be immediately invited by his Imperial Majeſty, in the name of the two contracting parties, to accede to the preſent convention, and at the ſame time to renew and confirm their reſpective treaties of commerce with his Britannic Majeſty; and his ſaid Majeſty engages, by acts which ſhall have eſtabliſhed that agreement, to ren-

der and reſtore to each of theſe powers, all the prizes that have been taken from them, as well as the territories and countries under their domination, which have been conquered by the arms of his Britannic Majeſty ſince the rupture, in the ſtate in which thoſe poſſeſſions were found, at the period at which the troops of his Britannic Majeſty entered them. The orders of his ſaid Majeſty for the reſtitution of thoſe prizes and conqueſts ſhall be immediately expedited after the exchange of the ratification of the acts by which Sweden and Denmark ſhall accede to the preſent treaty.

X. The preſent convention ſhall be ratified by the two contracting parties, and the ratifications exchanged at St. Peterſburgh in the ſpace of two months at furtheſt, from the day of the ſignature. In faith of which the reſpective plenipotentiaries have cauſed to be made two copies perfectly ſimilar, ſigned with their hands, and have ſealed with their arms.

Done at St. Peterſburgh the 5th (17th June) 1801.

(L. S.) N. Count De Panen.
(L. S.) St. Helens.

Formula of the Paſſports and Sea Letters which ought to be delivered in the reſpective Admiralties of the States of the two high contracting Parties, to the Ships of War, and Merchant-veſſels which ſhall ſail from them, conformable to Article IV. of the preſent Treaty.

BE it known that we have given leave and permiſſion to N——, of the city or place of N——, maſter or conductor of the ſhip N——, belonging to N——, of the port of N——, of——tons or thereabouts, now lying in the port or harbour of N——, to ſail from thence to N——, laden with N——, on account of N——, after the ſaid ſhip ſhall have been viſited before its departure in the uſual manner by the officers appointed for that purpoſe; and the ſaid N——, or ſuch other as ſhall be veſted with powers to replace him, ſhall be obliged to produce, in every port or harbour which he ſhall enter with the ſaid veſſel, to the officers of the place, the preſent licenſe, and to carry the flag of N—— during his voyage.

In faith of which, &c.

Copy of the 1ſt ſeparate Article of the Convention with the Court of London, ſigned the 5th (17th) June 1801.

The pure and magnanimous intentions of his Majeſty, the Emperor of all the Ruſſias, having already induced him to reſtore the veſſels and goods of Britiſh ſubjects, which had been ſequeſtered in Ruſſia, his ſaid Majeſty confirms that diſpoſition in its whole extent; and his Britannic Majeſty engages alſo to give immediate orders for taking off all ſequeſtration laid upon the Ruſſian, Daniſh, and Swediſh properties, detained in Engliſh ports, and to prove ſtill more his ſincere deſire to terminate amicably the differences which have ariſen between Great Britain and the Northern Courts; and in order that

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no new incident may throw obſtacles in the way of this ſalutary work, his Britannic Majeſty binds himſelf to give orders to the commanders of his forces by land and ſea, that the armiſtice now ſubſiſting with the courts of Denmark and Sweden ſhall be prolonged for a term of three months from the date of this day; and his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias, guided by the ſame motives, undertakes in the name of his allies, to have this armiſtice maintained during the ſaid term.

This ſeparate article, &c.
In faith of which, &c.

Copy of the 2d ſeparate Article of the Convention with the Court of London, ſigned at St. Peterſburgh the 5th (17th) of June 1801.

THE differences and miſunderſtandings which ſubſiſted between his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias, and his Majeſty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, being thus terminated, and the precautions taken by the preſent convention not giving further room to fear that they may be able to diſturb in future the harmony and good underſtanding which the two high contracting parties have at heart to conſolidate, their ſaid Majeſties confirm anew, by the preſent convention, the treaty of commerce of the 10th (February 21, 1797), of which all the ſtipulations are here repeated, to be maintained in their whole extent.

This ſeparate article, &c.
In faith of which, &c.

Additional Articles to the Convention between England and Ruſſia, of the 17th June, 1801.

IT having been reſolved, by the 5th article of the convention, concluded on the 17th June 1801, between his Imperial Majeſty Ruſſia and his Britiſh Majeſty, that both the high contracting powers ſhould mutually agree upon certain ſeparate articles for the eſtabliſhing of thoſe rules and principles which are to be followed with a view to promote a ſpeedy deciſion in reſpect to prizes made in the open ſea, as well as with reſpect to the indemnification which is due to the proprietors of neutral ſhips and cargoes in caſe of a groundleſs detention :——Their Majeſties have for that purpoſe named and veſted with full power; his Imperial Majeſty of Ruſſia, Alexander Prince Kurakin, his vice-chancellor, &c. and Victor Count Kotſchowbey, his actual privy counſellor, &c.; and his Majeſty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Alleyn Lord Baron St. Helens, peer of the ſaid united kingdom, &c.; who by virtue of their reſpective full powers, have agreed upon the following articles:

Art. I. In caſe of a groundleſs detention, or other tranſgreſſion of rules mutually eſtabliſhed, there ſhall be paid to the owners of the ſhips ſo detained and of their cargo, for each day's delay, a recompenſe in proportion to the loſs ſuſtained, reckoning according to the freight of the ſhip, and the quality of the cargo.

II. In caſe the miniſters of the contracting parties or other perſons accredited by them, with the

belligerent powers, ſhall happen to complain of the ſentence given on ſuch prizes by the reſpective courts of admiralty, the buſineſs ſhall be immediately referred by appeal, in Ruſſia, to the directing Senate, and in Great Britain to the King's Council.

III. Both ſides ſhall carefully examine whether the regulations and proviſions in the preſent convention have been obſerved, which muſt be done in the ſpeedieſt manner. Both contracting parties engage further to adopt the moſt effectual means to prevent every unneceſſary delay in reſpect to the ſentences to be pronounced in the reſpective tribunals, on prizes made in the open ſea.

IV. The effects detained ſhall neither be ſold nor unloaded before a final ſentence, unleſs in the caſe of a really preſſing neceſſity, ſhewn to the court of admiralty by a commiſſion appointed for that purpoſe; and it ſhall by no means be permitted to the captors to unload of their own authority, or to carry away any thing from ſhips ſo detained.

Theſe ſeparate articles, which form a part of the convention, ſigned on the 17th of June, in the names of their Imperial Ruſſian and Britannic Majeſties, ſhall have the ſame force and effect as if they were word for word inſerted in the ſaid convention.

Signed at Moſcow, October 20, 1801.

Prince KURAKIN.
Count KOTSCHOWBEY.
ST. HELENS.

Declaration explanatory of the Second Section of the Third Article of the Convention, concluded at Peterſburgh the 5th (17th) June 1801, between his Majeſty and the Emperor of Ruſſia, ſigned at Moſcow the 8th (20th) October 1801.

IN order to prevent any doubt or miſunderſtanding with regard to the contents of the ſecond ſection of the third article of the convention, concluded, 5th (17th) June 1801, between his Britannic Majeſty and his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias, the ſaid high contracting parties have agreed and declare, that the freedom of commerce and navigation granted by the ſaid article to the ſubjects of a neutral power, does not authorize them to carry, in time of war, the produce or merchandiſe of the colonies of the belligerent power, direct to the continental poſſeſſions, nor *vice verſa*, from the mother-country to the enemy's colonies; but that the ſaid ſubjects are however to enjoy the ſame advantages and facilities in this commerce as are enjoyed by the moſt favoured nations, and eſpecially by the United States of America.

In witneſs whereof, we, plenipotentiaries of their ſaid Majeſties, have ſigned the preſent declaration, and have affixed the ſeals of our arms thereto.

At Moſcow, the 8th (20th) October, 1801.

(L. S.) ST. HELENS.
(L. S.) Le Prince de KOURAKIN.
(L. S.) Le Comte de KOTSCHOUBEY.

Act of Acceſſion of his Majeſty the King

King of Denmark and Norway to the Convention of the 5th (17th) June 1801, and Acceptance of his Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

In the name of the Most Holy and Undivided Trinity.

HIS Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and his Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, having, in pursuance of their mutual desire to terminate, in the most equitable manner, the differences which had arisen between them, as well as between Great Britain and the other maritime powers of the North, respecting the navigation of their respective subjects, concluded a convention, signed by their plenipotentiaries at St. Petersburgh, the 5th (17th) June of the present year: and their common solicitude extending itself not only to prevent similar altercations in future, and the troubles which might result therefrom, by establishing and applying the principles and rights of neutrality in the respective monarchies, but also to render this system common and equally advantageous to the maritime powers of the North; it was stipulated by the ninth article of the said convention, that his Danish Majesty should be invited by his Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, in the name of the high contracting parties, to accede to the said convention; and his Majesty the King of Denmark and Norway, animated with the same sentiments of conciliation and peace, and desirous of removing every thing which has interrupted or might hereafter interrupt the good understanding between their Britannic and Danish Majesties, and to re-establish fully on its former footing the ancient harmony and state of things, such as they existed by his Danish Majesty's treaties and conventions with Great Britain, his said Majesty has not hesitated to listen to the invitation made to him to accede to the said convention, signed at St. Petersburgh the 5th (17th) June last.

To effect this salutary purpose, and to give to this act of accession, and to the acceptance of his Britannic Majesty, every possible authenticity, and every accustomed solemnity, their said Majesties have named for their plenipotentiaries, viz. his Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Alleyn Lord Baron St. Helens, a peer of the said United Kingdom, one of his said Majesty's most honourable privy council, and his ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary to his Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias; and his Majesty the King of Denmark and Norway, the Sieur Francis Xavier Joseph Count de Danneskiold Löwendal, Count of the Holy Roman Empire, knight of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem, major-general in the service of his Danish Majesty, commander of his marine forces, and his envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary to his Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias; who, after having reciprocally exchanged their full powers, found to be in good and due form, have concluded

cluded and agreed, that all the articles of the convention concluded between his Majeſty the king of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias, the 5th (17th) June of the preſent year, as well as the ſeparate articles annexed thereto, and the additional ones concluded the 8th (20th) October 1801, by the plenipotentiaries of their ſaid Majeſties, in all the clauſes, conditions, and obligations, are to be conſidered as having been agreed upon, done, and concluded, word for word, by their Britannic and Daniſh Majeſties themſelves, in quality of principal contracting parties, ſave and except the diferences which reſult from the nature of the treaties and engagements antecedently ſubſiſting between England and Denmark, of which the continuance and renewal are ſecured by the aforeſaid convention; and with the expreſs ſtipulation on the part of the high contracting and acceding parties, that the ſtipulation of the ſecond article of the additional articles, ſigned at Moſcow the 8th (20th) October 1801, by the plenipotentiaries of their Britannic and Imperial Majeſties, which fixes that the adjudication of cauſes in litigation ſhall, in the laſt reſort, be carried by appeal, in Ruſſia, before the Directing Senate, and in Great Britain, before his Majeſty's Privy Council, is to be underſtood, as with regard to Denmark, that the ſaid adjudications ſhall be there carried by appeal before the Supreme Tribunal of that kingdom.

In order to prevent any inaccuracy, it has been agreed that the ſaid convention, ſigned the 5th (17th) June, the ſeparate articles annexed thereto, and the additional ones concluded the 8th (20th) October 1801, ſhould be inſerted here, word for word.

[Fiat inſertio.]

In conſequence of all which, his Majeſty the King of Denmark accedes by virtue of the preſent act, to the ſaid convention, and to the ſaid ſeparate and additional articles, ſuch as they are herein before tranſcribed, without any exception or reſerve, declaring and promiſing to fulfil all the clauſes, conditions, and obligations thereof, as far as regards himſelf; and his Majeſty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland accepts the preſent acceſſion of his Daniſh Majeſty, and in like manner promiſes, on his part, to fulfil all the articles, clauſes, and conditions contained in the ſaid convention, and the ſeparate and additional articles herein before inſerted, without any exception or reſerve.

The ratifications of the preſent act of acceſſion and acceptance ſhall be exchanged in the ſpace of two months or ſooner if poſſible; and the ſtipulations of the ſaid convention ſhall, at the ſame time, be carried into execution as ſpeedily as poſſible, regard being had to the full and entire re-eſtabliſhment of the ſtate of things, ſuch as it was before the period of the miſunderſtandings, which are now ſo happily terminated.

In witneſs whereof, we the underſigned, by virtue of our full powers, have ſigned the preſent act,

act, and have thereunto affixed the ſeal of our arms.

Done at Moſcow the 11th (23d) October 1801.

(L. S.) St. Helens.

(L. S.) F. X. Cte. de Dannes-kiold-Lowendal.

Act of Acceſſion of his Majeſty the King of Sweden, to the Convention of the 5th (17th) June 1801, and Acceptance of his Majeſty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

In the name of the Moſt Holy and Undivided Trinity.

HIS Majeſty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias, having terminated by a convention, concluded at St. Peterſburgh the 5th (17th) June 1801, the differences which had ariſen between them reſpecting the rights of neutral navigation in time of war, and his Majeſty the King of Sweden, equally induced by the deſire of removing and conciliating the diſſentions which exiſted on the ſame ſubject between his Britannic Majeſty and himſelf, having conſented, in conſequence of the invitation that has been made to him, to accede to the above-mentioned convention; their ſaid Majeſties have choſen and named as their plenipotentiaries to this effect, viz. his Majeſty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Alleyn Lord Baron St. Helens, peer of the ſaid United Kingdom, one of his Majeſty's moſt honourable Privy Council, and his ambaſſador extraordinary and miniſter plenipotentiary to his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias; and his Majeſty the King of Sweden, the Sieur Baron Louis Bogiſlas Chriſtopher Court de Stedingk, one of the lords of the kingdom of Sweden, his Ambaſſador extraordinary and plenipotentiary to his Imperial Majeſty of all the Ruſſias, lieutenant general of his armies, chamberlain, knight and commander of his orders, knight of the Ruſſian Order of St. Andrew, knight Grand Croſs of his Order of the Sword, knight of thoſe of Ruſſia, of St. Alexander Newſky, and of St. Anne of the firſt claſs, and knight of the French Order of Military Merit; who, after having exchanged their full powers, found to be in good and due form, have concluded and agreed upon what follows:

Art. I. His Majeſty the King of Sweden accedes by the preſent tranſaction with his Majeſty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, to the convention which was concluded between his ſaid Majeſty and the Emperor of all the Ruſſias, the 5th (17th) June 1801, as well as to the firſt ſeparate articles annexed thereto, and to the additional ones concluded on the 8th (20th) October 1801, promiſing and engaging to obſerve and fulfil all the ſtipulations, clauſes, and articles therein contained, in the ſame manner as if his Majeſty had been a principal contracting party thereto, ſave and except the differences which reſult from the tenour of the treaties and engagements exiſting between England and Sweden, and which are to be renewed and confirmed in virtue of the aforeſaid convention.

II. His Majeſty the King of the United

United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, acknowledges on his ſide, his Majeſty the King of Sweden as a contracting party in the convention concluded at St. Peterſburgh the 5th (17th) June 1801, and binds himſelf in the moſt formal manner to obſerve, execute, and fulfil, to their utmoſt extent, in whatever regards his ſaid Majeſty, the ſtipulations, clauſes and articles of the ſaid convention, and of the ſaid firſt ſeparate article, and of the additional ones; ſave and except the differences which reſult from the tenour of the treaties and engagements exiſting between England and Sweden, and which are to be renewed and confirmed in virtue of the aforeſaid convention.

III. It is agreed that the adjudication, in the laſt reſort of cauſes in litigation, which, according to the ſecond article of the aforeſaid additional articles, are to be brought by appeal before his Majeſty's Privy Council in Great Britain, and before the Directing Senate in Ruſſia, ſhall, in Sweden, be brought by appeal before the Supreme Tribunal, in Swediſh Hôgſta Domſtolen.

IV. In order to prevent any inaccuracy, it has been agreed that the ſaid convention, as well as the ſaid ſeparate and additional articles, ſhould be inſerted here word for word, and as follows:

[Fiat inſertio]

The preſent act of acceſſion ſhall be ratified in good and due form, and the ratifications exchanged at London in the ſpace of two months, or ſooner if poſſible, from the day of its ſignature.

In faith of which, we, the underſigned, in virtue of our full powers, have ſigned the preſent act, and have thereunto affixed the ſeal of our arms.

Done at St. Peterſburgh the 18th (30th) March 1802.

(L. S.) St. Helens.

(L. S.) Court Stedingk.

Treaty of Peace between the French Republic and the Elector Palatine of Bavaria.

THE Firſt Conſul of the French republic, in the name of the French people, and his moſt Serene Highneſs the Elector Palatine of Bavaria, having at heart to eſtabliſh, in a ſolemn and inconteſtible manner, the old relations of friendſhip and good neighbourhood which have ſubſiſted between France and the moſt Serene Bavaro Palatine Houſe before the war which has been terminated between the French Republic and the Germanic Empire, by the treaty of peace of Luneville, and in which his Electoral Highneſs had taken part, not only by means of the ſuccours furniſhed by virtue of the decrees of the Diet, but alſo in his quality of auxiliary of the allied powers; the contracting parties have agreed to confirm the perfect return of a good harmony between them, by a treaty of and ſeparate peace; and for that purpoſe have appointed for their plenipotentiaries, that is to ſay, the Firſt Conſul, in the name of the French people, Citizen Caillard, keeper of the archives of the adminiſtration for foreign affairs; and his moſt Serene Electoral Highneſs the Elector of Bavaria, the Sieur Antonine de Cetto, his preſent counſellor of ſtate and miniſter plenipotentiary to the

Electoral Circle and to that of the Upper Rhine, who, after having exchanged their reſpective full powers have agreed to the following articles:

Art. I. There ſhall be peace, friendſhip, and good neighbourhood between the French republic and the Palatine Elector of Bavaria. The one and the other ſhall neglect nothing to maintain this union, and to render reciprocally ſuch ſervices as may be beſt calculated to draw more and more cloſe the bonds of ſincere and durable friendſhip.

His Majeſty the Emperor, and the Empire, having conſented, by the 4th article of the treaty concluded at Luneville, the 20th Pluvoiſe, year 9 of the French republic, or the 9th of February 1801; that the French republic ſhall poſſeſs in future in entire ſovereignty and property, the countries and domains on the left bank of the Rhine, and which made part of the Germanic Empire, his Electoral Highneſs the Palatine of Bavaria renounces for himſelf, his heirs and ſucceſſors, the rights of territorial ſuperiority, ownerſhip, and every other whatever, which his Houſe has hitherto exerciſed, and which belonged to him over the countries and dominions upon the left bank of the Rhine. This renunciation relates, namely, to the Duchy of Juliers, the Dutchy of Deux Ponts, with its dependencies, and all the bailiwick of the Palatinate of the Rhine, ſituate upon the left bank of that river.

III. Convinced that it is her intereſt to prevent the Bavaro-Palatine poſſeſſions from being reduced to a ſtate of weakneſs, and conſequently to repair the diminution of force and territory, which reſults from the above renunciation, the French republic engages to maintain and efficaciouſly defend the integrity of the aforeſaid poſſeſſions upon the right bank of the Rhine, together and in the extent which they have, or ought to have, according to the treaty and the conventions concluded at Teſchen, the 13th May 1799; ſaving the ceſſions which may take place with the full will of his Electoral Highneſs, and the conſent of all the intereſted parties.

The French republic promiſes, at the ſame time, that it ſhall uſe all its influence and all its means, in order that the 7th article of the treaty of peace of Luneville, by virtue of which the Empire is bound to give to the hereditary princes diſpoſſeſſed upon the left bank of the Rhine an indemnification, to be taken in its boſom, ſhould be particularly executed with reſpect to the Electoral Palatine Houſe of Bavaria; ſo as that that Houſe ſhall receive a territorial indemnity, ſituated as well as poſſible for its convenience, and equivalent to the loſſes of every kind, which have been the conſequence of the preſent war.

IV. The contracting parties ſhall come to an underſtanding between themſelves at all times, as good neighbours, and follow on the one part and the other, the principles of perfect equity in regulating the diſputes which may have taken or may take place, whether with reſpect to the courſe of the Thalweg between the reſpective ſtates, which by the terms

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of the 6th article of the treaty of peace of Luneville, ſhall hereafter be the limit of the territory of the French republic and of the Germanic empire, or with reſpect to the navigation of the Rhine and commerce, or with reſpect to the works to be erected upon the one ſide or the other of the river.

V. The 8th article of the treaty of peace of Luneville, concerning the debts ſecured upon the ſoil of the countries on the left bank of the Rhine, ſhall ſerve as a baſis for thoſe who find themſelves aggrieved in conſequence of their poſſeſſions and territories being compriſed in the renunciation of the 2d article of the preſent treaty.

As the ſaid treaty of Luneville does not acknowledge as chargeable to the French republic any debts but thoſe reſulting from loans, agreed to by the ſtates of the ceded countries, or from expenſes incurred by the effective adminiſtration of the ſaid countries; and as on the other ſide the Dutchy of Deux-Ponts, as well as the part of the Palatinate of the Rhine, ceded by the ſecond article of the preſent treaty, are not countries of the ſtates; it is agreed that the debts of the ſaid countries, which, at their origin, have been regiſtered by the ſuperior adminiſtrative bodies, ſhall be aſſimilated to thoſe which have been agreed to by the ſtates in the countries where they have been contracted.

Immediately after the exchange of the ratifications of the preſent treaty, there ſhall be appointed, upon the one part and upon the other, commiſſioners, who ſhall proceed to the verification and diſtribution of the debts above mentioned.

VI. The private debts contracted by the communes and the ci-devant bailiwicks, under the authority of government, remain at their charge and ſhall be paid by them.

VII. All papers, documents, and acts relative to public and private properties of the countries ceded by the ſaid 2d article, ſhall, within the ſpace of three months, to be dated from the exchange of the ratifications, be delivered faithfully to a commiſſioner, appointed by the French government to receive them. The ſame ſhall be done with reſpect to all the papers, documents, and acts, concerning the objects of adminiſtration, which relate excluſively to the ſaid countries. As to thoſe ſaid papers, documents, and acts which concern the common intereſt of the ſtates of the Palatine Houſe, as well thoſe ceded on the left bank of the Rhine, as thoſe which it retains on the right bank, there ſhall be made, at the common expenſe, collated copies, which ſhall be ſent to the French commiſſioner.

VIII. From the day of the exchange of the ratifications all the ſequeſtrations that have been laid, on account of the war, upon the goods, revenues, and effects of French citizens within the ſtates of his Moſt Serene Electoral Highneſs, and thoſe which may have been placed within the territory of the French republic, upon goods, revenues and effects of ſubjects or ſervants of his ſaid Moſt Serene Highneſs, domiciliated upon the Right bank of the Rhine, and proprietors

prietors upon the left, are taken off. There is no exception made of the Bavaro-Palatine ſubjects or ſervants, who after the entrance of the French armies withdrew from the left to the right bank of the Rhine.

IX. The preſent treaty ſhall be ratified by the contracting parties within the ſpace of twenty days, or ſooner if poſſible; and his Moſt Serene Highneſs the Elector Palatine of Bavaria engages to procure, within the ſame ſpace of time, an act of acceſſion upon the part of his Moſt Serene Highneſs William Duke of Bavaria, to the ceſſions made by the ſaid treaty.

Done at Paris, the 6th Fructidor, year 9 of the French Republic (24th Auguſt, 1801.)

(Signed)

ANTOINE BERNARD CAILLARD.

ANTOINE DE CETTO.

By the Firſt Conſul,

The Secretary of State,

(Signed) H. B. MARET.

Approved,

The Firſt Conſul,

(Signed) BONAPARTE.

By the Firſt Conſul,

The Secretary of State,

(Signed) H. B. MARET.

A true Copy,

The Secretary-General of the Council of State,

(Signed) J. C. LOCRE.

Copy of the Convention between the French Government and his Holineſs the Pope, Pius VII. Ratified the 10th September, 1801.

THE Chief Conſul of the French republic, and his Holineſs the Sovereign Pontiff, Pius VII. have named as their reſpective plenipotentiaries,

The Chief Conſul the Citizens Joſeph Bonaparté, counſellor of ſtate; Cretet, counſellor of ſtate; and Bernier, doctor of divinity, curate of St. Laud d'Angers; furniſhed with full powers:

His Holineſs, his Eminence Monſeigneur Hercule Conſalvi, cardinal of the holy Roman church, deacon of St. Agathe *ad Suburram*, his ſecretary of ſtate; Joſeph Spina, archbiſhop of Corinth, domeſtic prelate to his Holineſs, attendant on the pontifical throne; and Father Caſelli, his Holineſs's adviſer on points of theology; in like manner furniſhed with full powers in due form:

Who, after exchanging their full powers, have concluded the following Convention:

Convention between the French Government and his Holineſs the Pope, Pius VII.

The Government of the republic acknowledges that the Catholic, Apoſtolical, and Roman religion, is the religion of the great majority of French citizens.

His Holineſs, in like manner, acknowledges that this ſame religion has derived, and is likely to derive, the greateſt benefit and the greateſt ſplendour from the eſtabliſhment of the Catholic worſhip in France, and from its being openly profeſſed by the Conſuls of the republic.

This mutual acknowledgment being made, in conſequence, as well for the good of religion as for the maintenance of interior tranquillity, they have agreed as follows:

Art. I. The Catholic, Apoſtolical, and Roman religion ſhall be freely

freely exercised in France. Its service shall be publicly performed, conformably to the regulations of police, which the government shall judge necessary for the public tranquillity.

II. There shall be made by the Holy See, in concert with the government, a new division of French dioceses.

III. His Holiness shall declare to the titular French bishops that he expects from them, with the firmest confidence, every sacrifice for the sake of peace and unity—even that of their sees.

After this exhortation, if they should refuse the sacrifice commanded for the good of the church (a refusal, nevertheless, which his Holiness by no means expects,) the sees of the new division shall be governed by bishops appointed as follows:

IV. The Chief Consul shall present, within three months after the publication of his Holiness's bull, to the archbishoprics and bishoprics of the new division. His Holiness shall confer canonical institution, according to the forms established in France before the revolution *(avant le changement de gouvernement.)*

V. The nomination to the bishoprics which become vacant in future, shall likewise belong to the Chief Consul, and canonical institution shall be administered by the Holy See, conformably to the preceding article.

VI. The bishops, before entering upon their functions, shall take, before the Chief Consul, the oath of fidelity which was in use before the revolution, expressed in the following words:

"I swear and promise to God, upon the Holy Evangelists, to preserve obedience and fidelity to the government established by the constitution of the French republic. I likewise promise to carry on no correspondence, to be present at no conversation, to form no connexion, whether within the territories of the republic or without, which may, in any degree, disturb the public tranquillity; and if, in my diocese or elsewhere, I discover that any thing is going forward to the prejudice of the state, I will immediately communicate to Government all the information I possess."

VII. Ecclesiastics of the second order shall take the same oath before the civil authorities appointed by the government.

VIII. The following formula of prayer shall be recited at the end of divine service in all the Catholic churches of France.

Domine, salvam fac rempublicam,
Domine, salvos fac Consules.

IX. The bishops shall make a new division of the parishes in their dioceses, which, however, shall not take effect till after it is ratified by Government.

X. The bishops shall have the appointment of the parish priests.

Their choice shall not fall but on persons approved of by Government.

XI. The bishops may have a chapter in their cathedral, and a seminary for the diocese, without the government being obliged to endow them.

XII. All the metropolitan, cathedral, parochial, and other churches which have not been alienated, necessary to public worship, shall be placed at the disposal of the bishops.

XIII. His Holiness, for the sake

ſake of peace and the happy reeſtabliſhment of the Catholic religion, declares, that neither he nor his ſucceſſors will diſturb in any manner thoſe who have acquired the alienated property of the church; and that in conſequence that property, and every part of it, ſhall belong for ever to them, their heirs and aſſigns.

XIV. The government ſhall grant a ſuitable ſalary to biſhops and pariſh prieſts, whoſe dioceſes and pariſhes are compriſed in the new diviſion.

XV. The government ſhall likewiſe take meaſures to enable French Catholics, who are ſo inclined, to diſpoſe of their property for the ſupport of religion.

XVI. His Holineſs recognizes in the Chief Conſul of the French republic the ſame rights and prerogatives in religious matters which the ancient government enjoyed.

XVII. It is agreed between the contracting parties, that in caſe any of the ſucceſſors of the preſent Chief Conſul ſhould not be a Roman Catholic, the rights and prerogatives mentioned in the foregoing article, as well as the nomination to the biſhops' ſee, ſhall be regulated, with regard to him, by a new convention.

The ratifications ſhall be exchanged at Paris in the ſpace of forty days.

Done at Paris, the 26th Meſſidor, year nine of the French Republic.

(Signed)

JOSEPH BONAPARTE.
HERCULES, Cardinalis Conſalvi.
JOSEPH, Archiep. Corinthi.
BERNIER.
F. CAROLUS CASELLI.

Regulations of the Gallican Church.

Of the Regulations of the Catholic Church, as connected with the Policy of the State.

ART. I. No bull, reſcript, decree, proviſion, or any thing in the place of a proviſion, or, in ſhort, any other diſpatch from the Court of Rome, even though it ſhould relate to individuals only, ſhall be received, publiſhed, printed, or otherways put in force, without the authority of the government.

II. No individual, aſſuming the character of nuncio, legate, vicar, or apoſtolic commiſſary, or whatever other appellation he may aſſume, ſhall be allowed to exerciſe his functions in France, but with the conſent of the government, and in a manner conformable to the liberties of the Gallican church.

III. The decrees of foreign ſynods, or even of general councils, ſhall not be publiſhed in France before the government ſhall have examined their form, their conformity to the laws, rights, and privileges of the French republic, and whatever might in their publication have a tendency to alter or to affect public tranquillity.

IV. No national or metropolitan council, no dioceſan ſynod, no deliberative aſſembly, ſhall be allowed to be held without the expreſs permiſſion of government.

V. All eccleſiaſtical functions ſhall be gratuitous, with the exception of thoſe oblations which ſhall be authorized, and fixed by particular regulations.

VI. Recourſe ſhall be had to the Council of State in every in-

ſtance of abuſe, on the part of ſuperiors, and other eccleſiaſtical perſons. The inſtances of abuſe are uſurpation, or exceſs of power, contravention of the laws and inſtitutions of the republic; infraction of the rules conſecrated by the canons received in France; any attack upon the liberties, franchiſes, and cuſtoms of the Gallican church; and any attempt, which, in the exerciſe of worſhip, can compromiſe the honour of citizens, arbitrarily trouble their conſcience, or lead to oppreſſion, injury, or public ſcandal.

VII. There ſhall alſo be a right of appeal to the Council of State, on the ground of any attempt being made to interrupt the exerciſe of public worſhip, and to infringe on that liberty which the general laws of the republic, as well as particular regulations, guarantee to its miniſters.

VIII. An appeal ſhall be competent to any perſon intereſted; and in caſe no complaint is exhibited by individuals, the buſineſs ſhall be taken up officially by the prefects. The public functionary, eccleſiaſtic or individual, who ſhall wiſh to exerciſe this right of appeal, muſt addreſs a ſigned memoir containing a detail of the grievance complained of, to the counſellor of ſtate preſiding over religious affairs, whoſe duty it will then become to make, with the leaſt poſſible delay, every inquiry into the ſubject; and upon his report the affair ſhall be definitively ſettled, or ſent back, according to the urgency of the caſe, to the competent authorities*.

Articles relative to the Proteſtant Religion.

General Diſpoſitions applicable to all Proteſtant Communions.

Art. I. No individual ſhall officiate as a miniſter of religion who is not by birth a Frenchman.

II. Neither the Proteſtant churches nor their miniſters ſhall have any connexion with a foreign power or authority.

III. The paſtors and miniſters of the different Proteſtant communions ſhall pray for the proſperity of the French republic, and the ſafety of the Conſuls.

IV. No doctrinal deciſion or formulary, under the title of a *confeſſion*, or under any other title, ſhall be publiſhed or become a ſubject of inſtruction before its publication has been authorized by the government.

V. No change ſhall take place in the forms of their diſcipline without the ſame authority.

VI. The Council of State ſhall take cognizance of all the plans formed by their miniſters, and of all the diſſenſions which may ariſe among them.

VII. It ſhall be underſtood, that to the ſupport of paſtors of conſiſtorial churches, the property of theſe churches ſhall be applied as well as the oblations eſtabliſhed by uſage and by poſitive regulations.

VIII. The regulations applied

* The remaining regulations under this head are merely of local and particular detail.

to

to the ſpecific articles of the Catholic worſhip reſpecting the liberty of endowments, and the nature of the property which can be the object of them, ſhall be common to the Proteſtant churches.

IX. There ſhall be two academies or ſeminaries in the eaſt of France for the inſtruction of the miniſters of the Confeſſion of Augſburg.

X. There ſhall be a ſeminary at Geneva for the inſtruction of the miniſters of the reformed churches.

XI. The profeſſors in all the academies or ſeminaries ſhall be nominated by the Chief Conſul.

XII. No perſon ſhall be elected a miniſter or paſtor of any church of the Confeſſion of Augſburg, who has not ſtudied during a fixed period in one of the French ſeminaries appointed for miniſters of this perſuaſion, and who ſhall not produce a certificate in due form of his capacity and regular conduct during the continuance of his ſtudies.

XIII. No perſon is to be elected a miniſter or paſtor of the reformed church without having ſtudied in the ſeminary of Geneva, and without producing a certificate of the deſcriptions pointed out in the preceding article.

XIV. The regulations reſpecting the adminiſtration and internal police of theſe ſeminaries, the number and the qualifications of the profeſſors, the mode of inſtruction, the ſubjects which are taught, together with the form of the certificates of application, good conduct, and capacity, are to be approved of by the government.

Of the Organization of the Churches of the Confeſſion of Augſburg.

SECTION I.—*General Regulations.*

XXXIII. The churches of the Confeſſion of Augſburg ſhall have paſtors, local conſiſtories, inſpections, and general conſiſtories.

SECTION II.—*Of the Miniſters, Paſtors, and local Conſiſtories of each Church.*

XXXIV. With reſpect to paſtors, the regulation of the conſiſtorial churches, which was preſcribed by the 2d Section of the preceding Title as applicable to the reformed paſtors and churches, is to be obſerved.

SECTION III.—*Of Inſpections.*

XXXV. The churches of the Confeſſion of Augſburg ſhall be ſubject to inſpections.

XXXVI. Five conſiſtorial churches ſhall form the bounds of an inſpection.

XXXVII. Each inſpection ſhall be compoſed of a miniſter and an elder from each church of the diſtrict. It ſhall not aſſemble without the permiſſion of the government. At its firſt meeting the oldeſt of the miniſters of the diſtrict ſhall preſide. Each inſpection ſhall chooſe two laymen and one clergyman, who ſhall take the title of inſpector, and whoſe duty it ſhall be to watch over the conduct of the miniſters, and to preſerve good order in the different churches: the choice of the inſpector and the two laymen ſhall be confirmed by the Firſt Conſul.

XXXVIII. The inſpection ſhall not aſſemble without the authority of government in preſence of the prefect or ſub-prefect, or without having given previous intelligence to the counſellor of ſtate, whoſe

buſineſs it is to watch over religious affairs, of the ſubjects that are to come under diſcuſſion.

XXXIX. The inſpector ſhall viſit the churches of his diſtrict, and he may adopt the aſſiſtance of the two laymen named with him, as often as circumſtances ſhall appear to require. He ſhall be charged with the convocation of the general aſſembly of inſpection, no decree of which, however, ſhall be put in force till it has received the approbation of the government.

SECTION IV.—*Of General Conſiſtories.*

XL. There ſhall be three general conſiſtories: one at Straſburgh for the Proteſtants of the Confeſſion of Augſburg, belonging to the departments of the Upper and Lower Rhine; the ſecond at Mentz, for thoſe of the departments of Laſſare and Mont Tonnerre; and the third at Cologne, for thoſe of the department of the Rhine and Moſelle, and la Roer.

XLI. Each conſiſtory ſhall be formed of one lay preſident, of two eccleſiaſtical inſpectors, and a deputy from each inſpection: the preſident and the two eccleſiaſtical inſpectors ſhall be nominated by the Chief Conſul. The preſident ſhall take the ſame oath before the Chief Conſul, or a public functionary delegated for that purpoſe, which is impoſed upon the miniſters of the Catholic religion: the two eccleſiaſtical inſpectors and the lay members ſhall have the ſame oath adminiſtered to them by the preſident.

XLII. The general conſiſtory ſhall not be permitted to aſſemble without the conſent of the government, and unleſs in preſence of the prefect or ſub-prefect, and after a notification of the ſubjects in diſcuſſion, as deſcribed in former articles.

XLIII. During the interval between the different meetings, there ſhall be a directory, compoſed of the preſident, of the oldeſt of the two eccleſiaſtical inſpectors, and of three laymen, one of whom ſhall be nominated by the Chief Conſul: the two others ſhall be choſen by the general conſiſtory.

XLIV. The privileges of the general conſiſtory and the directory ſhall continue to be directed by the cuſtoms and regulations of the churches of the Confeſſion of Augſburg, in all points which have not been formally fixed by the laws of the republic or the preſent articles.

Approved. The Firſt Conſul,
(Signed) BONAPARTE.
By Order of the Firſt Conſul,
The Secretary of State,
(Signed) H. B. MARET.

Circular Letter, addreſſed to Monſignor Erſkine to the French Biſhops reſiding in England.

Illuſtrious and Rev. Lord,

IN obedience to the expreſs order which I have received from our moſt Holy Father, Pope Pius the Seventh, I ſend you, my Lord, the pontifical brief, which you will find annexed hereto. I pray you to inform me of the receipt of it without any delay, and alſo to ſend me, without delay, the anſwer which ſhall ſeem fit.

His Holineſs has not neglected to employ all poſſible means to

preſerve

preſerve you in poſſeſſion of your ſee; but he has ſuffered the moſt lively regret in finding that the urgency of circumſtances renders the reſignation of the biſhops indiſpenſable; it is neceſſary for the unity, the peace, and the re-eſtabliſhment of the Catholic religion in France.

His Holineſs charges me, beſides, to aſſure you, my Lord, that he has, in the beſt manner that he could, recommended your perſon to the Firſt Conſul, with the deſign either of directing his view towards you in the nomination to the ſees of the new conſcription, or at leaſt to provide for your ſubſiſtence; and ſuch, my Lord, is the deſire of the Holy Father to contribute to your comfort in the beſt manner poſſible, that he will not neglect any one favourable occaſion of lightening the burden which preſſes on you, and of providing for your perſonal wants.

Having thus fulfilled the orders given me by the Sovereign Pontiff, it remains to me to offer you for myſelf all the ſervices that can depend on me, to aſſure you that I am, my Lord, &c.

CHARLES ERSKINE.

London, 42, *Great Marybone Street*, *Sept.* 16, 1801.

THE POPE'S BRIEF.

Pius VII. to his venerable Brethren the Archbiſhops and Biſhops of France, having the Communion and Favour of the Apoſtolic Chair.

Venerable Fathers,
Health and Apoſtolic Benediction!

SO many and ſo ſignal are the ſervices which, both as a general body, and as individuals of the Catholic faith, you have performed, that on this account you have ever merited from us and from our predeceſſor Pius VI. now happily at reſt, the higheſt commendations and the higheſt praiſe of your virtue.

But although what you have done for the church, and for the advantage of the faithful, be very great, and highly glorious to you, yet the ſtate of the times forces us to notify to you, that you have not yet fulfilled that meritorious career of glory for which the counſels of Divine Providence have reſerved your courage in theſe times. Greater ſacrifices, O venerable fathers, ſtill remain to be added to thoſe by which you have diſtinguiſhed yourſelves, and you have ſtill to add higher claims to thoſe which you now have to the gratitude of the holy church.—The preſervation of the unity of the holy church, the re-eſtabliſhment of the Catholic religion in France, demand a new example of virtue and of greatneſs of ſoul in you, which may teach all nations that the holy zeal with which you burn for the church has for its object its advantage, and not your own.—Your eccleſiaſtical ſeats are voluntarily to be reſigned, and the ſame muſt be given up freely into our hands. It is requiring much of you, venerable brethren; it is, however, equally neceſſary, both that we ſhould make this demand, and that you ſhould comply with it, in order to re-eſtabliſh order in France in the affairs of the church. We feel, indeed, how much it muſt coſt your hearts to abandon thoſe flocks which are ſo dear to you, to the ſafety of which you have given ſo much attention,

and which, even in your abſence, have been the object of your moſt tender ſolicitude. But the more bitter the ſacrifice, the more agreeable will it be to God; the reward which you will have to expect from it will be proportioned to your grief and to his benevolence. With the whole energy of our ſoul, do we call upon your virtue; we call upon you by the bleſſed name of Jeſus, to complete this ſacrifice for the preſervation of unity.

A knowledge of the diſtinguiſhed piety, and of the remarkable virtue which we have ever remarked in you in the moſt trying circumſtances of the church, makes us certain that you will immediately forward to us your voluntary letters of abdication. We cannot entertain a doubt that any of the wiſe and virtuous paſtors of the French church can for a moment heſitate to comply with our paternal advice, and to follow the illuſtrious example of Gregory Nazianzen, when he reſigned the Biſhopric of Conſtantinople. And certainly, in the ſituation in which we ſtand, what reaſon can we have to ſuſpect that any of you would reſiſt our counſels and our entreaties, if he recollects what the church in general has reſolved, and what St. Auguſtine has ſaid—*Contra Creſcæntium*, lib. 2. c. xi.—"We are not biſhops for our own ſakes, but for the ſakes of thoſe to whom we adminiſter the ſacrament of the Lord; and for theſe, as neceſſity ſhall require, we are either to be or not to be, as it is not for ourſelves, but for them that we govern.

For you know, venerable brethren, that many of the moſt diſtinguiſhed prelates of the church, that they might conform to this principle of the church and preſerve unity, have voluntarily abdicated their ſeats; and almoſt three hundred catholic biſhops; a little before the celebrated collation of Carthage, openly profeſſed themſelves to be ready, and thought themſelves bound, to abdicate their biſhoprics, if it ſhould be conceived that their abdication would tend to remove the ſchiſm of the Donatiſts. Many of you, indeed, venerable brethren, had before your eyes theſe examples, and adopted ſimilar ſentiments, when, in conſequence of the letter of the 3d of May 1791, of the late Pius VI. of happy memory, our predeceſſor, you profeſſed yourſelves willing and ready to reſign your charges, if the good of religion ſhould require it, for which that moſt wiſe pontiff beſtowed on them the greateſt praiſe. Nor were there wanting ſome of you lately who ſignified to us in your letters, that you would cheerfully do the ſame, if it ſhould ſeem neceſſary for the preſervation of religion in France. Now ſince we have arrived at thoſe times, in which the voluntary abdication of your charges is abſolutely neceſſary for the good of the Catholic religion, we cannot doubt that you will yield this obedience to God by making this new ſacrifice, to offer which to him you know yourſelves bound, and have already ſo laudably profeſſed yourſelves ready, ſhould the good of the church require.

Confidently truſting, therefore, in conſequence of the opinion which we have always entertained

of

of your religion and virtue, that on peruſing our letter, both to increaſe your merits to the church, and to preſerve the unity of it to France, you will, without delay, implicitly comply with our exhortation; we firſt congratulate you on account of that immortal glory which you will obtain from this ſplended teſtimony of virtue, religion and obedience, which you are now about to give to the whole church. This glory, indeed, will be ſo great as to be far ſuperior to the praiſes you have already obtained, by undergoing ſo many dangers and enduring ſo many calamities with ſo much conſtancy, for preſerving religion in the churches intruſted to your fidelity.—For, according to what the ſame St. Auguſtine writes, in his letter to Caſtorius, "It is far more glorious to have laid down the burden of epiſcopacy, in order to ward off the dangers of the church, than to have undertaken it for the ſake of ruling." We alſo congratulate you on thoſe ample rewards to which this ſacrifice will entitle you from God, the reward of the good. For as the ſame St. Gregory Nazianzen writes, "Thoſe who abdicate thrones will not loſe God, but will acquire a heavenly throne, much higher and ſafer." In the laſt place, we congratulate you, conſidering thoſe advantages the whole prieſthood will receive from theſe memorable examples of minds labouring, not for themſelves, but for the things which belong to God and the church: theſe inſtances of obedience, humility, faith, and of all epiſcopal holineſs, with which you are about to crown the end of your epiſcopacy—this virtue of yours, indeed, will ſhut the mouths of thoſe detractors of the prieſthood who calumniate the miniſters of the ſanctuary, by aſſerting that they find nothing in them but pride, haughtineſs, and avarice. This new glory, by which you will render yourſelves illuſtrious, will extort an involutary admiration of your virtue, from men who will be obliged to confeſs, in regard to the church, what the ſame St. Auguſtine affirms in the above-mentioned letter to Caſtorius: "That there are ſome men in its boſom who ſeek not thoſe things which are their own, but the things of Jeſus Chriſt."

We are compelled by the exigency of the times, which, even exerciſes its violence on us, to ſignify that it is abſolutely neceſſary for you to give a written anſwer within ten days, and that your anſwer be tranſmitted to the perſon by whom the preſent letter will be delivered to you, which you ought to teſtify by an authentic document that you have received. We muſt alſo ſignify to you, for the ſame urgent cauſes, that the anſwer given muſt be definitive, not dilatory; ſo that unleſs a definitive anſwer be given within ten days (and that you will do ſo, we entreat you again and again), if a dilatory anſwer is returned, we ſhall be obliged to conſider you as having refuſed to comply with our requeſt.

But that this you will not do, we have reaſon to hope, from your ardent deſire both to preſerve religion, and to promote the peace of the whole church; from your obedience to us, which is the peculiar duty of children; and from that anxiety which you have

always ſhown by aſſiſting by your virtue, our infirmity, under that great load of cares with which we are oppreſſed. Nay, we are certain, that with cheerful and ready minds, you will obey our commands, with which we are obliged to try your virtue, in order to eſtabliſh the good of the church; eſpecially ſince you poſſeſs too much penetration not to know, that if you refuſe to comply with our requeſt, that no obſtacles may be oppoſed by us to preſerving the unity of the Catholic religion, and reſtoring the tranquillity of the church (we declare with grief, but we muſt declare, while ſo much danger hangs over the Gallican church from us), we muſt neceſſarily have recourſe to that conduct which will remove all impediments, and by which alone the good of religion can be promoted.

By the favour and good will which we have always ſhown towards you, venerable brethren, by the opinion we have always had of your virtue, dignity and merits, we flatter ourſelves that you are ſo perſuaded that we do not think it neceſſary to expend many words in aſſuring you, that nothing has been omitted on our part which could tend to prevent you from being expoſed to this bitterneſs. But it is with great grief we muſt confeſs that all our anxiety, and all our labour to reſiſt the neceſſity of the times, has been fruitleſs. We are compelled to yield, that the Catholic religion may be benefited by this ſacrifice. After maturely weighing theſe circumſtances, we ſhould ſeem to queſtion the ſincerity of your religious profeſſion, if we ſhould conclude that you will prefer your own advantage to the preſervation and good order of the church, forgetting what St. Auguſtine ſaid, in the name of the African biſhops, to the tribune Marcellinus, when he declared that thoſe biſhops were ready to abdicate their chairs; "Why ſhould we heſitate to make that ſacrifice of humility to our Redeemer?—Did he deſcend from heaven in the human form, that we ſhould be members of his body; and ſhall we fear to deſcend from our chairs, to prevent his limbs from being torn by cruel diviſion?

"Perſonally we are only faithful and obedient Chriſtians. This we always are, but we were ordained biſhops for the Chriſtian people. As biſhops, therefore, let us do what may benefit Chriſtian people, by promoting Chriſtian peace. If we are uſeful ſervants, why ſhould we prefer our temporal grandeur to eternal gain in the Lord? The epiſcopal dignity will be more fruitful to us, if by laying it down we collect the flock of Chriſt, than if we ſhould diſperſe it by retaining it; for with what face in future can we hope for the honour promiſed by Chriſt, if Chriſtian unity is impeded by our worldly honour?"

As we cannot therefore doubt, when we reflect on your tried virtue and religion, that you will conſult the advantage of the church and the good of the faithful, while we implore the Almighty God to ſtrengthen your virtue, that with more readineſs, as becomes willing givers, you may offer to him this gift; and while we promiſe as far as in us lies,

lies, to take care that you ſhall be hereafter provided for, we confer on you our Apoſtolic bleſſing, as a pledge of our paternal love.

Given at Rome, at St. Mary the Greater, under the Fiſherman's ſeal, Auguſt 15, 1801, in the ſecond year of our pontificate.

PIUS PP. VII.

MICHAEL, Patriarch of Jeruſalem.

Monſignor Erſkine's ſecond circular Letter to the French Biſhops reſiding in England.

My Lord,

IN my letter of the 16th inſtant, with which I had the honour to tranſmit the brief of the Sovereign Pontiff, which I ſent to you by the expreſs order of his Holineſs Pope Pius VII. as well as to each of your colleagues reſiding in this kingdom, I ſolicited your Greatneſs, as well as your colleagues, to tranſmit to me that anſwer each individually would think proper to make. I have, however, heard it ſaid, that in conſequence of the meeting held by your Greatneſſes, you intended to anſwer collectively to the paternal invitation of his Holineſs; I therefore find myſelf ſtrictly obliged, my Lord, to inform you, and beg of you to intimate the ſame to your colleagues, that by this means you will not fulfil the intention of his Holineſs, who has preciſely commanded me to tranſmit his brief to each of you; in order that you might ſeparately, and after having invoked by your prayers the diſtribution of underſtanding, make ſuch an anſwer as you conceive yourſelves in conſcience to be inſpired with by the Father of Mercies.

I am perſuaded, my Lord, that you and your colleagues would experience an acute ſenſation, if, in the anſwer to his Holineſs, you had adopted, even involuntarily, a method little conformable to the deſires of the Holy Father, and which are not entirely congenial to the filial reſpect which you have conſtantly manifeſted towards the Sovereign Pontiff. I flatter myſelf, therefore, that you will accept the preſent advice.

I have the honour to be, with the moſt perfect conſideration, your Greatneſs's moſt humble and obedient ſervant,

C. ERSKINE,

No. 42, St. Mary-le-Bone Street, London, Sept. 22, 1801.

Preliminary Articles of Peace between his Britannic Majeſty and the French Republic. Signed at London (in Engliſh and French), the 1ſt of October 1801, the 9th Vendemiaire, Year 10 of the French Republic.

HIS Majeſty the King of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and the Firſt Conſul of the French republic, in the name of the French people, being animated with an equal deſire of putting an end to the calamities of a deſtructive war, and of re-eſtabliſhing union and good underſtanding between the two countries, have named for this purpoſe; namely, his Britannic Majeſty, the Right Honourable Robert Banks Jenkinſon, commonly called Lord Hawkeſbury, one

of his Britannic Majeſty's moſt honourable Privy Council, and his principal Secretary of State for foreign affairs; and the Firſt Conſul of the French republic, in the name of the French people, Citizen Lewis William Otto, commiſſary for the exchange of French priſoners in England; who, after having duly communicated to each other their full powers in good form, have agreed on the following preliminary articles:

Art. I. As ſoon as the preliminaries ſhall be ſigned and ratified, ſincere friendſhip ſhall be re-eſtabliſhed between his Britannic Majeſty and the French republic by ſea and by land, in all parts of the world; and in order that all hoſtilities may ceaſe immediately between the two powers and between them and their allies reſpectively, the neceſſary inſtructions ſhall be ſent with the utmoſt diſpatch to the commanders of the ſea and land forces of the reſpective ſtates, and each of the contracting parties engages to grant paſſports, and every facility requiſite to accelerate the arrival, and enſure the execution of theſe orders.—It is farther agreed, that all conqueſts which may have been made by either of the contracting parties from the other, or from their reſpective allies, ſubſequently to the ratification of the preſent preliminaries, ſhall be conſidered as of no effect, and ſhall be faithfully comprehended in the reſtitutions to be made after the ratification of the definitive treaty.

II. His Britannic Majeſty ſhall reſtore to the French republic and her allies; namely, to his Catholic Majeſty and to the Batavian republic, all the poſſeſſions and colonies occupied or conquered by the Engliſh forces in the courſe of the preſent war, with the exception of the iſland of Trinidad, and the Dutch poſſeſſions in the iſland of Ceylon, of which iſland and poſſeſſions his Britannic Majeſty reſerves to himſelf the full and entire ſovereignty.

III. The port of the Cape of Good Hope ſhall be open to the commerce and navigation of the two contracting parties, who ſhall enjoy therein the ſame advantages.

IV. The iſland of Malta, with its dependancies, ſhall be evacuated by the troops of his Britannic Majeſty, and reſtored to the Order of St. John of Jeruſalem. For the purpoſe of rendering this iſland completely independent of either of the two contracting parties, it ſhall be placed under the guarantee and protection of a third power, to be agreed upon in the definitive treaty.

V. Egypt ſhall be reſtored to the Sublime Porte, whoſe territories and poſſeſſions ſhall be preſerved entire, ſuch as they exiſted previouſly to the preſent war.

VI. The territories and poſſeſſions of her Moſt Faithful Majeſty ſhall likewiſe be preſerved entire.

VII. The French forces ſhall evacuate the kingdom of Naples and the Roman territory. The Engliſh forces ſhall in like manner evacuate Porto Ferrajo, and generally all the ports and iſlands which they may occupy in the Mediterranean, or in the Adriatic.

VIII.

VIII. The republic of the Seven Iſlands ſhall be acknowledged by the French republic.

IX. The evacuations, ceſſions, and reſtitutions, ſtipulated for by the preſent preliminary articles, ſhall take place in Europe within one month, in the continent and ſeas of America and of Africa, within three months; and in the continent and ſeas of Aſia, within ſix months after the ratification of the definitive treaty.

X. The priſoners made reſpectively ſhall, immediately after the exchange of the ratifications of the definitive treaty, all be reſtored, and without ranſom, on paying reciprocally the debts which they may have individually contracted. Diſcuſſions having ariſen reſpecting the payment for the maintenance of the priſoners of war, the contracting powers reſerve this queſtion to be ſettled by the definitive treaty, according to the law of nations, and in conformity to eſtabliſhed uſage.

XI. In order to prevent all cauſes of complaint and diſpute which may ariſe on account of prizes which may be made at ſea after the ſignature of the preliminary articles, it is reciprocally agreed that the veſſels and effects which may be taken in the Britiſh Channel and in the North Seas, after the ſpace of twelve days, to be computed from the exchange of the ratifications of the preſent preliminary articles, ſhall be reſtored on each ſide; that the term ſhall be one month from the Britiſh Channel and the north ſeas, as far as the Canary Iſlands inclusively, whether in the ocean, or in the Mediterranean; two months from the ſaid Canary Iſlands as far as the equator; and, laſtly, five months in all other parts of the world, without any exception, or any more particular deſcription of time and place.

XII. All ſequeſtrations impoſed by either of the parties on the funded property, revenues, or debts, of any deſcription, belonging to either of the contracting powers, or to their ſubjects or citizens, ſhall be taken off immediately after the ſignature of the definitive treaty. The deciſion of all claims brought forward by individuals of the one country againſt individuals of the other for private rights, debts, property, or effects whatſoever, which, according to received uſages and the law of nations, ought to revive at the period of peace, ſhall be heard and decided before the competent tribunals; and in all caſes prompt and ample juſtice ſhall be adminiſtered in the countries where the claims are made. It is agreed, moreover, that this article, immediately after the ratification of the definitive treaty, ſhall apply to the allies of the contracting parties, and to the individuals of the reſpective nations, upon the condition of a juſt reciprocity.

XIII. With reſpect to the fiſheries on the coaſts of the iſland of Newfoundland, and of the iſlands adjacent, and in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, the two parties have agreed to reſtore them to the ſame footing on which they were before the preſent war, reſerving to themſelves the power of making, in the definitive treaty, ſuch arrangements as ſhall appear juſt and reciprocally uſeful, in order to place the fiſhing of the

the two nations on the moſt proper footing for the maintenance of peace.

XIV. In all the caſes of reſtitution agreed upon by the preſent treaty, the fortifications ſhall be delivered up in the ſtate in which they may be at the time of the ſignature of the preſent treaty, and all the works which ſhall have been conſtructed ſince the occupation ſhall remain untouched.

It is farther agreed, that in all the caſes of ceſſion ſtipulated in the preſent treaty, there ſhall be allowed to the inhabitants of whatever condition or nation they may be, a term of three years, to be computed from the notification of the definitive treaty of peace, for the purpoſe of diſpoſing of their properties, acquired and poſſeſſed either before or during the preſent war; in the which term of three years they may have the free exerciſe of their religion and the enjoyment of their property.

The ſame privilege ſhall be granted in the countries reſtored, to all thoſe who ſhall have made therein any eſtabliſhments whatſoever during the time when thoſe countries were in the poſſeſſion of Great Britain.

With reſpect to the other inhabitants of the countries reſtored or ceded, it is agreed that none of them ſhall be proſecuted, diſturbed or moleſted in their perſons or properties under any pretext, on account of their conduct or political opinions, or of their attachment to either of the two powers, nor on any other account except that of debts contracted to individuals, or on account of acts poſterior to the definitive treaty.

XV. The preſent preliminary articles ſhall be ratified, and the ratifications exchanged in London, in the ſpace of fifteen days for all delay; and immediately after their ratification, plenipotentiaries ſhall be named, on each ſide, who ſhall repair to Amiens for the purpoſe of concluding a definitive treaty of peace, in concert with the allies of the contracting parties.

In witneſs whereof, we, the underſigned plenipotentiaries of his Britannic Majeſty, and of the Firſt Conſul of the French republic, by virtue of our reſpective full powers, have ſigned the preſent preliminary articles, and have cauſed our ſeals to be put thereto.

Done at London, the 1ſt day of October 1801, the 9th Vendemiaire, year ten of the French republic.

(L. S.) HAWKESBURY.
(L. S.) OTTO.

Memorial, tranſmitted by his Serene Highneſs the Stadtholder to Lord Hawkeſbury, previous to the Departure of his Serene Highneſs from Hampton Court.

THE Prince of Orange being informed, that the ratifications of the preliminary articles of peace between his Britannic Majeſty and the French republic, ſigned on the 1ſt inſt. have been exchanged on the 10th; and thoſe articles, as publiſhed by government, having thus come to his knowledge, thinks he ought not to delay any longer, in a conjuncture ſo important to his intereſts, and thoſe of his houſe, to expreſs without reſerve,

reſerve, his ſentiments and his wiſhes to his Majeſty.

The unfortunate circumſtances which obliged the Prince of Orange and his family to repair to England in the year 1795, are too well known to make it neceſſary to renew the ſtatement of them in this place.

After having been received by his majeſty with the moſt affecting kindneſs, the Prince of Orange experienced no leſs convincing proofs of his Majeſty's goodneſs towards him during his ſtay in this country, where he has conſtantly been treated with the moſt generous hoſpitality. On every occaſion he received unequivocal aſſurances and marks of the unvaried intereſt which his Majeſty and his government continued to take, not only in what related to himſelf and to his family, but alſo to the numerous and faithful adherents of the Houſe of Orange, and the ancient conſtitution of the republic of the United Provinces. Theſe marks of intereſt had ſo often been repeated, that the Prince of Orange has not even conceived it to be neceſſary for him to make any formal demand, founded upon the ſolemn engagements by which Great Britain guaranteed in 1788, the ſtadtholderate, and the other dignities hereditary in his houſe.

The Prince of Orange has ſeen, with great concern, the courſe of events lead gradually to a ſtate of things very different from that under which thoſe engagements had been formed, and by which the probability of their being completely fulfilled was from day to day diminiſhing. Nevertheleſs, as long as the war was continued, he could never prevail upon himſelf to give up that hope entirely; but he awaited in ſilence the final iſſue of events. Now that the preliminaries of peace are concluded on the conditions known to the public, without the Prince of Orange having received any information that any thing has been ſtipulated with reſpect to himſelf, he thinks himſelf under the obligation of breaking the ſilence he had hitherto thought fit to obſerve, and conſiders it as his indiſpenſable duty to recommend in the ſtrongeſt and moſt preſſing manner to the King's ſolicitude and powerful protection, at the approaching conferences for the formation of the definitive treaty, his own intereſts, thoſe of his Houſe, and of a conſiderable number of his countrymen, who are become the unfortunate victims of their unſhaken zeal for his perſon and his cauſe—of their tried fidelity to the ancient government of their native country, and of their attachment to that ſyſtem which has ſo long and ſo cloſely united the republic of the United Provinces to Great Britain.

The Prince of Orange thinks it would be injuring the generous feelings of his Majeſty and his government to dwell upon the motives which induce him to make this requeſt. He has no doubt of his Majeſty finding them in his own royal breaſt, and he flatters himſelf that the diſpoſitions he hopes to find on this ſubject, will add ſtill more to the manifold obligations he owes to the King, and of which he will never loſe the grateful remembrance.

The Prince of Orange requeſts Lord Hawkeſbury to lay the

preſent

preſent note before his Majeſty, and to inform him of his Majeſty's intentions with reſpect to its contents. He takes this opportunity to aſſure Lord Hawkeſbury of his perfect conſideration.

(Signed)

W. PRINCE OF ORANGE.

Hampton Court Palace,
13th Oct. 1801.

Treaty of Peace between the French Republic and his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias.

THE Firſt Conſul of the French republic, in the name of the French people, and his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias, being animated with the deſire of re-eſtabliſhing the relations of good underſtanding which ſubſiſted between the two governments before the preſent war, and to terminate the calamities which afflict Europe, have appointed as their plenipotentiaries to this effect, namely, the Firſt Conſul of the French republic, in the name of the French people, Citizen Charles Maurice Talleyrand, miniſter for foreign affairs; and his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias, Sieur Arcadi Comte de Marcoff, a member of his privy council, and knight of the Order of St. Alexander Neuſki, and general croſs of that of St. Wladamair of the firſt claſs; who, after exchanging and verifying their full powers, have agreed upon the following articles:

I. There ſhall henceforth be peace, friendſhip, and good underſtanding between the French republic and his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias.

II. Accordingly no act of hoſtility ſhall be committed between the two ſtates, reckoning from the day of exchanging the ratifications of the preſent treaty; and neither of the contracting parties ſhall furniſh to the enemies of the other, whether external or internal, any ſuccour or contingent in men or in money, under any pretence whatever.

III. The two contracting parties being anxious, as far as poſſible, to contribute to the tranquillity of their reſpective governments, mutually engage not to permit any of their ſubjects to carry on any correſpondence, direct or indirect, with the internal enemies of the preſent governments of the two ſtates, to propagate in them principles contrary to their reſpective conſtitutions, or to foment diſturbances: and, by conſequence, every ſubject of either of the two powers, who being a reſident in the ſtate of the other, ſhall do any thing againſt its ſecurity, ſhall be forthwith removed from the ſaid country, and tranſported beyond the frontiers, without having any right, in any caſe whatever, to invoke the protection of his government.

IV. It is agreed upon, that with reſpect to the re-eſtabliſhment of the reſpective legations, and the ceremonial to be obſerved between the two governments, the cuſtoms in uſe before the preſent war ſhall be continued.

V. The two contracting parties, until the concluſion of a new treaty of commerce, agree to re-eſtabliſh the commercial relations between the two countries on the ſame footing as before the preſent war, as far as poſſible, and with due regard to the modifications which

time and circumſtances may have produced, and which may have given riſe to new regulations.

VI. The preſent treaty is declared to be common to the Batavian republic.

VII. The preſent treaty ſhall be ratified, and the ratifications exchanged in the ſpace of fifty days, or ſooner if poſſible.

In teſtimony whereof, we, the underſigned, in virtue of our full powers, have ſigned the ſaid treaty, and thereto affixed our ſeals.

Done at Paris, Oct. 8, 1801.

(Signed)

CHARLES M. TALLEYRAND.

LE COMTE DE MARCOFF.

Preliminary Articles of Peace between the French Republic and the Ottoman Porte.

1ſt. THE Firſt Conſul of the French republic, in the name of the French people, and the Sublime Ottoman Porte, being deſirous of putting an end to the war which now divides the two ſtates, and to re-eſtabliſh the ancient relations which united them, have nominated plenipotentiaries for this purpoſe:

The Firſt Conſul of the French republic, in the name of the French people, nominates Citizen Charles Maurice Talleyrand, miniſter for foreign affairs; and the Sublime Porte, on the other hand, appoints the ci-devant Baſſi Muchaſſebi and Ambaſſador Eſſeyd Aly Effendy, who, after receiving full powers, have agreed on the following terms:

Art. I. There ſhall be peace and amity betwixt the French republic and the Sublime Ottoman Porte, in conſequence of which hoſtilities ſhall ceaſe between the two powers from the date of the exchange of theſe preliminaries: immediately after which exchange the whole province of Egypt ſhall be evacuated by the French army, and reſtored to the Sublime Porte, whoſe territories and poſſeſſions ſhall be maintained entire, ſuch as they were previous to the preſent war.

It is underſtood, that after this evacuation, whatever indulgencies ſhall be granted in Egypt to the other powers on the part of the Sublime Porte, ſhall alſo be extended to France.

II. The French republic ſhall recognize the republic of the Seven United Iſles and the Ex-Venetian territories ſituated on the continent; ſhe ſhall guarantee the maintenance of this conſtitution. The Sublime Porte ſhall acknowledge and accept for this purpoſe the guarantee of the French republic, as well as that of the court of Ruſſia.

III. Definitive arrangements ſhall be made betwixt the French republic and the Sublime Ottoman Porte, relative to the goods and effects of the reſpective citizens and ſubjects, confiſcated or ſequeſtrated during the war. All political and commercial agents, together with priſoners of war of every deſcription, ſhall be ſet at liberty immediately after the ratification of the preſent preliminaries.

IV. The treaties which exiſted before the preſent war betwixt France and the Sublime Ottoman Porte ſhall be renewed on their former footing. In conſequence of this renewal, the French republic ſhall enjoy in every part of the dominions

dominions of his Highneſs all the rights of commerce and navigation which ſhe previouſly enjoyed, as well as thoſe to which the moſt favoured nations ſhall henceforth be admitted.

The ratifications ſhall be exchanged at Paris within the ſpace of twenty-four days.

Done at Paris, the 17th Vendemiaire (Oct. 9, 1801,) in the 10th year of the French republic, or the 1ſt of the month Gemaſy-ul-ahir, in the one thouſandth two hundredth and ſixteenth of the Egira.

(Signed)

Citizen CHARLES MAURICE TALLEYRAND.

ESSEYD ALY EFFENDY.

Treaty of Peace between the French Republic and the Regency of Algiers, concluded on the 17th December, 1801.

THE French government and the Regency of Algiers are ſenſible that war is not natural between the two ſtates, and that it imports the dignity, as well as the intereſts of both parties, to reſume their former relations.

Accordingly Muſtapha Pacha Dey, in the name of the Regency, and Citizen Charles François Dubois Thainville, charge d'affaires, and commiſſary general of commercial relations from the French republic, furniſhed with full powers from the Firſt Conſul to negotiate a peace with the Regency, have agreed upon the following articles:

Art. I. The political and commercial relations are re-eſtabliſhed between the two ſtates, on the ſame footing as before the rupture.

II. The former treaties, conventions, and ſtipulations ſhall be immediately confirmed by the ſignature of the Dey and that of the agent of the republic.

III. The Regency of Algiers reſtores to the French republic its privileges in Africa, in the ſame manner and on the ſame conditions as France enjoyed before the rupture.

IV. The money, effects, and articles of merchandize ſeized by the agents of the Regency in the factories, ſhall be reſtored after deducting the ſums applied to the diſcharge of the debts due at the period of the declaration of war (viz. Dec. 21, 1799).—There ſhall therefore be drawn out on both ſides, a ſtate of accounts, which ſhall be mutually admitted.

V. The trade duties ſhall be demandable from the day only on which the French ſhall have been re-eſtabliſhed in their factories.

VI. And counting from that epoch, the Dey, in order to indemnify the African company for the loſſes they have ſuſtained, grants them a general exemption from thoſe dues for one year.

VII. Frenchmen cannot be detained as ſlaves in the kingdom of Algiers in any caſe, or under any pretext whatſoever.

VIII. Frenchmen taken under the flag of a power at war with the Regency cannot be made ſlaves, even when the veſſels on board of which they may be found ſhall have defended themſelves, unleſs, forming a part of the crew as ſoldiers or ſailors, they ſhall have been taken in arms.

IX. Frenchmen occaſionally or conſtantly reſiding in the kingdom of Algiers, are ſubject in every reſpect

reſpect to the authority of the agent of the French government. The Regency ſhall not attempt, and its delegates have no right, to interfere in the internal adminiſtration of the French diſtrict in Africa.

X. The captains of French veſſels, whether belonging to the ſtate or private perſons, cannot be compelled to take on board any thing contrary to their inclination, nor be ſent to any port whither they are not diſpoſed to go.

XI. The agent of the French government is not reſponſible for any debts contracted by private individuals of his nation, unleſs he has engaged in writing to pay them.

XII. When any difference occurs between a Frenchman and a ſubject of Algiers, it ſhall be decided upon by the firſt authorities only, after the French commiſſary has been ſummoned to attend.

XIII. His Excellency the Dey engages to cauſe reimburſement to be made of all the ſums of money which may be owing to Frenchmen by his ſubjects; and Citizen Dubois Thainville, in like manner, engages, in the name of his government, to effect payment of all thoſe to which the ſubjects of Algiers are juſtly entitled.

XIV. The effects of every Frenchman dying in the kingdom of Algiers, are at the diſpoſal of the commiſſary general of the republic.

XV. The chargé d'affaires and the agents of the African company chooſe their own interpreters and brokers.

XVI. The chargé d'affaires and the commiſſary general of commercial relations from the French republic, ſhall continue to enjoy all the honours, rights, immunities, and prerogatives ſtipulated in the former treaties. They ſhall preſerve their pre-eminence over the agents of other nations.

XVII. The aſylum of the French commiſſary is ſacred; no public force can enter it, unleſs upon his own application to that effect to the chief of the Algerine government.

XVIII. In caſe of a rupture, which may God ever prevent, the French ſhall be allowed three months for the adjuſtment of their affairs. During this period they ſhall enjoy the ſame extent of liberty and protection which is ſecured to them by treaty in a time of profound peace. It is underſtood that veſſels touching at the ports of the kingdom during thoſe three months, ſhall participate in the ſame advantages.

XIX. His Excellency the Dey appoints Salah Khodjx to proceed to Paris in character of his ambaſſador.

(Signed)

MUSTAPHA, Dey of Algiers.

DUBOIS THAINVILLE, Chargé d'Affaires and Commiſſary General of commercial Relations from the French Republic.

Correſpondence of Mr. King, the American Miniſter, with Lord Hawkeſbury.

Great Cumberland-Place, March 13, 1801.

My Lord,

THE decree of the Vice-admiralty Court of Naſſau, a copy

of which is annexed *, condemning the cargo of an American veſſel, going from the United States to a port in the Spaniſh colonies, upon the ground that the articles of innocent merchandize compoſing the ſame, though *bona fide* neutral property, were of the growth of Spain, having been ſanctioned, and the principles extended by the prize courts of the Britiſh iſlands, and particularly by the court of Jamaica, has been deemed ſufficient authority to the commanders of the ſhips of war and privateers cruizing in thoſe ſeas, to fall upon and capture all American veſſels bound to an enemy's colony, and having on board any article of the growth or manufacture of a nation at war with Great Britain.

Theſe captures, which are vindicated by what is termed the belligerent's right to diſtreſs his enemy by interrupting the ſupplies which his habits or convenience may require, have produced the ſtrongeſt and moſt ſerious complaints among the American merchants, who have ſeen, with indignation, a reaſon aſſigned for the capture and confiſcation of their property, which is totally diſregarded in the open trade carried on between the Britiſh and Spaniſh colonies, by Britiſh and Spaniſh ſubjects, in the very articles, the ſupply of which, by neutral merchants, is unjuſtly interrupted.

The law of nations, acknowledged in the treaty of amity, commerce, and navigation between the United States and Great Britain, allows the goods of an enemy to be lawful prize, and pronounces thoſe of a friend to be free.

While the United States take no meaſures to abridge the rights of Great Britain, as a belligerent, they are bound to reſiſt, with firmneſs, every attempt to extend them, at the expence of the equally inconteſtable rights of nations, which find their intereſt and duty in living in peace with the reſt of the world.

So long as the ancient law of nations is obſerved, which protects the innocent merchandize of neutrals, while it abandons to the belligerent the goods of his enemy, a plain rule exiſts, and may be appealed to, to decide the rights of peace and war:—the belligerent has no better authority to curtail the rights of the neutral, than the neutral has to do the like in regard to the rights of the belligerent; and it is only by an adherence to the ancient code, and the rejection of modern gloſſes, that fixed and preciſe rules can be found, defining the rights, and regulating the duties of independent ſtates.

This ſubject is of ſuch importance, and the eſſential intereſts of the United States, whoſe policy is that of peace, are ſo deeply affected by the doctrines which, during the preſent war, have been ſet up, in order to enlarge the rights of belligerents, at the expence of thoſe of neutrals, that I ſhall, without loſs of time, ſubmit to your Lord-

* In the caſe of the American brigantine Leopard, Ropes maſter, laden in part with Malaga wines. The cargo, ſo far as it conſiſted of wines, though regularly imported into the United States, was condemned by Judge Kenſal, 20th October, 1800, "the ſame being productions of the Spaniſh territory in Europe, and bound to the Tranſatlantic parts of that empire."

ſhip's

ſhip's conſideration ſuch farther reflections reſpecting the ſame, as its great importance appears to demand.

In the mean time, as the deciſions referred to cannot, from the unavoidable delay which attends the proſecution of appeals, be ſpeedily reverſed, and as the effect of thoſe decrees will continue to be the unjuſt and ruinous interruption of the American commerce in the Weſt India ſeas, it is my duty to require that preciſe inſtructions ſhall, without delay, be diſpatched to the proper officers in the Weſt Indies and Nova Scotia, to correct the abuſes which have ariſen out of thoſe illegal decrees, and put an end to the depredations which are waſting the lawful commerce of a peaceable and friendly nation.

With great conſideration and reſpect, I have the honour to be your Lordſhip's moſt obedient and moſt humble ſervant, RUFUS KING.

Lord Hawkeſbury, &c. &c.

Downing-ſtreet, April 11, 1801.

Sir,

I HAVE the honour to acknowledge the receipt of your letter of the 13th of laſt month, and to inform you, that in conſequence of the repreſentation contained in it, a letter has been written, by his Majeſty's command, by his Grace the Duke of Portland, to the Lords Commiſſioners of the Admiralty; a copy of which letter I herewith encloſe to you, for the information of the government of the United States.

I have the honour to be, with great truth, Sir, your moſt obedient humble ſervant,

(Signed) HAWKESBURY.

Rufus King, Eſq. &c. &c.

Whitehall, 30th March, 1801.

My Lords,

I TRANSMIT to your Lordſhips herewith a copy of the decree of the Vice-admiralty Court of Naſſau, condemning the cargo of an American veſſel, going from the United States to a port in the Spaniſh colonies; and the ſaid decree having been referred to the conſideration of the King's Advocate General, your Lordſhips will perceive from his report, an extract from which I encloſe, that it is his opinion, that the ſentence of the Vice-admiralty Court is erroneous, and founded in a miſapprehenſion or miſapplication of the principles laid down in the deciſion of the High Court of Admiralty referred to, without attending to the limitations therein contained.

In order, therefore, to put a ſtop to the inconveniencies ariſing from theſe erroneous ſentences of the Vice-admiralty Courts, I have the honour to ſignify to your Lordſhips the King's pleaſure, that a communication of the doctrine laid down in the ſaid report ſhould be immediately made by your Lordſhips to the ſeveral judges preſiding in them, ſetting forth what is held to be the law upon the ſubject by the ſuperior tribunals, for their future guidance and direction.

I am, &c. PORTLAND.

The Lords Commiſſioners of Admiralty.

Extract of the Advocate General's Report, dated March 16, 1801.

I HAVE the honour to report, that the ſentence of the Vice-admiralty Court appears to me erroneous, and to be founded in a miſapprehenſion or miſapplication of the principles laid down in the

decision of the Court of Admiralty referred to, without attending to the limitations therein contained.

The general principle respecting the colonial trade has, in the course of the present war, been to a certain degree relaxed in consideration of the present state of commerce. It is now distinctly understood, and it has been repeatedly so decided by the High Court of Appeal, that the produce of the colonies of the enemy may be imported by a neutral into his own country, and may be re-exported from thence even to the mother country of such colony; and, in like manner, the produce and manufactures of the mother country may, in this circuitous mode, legally find their way to the colonies. The direct trade, however, between the mother country and its colonies, has not, I apprehend, been recognized as legal, either by his Majesty's government, or by his tribunals.

What is a direct trade, or what amounts to an intermediate importation into the neutral country, may sometime be a question of some difficulty. A general definition of either, applicable to all cases, cannot well be laid down. The question must depend upon the particular circumstances of each case. Perhaps the mere touching in the neutral country to take fresh clearances may properly be considered as a fraudulent evasion, and is, in effect, the direct trade; but the High Court of Admiralty has expressly decided (and I see no reason to expect that the Court of Appeal will vary the rules) that landing the goods and paying the duties in the neutral country breaks the continuity of the voyage, and is such an importation as legalizes the trade, although the goods be re-shipped in the same vessel, and on account of the same neutral proprietors, and be forwarded for sale to the mother country or the colony.

A true copy, from the files of the department of state,

JACOB WAGNER, Chief Clerk.

Speech of the American President.

ON the 4th of March, Mr. Thomas Jefferson, President of the United States of America, went to the Senate-house, where the whole of the constituted authorities being assembled, he was sworn into office; after which he delivered the following address:

"Friends and Fellow-citizens,

"Called upon to undertake the duties of the first executive office of our country, I avail myself of the presence of that portion of my fellow-citizens which is here assembled, to express my grateful thanks for the favour with which they have been pleased to look towards me, to declare a sincere consciousness that the task is above my talents, and that I approach it with those anxious and awful presentiments which the greatness of the charge, and the weakness of my powers, so justly inspire. A rising nation, spread over a wide and fruitful land, traversing all the seas with the rich productions of their industry, engaged in commerce with nations who feel power and forget right, advancing rapidly to destinies beyond the reach of mortal eye; when I contemplate these transcendent objects, and see the honour, the happiness, and the hopes of this beloved country committed

mitted to the iſſue and the auſpices of this day, I ſhrink from the contemplation, and humble myſelf before the magnitude of the undertaking. Utterly indeed ſhould I deſpair, did not the preſence of many whom I here ſee, remind me, that in the other high authorities provided by our conſtitution, I ſhall find reſources of wiſdom, of virtue, and of zeal, on which to rely under all difficulties. To you, then, Gentlemen, who are charged with the ſovereign functions of legiſlation, and to thoſe aſſociated with you, I look with encouragement for that guidance and ſupport which may enable us to ſteer with ſafety the veſſel in which we are all embarked, amidſt the conflicting elements of a troubled world.

"During the conteſt of opinion, through which we have paſſed, the animation of diſcuſſions and of exertions has ſometimes worn an aſpect which might impoſe on ſtrangers, unuſed to think freely, and to ſpeak and to write what they think; but this being now decided by the voice of the nation, announced according to the rules of the conſtitution, all will of courſe arrange themſelves under the will of the law, and unite in common efforts for the common good. All, too, will bear in mind this ſacred principle, that though the will of the majority is in all caſes to prevail, that will, to be rightful, muſt be reaſonable; that the minority poſſeſs their equal rights, which equal laws muſt protect, and to violate would be oppreſſion. Let us then, Fellow-citizens, unite with one heart and one mind; let us reſtore to ſocial intercourſe that harmony and affection, without which liberty, and even life itſelf, are but dreary things; and let us reflect, that, having baniſhed from our land that religious intolerance under which man had ſo long bled and ſuffered, we have yet gained little, if we countenance a political intolerance, as deſpotic, as wicked, and capable of as bitter and bloody perſecutions. During the throes and convulſions of the ancient world; during the agonizing ſpaſms of infuriated man, ſeeking through blood and ſlaughter his long-loſt liberty, it was not wonderful that the agitation of the billows ſhould reach even this diſtant and peaceful ſhore; that this ſhould be more felt and feared by ſome, and leſs by others; and ſhould divide opinions as to meaſures of ſafety; but every difference of opinion is not a difference of principle. We have called by different names brethren of the ſame principle. We are all republicans: we are all federaliſts. If there be any among us who would wiſh to diſſolve this union, or to change its republican form, let them ſtand undiſturbed as monuments of the ſafety with which error of opinion may be tolerated, where reaſon is left free to combat it. I know indeed that ſome honeſt men fear that a republican government cannot be too ſtrong; that this government is not ſtrong enough. But would the honeſt patriot, in the full tide of ſucceſsful experiment, abandon a government which has ſo far kept us free and firm, on the theoretic and viſionary fear, that this government, the world's beſt hope, may, by poſſibility, want energy to preſerve itſelf? I truſt not. I believe this, on the contrary, the

ſtrongeſt government on earth. I believe it the only one, where every man, at the call of the law, would fly to the ſtandard of the law, and would meet invaſions of the public order as his own perſonal concern.

"Sometimes it is ſaid, that man cannot be truſted with the government of himſelf. Can he then be truſted with the government of others? or have we found angels, in the form of kings, to govern him? Let hiſtory anſwer this queſtion. Let us then, with courage and confidence, purſue our own federal and republican principles; our attachment to union and repreſentative government. Kindly ſeparated by nature and a wide ocean from the exterminating havoc of one quarter of the globe; too high-minded to endure the degradations of the others; poſſeſſing a choſen country, with room enough for our deſcendants to the thouſandth and thouſandth generation; entertaining a due ſenſe of our equal right to the uſe of our own faculties; to the acquiſitions of our own induſtry; to honour and confidence from our fellow-citizens, reſulting not from birth, but from our actions and their ſenſe of them; enlightened by a benign religion, profeſſed indeed and practiſed in various forms, yet all of them inculcating honeſty, truth, temperance, gratitude, and the love of man; acknowledging and adoring an over-ruling Providence, which by all its diſpenſations proves that it delights in the happineſs of man here, and his greater happineſs hereafter; with all theſe bleſſings, what more is neceſſary to make us a happy and proſperous people?

"Still one thing more, Fellow-citizens; a wiſe and frugal government, which ſhall reſtrain men from injuring one another; ſhall leave them otherwiſe free to regulate their own purſuits of induſtry and improvement, and ſhall not take from the mouth of labour the bread it has earned: this is the ſum of good government, and this is neceſſary to cloſe the circle of our inquiries.

"About to enter, Fellow-citizens, on the exerciſe of duties which comprehend every thing dear and valuable to you, if at preſent you ſhould underſtand what I deem the moſt eſſential principles of our government, and conſequently thoſe which ought to ſhape its adminiſtration, I will compreſs them within the narrow compaſs they will bear, ſtating the general principle, but not all its limitations. Equal and exact juſtice to all men, of whatever ſtate or perſuaſion, religious or political; peace, commerce, and honeſt friendſhip with all nations, and entangling alliances with none; the ſupport of the ſtate governments in all their rights, as the moſt competent adminiſtrations for our domeſtic concerns, and the ſureſt bulwarks againſt anti-republican tendencies; the preſervation of the general government in its whole conſtitutional vigour, as the ſheet-anchor of our peace at home, and ſafety abroad; a jealous care of the right of election by the people, a mild and ſafe corrective of abuſes which are lopped by the ſword of revolution, where peaceable remedies are unprovided; abſolute acquieſcence in the deciſions of the majority, the vital principle of republics, from which is no appeal but to force, the vital principle and immediate parent of deſpotiſm; a well-diſciplined militia,

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our beſt reliance in peace, and for the firſt moments of war, till regulars may relieve them; the ſupremacy of the civil over the military authority; œconomy in the public expence, that labour may be lightly burdened; the honeſt payment of our debts, and ſacred preſervation of the public faith; encouragement of agriculture, and of commerce, as its handmaid; the diffuſion of information, and arraignment of all abuſes at the bar of the public reaſon; freedom of religion, freedom of the preſs, and freedom of perſon, under the protection of the Habeas Corpus; and trial by juries impartially ſelected:—theſe principles form the bright conſtellation which has gone before us, and guided our ſteps through an age of revolution and reformation. The wiſdom of our ſages, and blood of our heroes, have been devoted to their attainment; they ſhould be the creed of our political faith, the text of civil inſtruction, the touchſtone by which to try the ſervices of thoſe we truſt; and ſhould we wander from them in moments of error or of alarm, let us haſten to retrace our ſteps, and to regain the road which alone leads to peace, liberty, and ſafety.

"I repair, then, Fellow-citizens, to the poſt you have aſſigned me. With experience enough in ſubordinate offices to have ſeen the difficulties of this, the greateſt of all, I have learnt to expect that it will rarely fall to the lot of imperfect man to retire from this ſtation with the reputation and the favour which bring him into it. Without pretenſions to that high confidence you repoſed in our firſt and greateſt revolutionary character, whoſe pre-eminent ſervices had entitled him to the firſt place in his country's love, and deſtined for him the faireſt page in the volume of faithful hiſtory, I aſk ſo much confidence only as may give firmneſs and effect to the legal adminiſtration of your affairs. I ſhall often go wrong through defect of judgment. When right, I ſhall often be thought wrong by thoſe whoſe poſitions will not command a view of the whole ground. I aſk your indulgence for my own errors, which will never be intentional; and your ſupport againſt the errors of others, who may condemn what they would not, if ſeen in all its parts. The approbation implied by your ſuffrage is a great conſolation to me for the paſt; and my future ſolicitude will be, to retain the good opinion of thoſe who have beſtowed it in advance; to conciliate that of others, by doing them all the good in my power, and to be inſtrumental to the happineſs and freedom of all.—Relying, then, on the patronage of your good will, I advance with obedience to the work, ready to retire from it whenever you become ſenſible how much better choice it is in your power to make. And may that infinite Power which rules the deſtinies of the univerſe, lead our councils to what is beſt, and give them a favourable iſſue for your peace and proſperity."

Conſtitution of the French Colony of St. Domingo.

THE deputies of the departments of the colony of St. Domingo, aſſembled in a general meeting, have decreed and fixed the conſtitutional baſis of a ſyſtem for the French colony of St. Domingo.

I. *Territory.*

Art. 1. St. Domingo, in all its extent, as well as Samana, Turtle Iſland, Gouava, the Caimites, Heifer Iſland, La Saone, and the other adjacent iſlands, form the territory of a ſingle colony, which makes a part of the French empire, but is governed by particular laws.

2. The territory of this colony is divided into departments, circles, or diſtricts, and pariſhes.

II. *Inhabitants.*

3. Slaves are not permitted in this territory.—Slavery is aboliſhed for ever; all men, born in this country, live and die freemen and Frenchmen.

4. Every man, of whatſoever colour he may be, is eligible to all places.

5. There is no diſtinction but that of virtue and talents, and no ſuperiority but what the law confers by the exerciſe of ſome public function. The law is the ſame to all, whether it protects or puniſhes.

III. *Religion.*

6. The Catholic, apoſtolic, and Roman religion is the only one publicly profeſſed.

7. Every pariſh muſt pay the expences of its worſhip and its miniſters. The revenues attached to the churches are deſtined to defray theſe expences; and the preſbyteries, or glebe-houſe, to lodge the officiating clergy.

8. The government of the colony aſſigns to each pariſh the limits of its ſpiritual adminiſtration; and the miniſters of religion ſhall not, on any pretext, or at any time, form a body in the colony.

IV. *Morals.*

9. Marriage, by its political and religious inſtitution, tends to purify the public morals. Thoſe who practiſe the virtues which it enjoins, will be at all times diſtinguiſhed, and particularly protected by the government.

10. Divorce is not permitted in this colony.

11. The condition and the rights of children, born out of marriage, will be determined by laws made to extend and preſerve the ſocial virtues, as well as to encourage and ſtrengthen the union of families.

V. *Men in Society.*

12. The conſtitution guarantees the liberty and ſafety of every individual. No perſon can be arreſted without orders iſſued by the conſtituted authorities and put in execution by an officer, to whom the law gives ſuch power. Nor can any perſon ſo arreſted be detained in any place, other than thoſe publicly appointed for ſuch purpoſes.

13. Property is ſacred and inviolable. Every individual, whether by himſelf or his repreſentatives, has the free diſpoſition and management of every thing that is acknowledged to belong to him. Whoever ſhall interfere with the exerciſe of this perſonal right, will be held criminal in ſociety, and ſhall be anſwerable to the perſon with whoſe rights they have interfered.

VI. *Agriculture and Commerce.*

14. The country being eſſentially agricultural, cannot ſuffer the ſmalleſt interruption in the labours of its cultivators.

15. Every habitation is a manufacture, which obtains the union of the proprietor and the cultivators;

vators; it is the tranquil aſylum of an induſtrious and well-regulated family, of which the proprietor of the ſoil, or his repreſentative, is neceſſarily the father.

16. Every cultivator is a member of this family, and is entitled to a ſhare in the revenues. Every change that is made in a habitation on the part of the cultivator, tends to its ruin. In order to repreſs a vice equally fatal to the colony, and oppoſite to the public good, the government has made all the regulations of police which circumſtances require, and which are founded on the regulations of the 12th of October, 9th year, and on the proclamation of 8th February, publiſhed by General Touſſaint Louverture.

17. The introduction of cultivators being indiſpenſable to the re-eſtabliſhment and extenſion of agriculture, ſhall be allowed at St. Domingo.—The conſtitution charges the governor to take the moſt efficacious meaſures to encourage this increaſe of hands; to ſtipulate and to balance the intereſts of the different parties, and to guarantee the execution of the reciprocal engagements which may thus ariſe.

18. The commerce of the colony conſiſts ſolely in the exchange of the goods and the produce of its own territory; conſequently the importation of the ſame articles is and remains prohibited.

VII. *Legiſlation, and the legiſlative Authority.*

19. The ſyſtem of the colony is eſtabliſhed by laws propoſed by the government, and accepted by an aſſembly of the inhabitants, meeting at ſtated periods in the centre of the colony, under the title of the Central Aſſembly of St. Domingo.

20. No law relative to the interior adminiſtration of the colony can be promulgated, except it be accompanied by the following formula: "The Central Aſſembly of St. Domingo, on the propoſition of the government, decrees the following law."

21. No law will be binding on the citizens, but from the day of the promulgation, in the principal places of the department; all laws ſhall be promulgated in the following manner: "In the name of the French colony of St. Domingo; the governor decrees that the above-mentioned law ſhall be regiſtered, publiſhed, and executed throughout the colony."

22. The Central Aſſembly of St. Domingo is compoſed of two deputies from each department, who, in order to be eligible, ſhall have arrived at the age of thirty years, and ſhall have reſided five years in the colony.

23. Half the Aſſembly ſhall be renewed every two years, and no member can ſit ſix years in ſucceſſion. The election will be conducted in the following manner: every two years each municipal adminiſtration will name a deputy on the 1ſt March; theſe deputies will meet in ten days after, in the chief places of their reſpective departments, to form ſo many departmental electoral aſſemblies; and each of theſe aſſemblies will name a deputy to the Central Aſſembly. The firſt election will take place on the 1ſt March, of the eleventh year of the French republic. In caſe of the death or reſignation of one or more members

bers of the Assembly, the vacancy will be filled up by the governor.

He will also appoint, on the first renewal, the members of the Central Assembly, who are to hold their places for the two succeeding years.

24. The Central Assembly will vote the adoption or rejection of the laws proposed by the governor; it will express its opinions on the proposed regulations, on the application of the laws already enacted, on the abuses to be corrected, and the improvements that may be made in all parts of the service of the colony.

25. Its sittings commence every year on the 22d March, and cannot continue longer than three months. The governor can call extraordinary meetings. The sittings are not public.

26. After having received a statement of the receipts and expences, which will be presented by the governor, the Central Assembly will determine the employment, the proportion, the duration, and the mode of collecting the taxes, as well as their increase or diminution. A summary of these statements shall be printed.

VIII. *Government.*

27. The administration of the government of the colonies is confided to the governor, who corresponds with the government of the mother country concerning every thing which relates to the interests of the colonies.

28. The constitution names as governor Citizen Toussaint Louverture, general in chief of the army of St. Domingo; and, in consideration of the important services rendered by this general to the colony, in the most critical circumstances of the revolution, and of his having acted to the satisfaction of a grateful people, the reins of government are intrusted to him for the whole of his glorious life.

29. In future every governor will be appointed for six years; and if his administration in that period be approved, he will be continued in office.

30. In order to secure the tranquillity which the colony owes to the firmness, the activity, the indefatigable zeal and rare virtues of General Toussaint Louverture, and as a pledge of the boundless confidence of the inhabitants of St. Domingo, the constitution reserves exclusively to this general, in case of the cruel event of his death, the right of choosing his immediate successor. This choice shall be secret: it shall be enclosed in a sealed packet, which shall be opened only by the Central Assembly, in presence of all the generals of the army of St. Domingo, in actual service, and of the commander in chief of the departments. General Toussaint will take all the necessary precautions to enable the Central Assembly to find the place where he shall have deposited this packet.

31. The citizen who shall be chosen by Citizen Louverture to receive the reins of government after his death, will, in the presence of the Central Assembly, take the oath to execute the constitution of St. Domingo, and to remain faithful to the French government, and he will then be immediately installed. The whole will be done in the presence of the generals of the army in actual service, and of

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the commanders in chief of the departments, who ſhall all, individually and collectively, take the oath of obedience to the new governor, without quitting the place.

32. A month or more before the expiration of the ſix years fixed for the adminiſtration of each governor, he who ſhall be in office will convoke the general aſſembly, and the aſſembly of the generals of the army in actual ſervice, together with the commanders in chief of the departments, at the accuſtomed place of meeting of the Central Aſſembly, for the purpoſe of appointing a new governor, in conjunction with the members of the Aſſembly, or of continuing the one already in office.

33. The neglect of this convocation, by the governor in office, ſhall be held a manifeſt infraction of the conſtitution. In this caſe the general higheſt in rank, and the oldeſt of this rank in actual ſervice in the colony ſhall have the proviſional right of aſſuming the reins of government. This general will immediately convoke the other generals in actual ſervice, the commanders in chief of the departments, and the members of the Central Aſſembly, who ſhall be forced to obey this convocation, in order that they may proceed in concert to the nomination of a new governor.

In caſe of vacancy by death, change, or other event, before the expiration of the period limited for each governor, the government will call together, for the purpoſe already ſtated, the general in actual ſervice, the members of the Central Aſſemblies, and the commanders in chief of the department.

34. The governor ſeals and promulgates the laws: he appoints to all offices, civil and military; he is ſpecially charged with the organization of the army, of which he is commander in chief; the armed veſſels, and thoſe ſtationed in the ports of the colony, are ſubject to his orders; he will determine the diviſion of the territory, in the manner beſt adapted to its foreign relations. Regulating himſelf according to the laws, he muſt obſerve and foreſee every thing that concerns the foreign and domeſtic ſecurity of the colony; recollecting that a ſtate of war is a ſtate of deſolation, ſcarcity, and wretchedneſs for the colony. The governor, under theſe circumſtances, is charged to take all meaſures which he ſhall think proper to furniſh the colony with proviſions of all kinds.

35. He exerciſes the general police over the habitations and manufactories, when it is neceſſary to require the obſervance of their engagements from proprietors, planters, or their repreſentatives, to the cultivators and workmen who have claims on the ſaid proprietors, planters, or their repreſentatives.

36. He propoſes the laws to the Central Aſſembly, and even ſuch as may change the conſtitution, if experience ſhould ſhow that to be neceſſary.

37. He directs and inſpects the collection, the expenditure, and the application of the revenues of the colony, and gives to this effect all orders whatſoever.

38. He preſents every two years, to the Central Aſſembly, an account of the receipts and expenditure of each department, and the eſtabliſh-

eſtabliſhment of each year, ſeparately.

39. He will obſerve and condemn by his commiſſaries all writings tending to diſturb the order of the colony; he will ſuppreſs all thoſe that come from foreign countries, which may tend to corrupt the public morals, or to diſturb the colony; he will puniſh the authors or circulators of ſuch writings according to the importance of the occaſion.

40. If the governor has information that there exiſts any conſpiracy againſt the tranquillity of the colony, he has a right to cauſe to be arreſted, on the inſtant, all perſons who are ſuſpected of being the authors or accomplices; and, after having made them undergo an extraordinary interrogatory, he will cauſe them to be transferred before the competent tribunal, if there be one.

41. The appointments of the governor are fixed for the preſent at three hundred thouſand francs: his guard of honour is maintained at the expence of the colony.

IX. *Tribunals.*

42. No perſon ſhall avail himſelf of his right of citizen for the purpoſe of accommodating a diſpute by arbitrators of his own choice.

43. No authority can arreſt or ſuſpend the execution of the judgments pronounced by the tribunals.

44. Juſtice is adminiſtered in the colony by tribunals in the firſt inſtance, and by tribunals of appeal. The law determines the organization of both their numbers, their powers, and the bounds of their juriſdiction. Theſe tribunals, according to the degrees of their juriſdiction, will take cognizance of all caſes civil and criminal.

45. There will be a tribunal of reviſion, which will decide on all central demands, judgments paſſed by the tribunals of appeal, and on all conteſts between one part of a tribunal and the other.

This tribunal will not take cognizance of the grounds of caſes, but only of the proceedings in which the forms ſhall have been violated, or which ſhall contain ſome expreſs violation of the law, and will ſend the caſe back to the tribunal under the cognizance of which it ſhould be.

46. The judges of the different tribunals ſhall retain their offices during life, except in caſe of forfeiture. The agents of the government may be changed.

47. The military delinquents ſhall be cited before the ſpecial tribunals, and ſubjected to particular forms of judgment. Theſe ſpecial tribunals ſhall alſo take cognizance of all ſwindling, of all kinds of robbery, burglary, aſſaſſination, murder, burning, rape, conſpiracy, and rebellion. The organization is particularly dependent on the governor of the colony.

X. *Municipal Adminiſtration.*

48. There ſhall be in each pariſh of the colony a municipal adminiſtration: in thoſe pariſhes where there are tribunals of the firſt inſtance, the municipal adminiſtration ſhall be compoſed of a major and four adminiſtrators. The commiſſary of the government in the tribunal ſhall perform gratuitouſly the functions of commiſſary to the municipal adminiſtration. In the other pariſhes, the adminiſtration ſhall be compoſed of a

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major and two adminiſtrators, and the functions of commiſſary ſhall be performed gratuitouſly by the deputies of the commiſſaries of the tribunals to which appeals lie from theſe pariſhes.

49. The members of the municipal adminiſtrations ſhall be named every two years, and they may be continued for life. The nomination of them ſhall be committed to the governor, who ſhall chooſe, from a liſt of ſixteen names preſented by each municipal adminiſtration, ſuch perſons as he ſhall find fitted to manage the affairs of each pariſh.

50. The duties of the municipal adminiſtration ſhall conſiſt in keeping the police of the towns and villages, and in examining the increaſe of the revenues, the manufactures, and the additional tax of each pariſh. They are alſo ſpecially charged with the care of the regiſters of births and deaths.

51. The major will exerciſe his particular functions, as they are fixed by the law.

XI. *Armed Force.*

52. The armed force is in its nature obedient; it can never deliberate; it is at the diſpoſal of the governor, who can put it in action only for the maintenance of public order, and the protection of the citizens.

53. It is divided into colonial guards with pay, and colonial guards without pay.

54. The colonial guards ſerving without pay are never to go beyond the limits of their pariſhes, except in caſes of imminent danger, and then only by the orders, and under the perſonal reſponſibility, of the military commandant or commandants of the place. Beyond the limits of their pariſhes they receive pay, and then become ſubject to military diſcipline; in other caſes they are ſubject only to the law.

55. The colonial ſoldiers make a part of the armed force, and are divided into troops of cavalry and infantry. The cavalry is eſtabliſhed for the maintenance of the general police, and the ſecurity of the country; it is paid from the colonial treaſure. The infantry is for the police of the towns and villages. It is to be paid by the towns and villages where it is on ſervice.

56. The recruiting of the army is to be conducted according to the propoſitions which ſhall be made for that purpoſe by the governor to the Central Aſſembly, and according to the mode eſtabliſhed by the law.

XII. *Finances, Sequeſtrations, &c.*

57. The finances of the colony are derived from the duties impoſed on the articles of importation and exportation, from the taxes impoſed on the houſes in the towns and villages, as well as on manufactures, agriculture, and ſalt proviſions; from the revenues of the port, from fines and confiſcations, from the right of ſalvage on ſhipwrecked veſſels, and from the iſſues of the colonial domains.

58. The produce of the rents of ſequeſtered properties, the proprietors being abſent, and not repreſented, makes a proviſory part of the public revenue, and is applied to the expences of adminiſtration.

59. Circumſtances will determine the laws which it will be neceſſary

neceſſary to make with reſpect to the arrears of the public debt, the rents levied by the adminiſtration on the properties confiſcated after the promulgation of the preſent conſtitution, and on thoſe levied previous to the ſaid promulgation; they may be demanded, and ſhall be repaid on demand, the year after the ſequeſtration ſhall be taken off.

60. Foreigners admitted as heirs to their relations in France, whether thoſe relations are foreigners or Frenchmen, ſhall in like manner inherit in St. Domingo. They can paſs contracts, make purchaſes, take poſſeſſion of their property ſituated in the colonies, and diſpoſe of it as Frenchmen, in every manner authorized by the law.

61. The mode of levying and adminiſtering the finances, the domain properties, the ſequeſtrated and vacant eſtates, ſhall be determined by the laws.

62. A temporary commiſſion ſhall examine and regulate the accounts of the receipts and expences of the colony. This commiſſion to be choſen by the governor, and to conſiſt of three members.

XIII. *General Regulations.*

63. The houſe of every perſon is an inviolable aſylum. No one has a right to enter it, except in caſe of fire, inundation, or cries heard from within. In the day-time, it cannot be entered, except for ſpecial reaſons, which the law will determine, or by an order iſſued from ſome public authority.

64. Before a warrant of arreſt, directed againſt any perſon whatſoever, can be put in execution, it is neceſſary, in the firſt place, that it ſhould expreſs the motive of the arreſt, and cite the law which enacts it; ſecondly, that it be iſſued by ſome public officer, to whom the law has formally committed the right of arreſt; and, thirdly, that a copy of this warrant be given to the perſon arreſted.

65. Any perſon, who, without having received from the law the power of arreſt, ſhall iſſue, ſign, execute, or cauſe to be executed, an act of arreſt againſt any perſon whatſoever, ſhall be guilty of the crime of arbitrary impriſonment.

66. Every perſon has a right to addreſs individual petitions to all the conſtituted authorities, and eſpecially to the governor.

67. No ſociety, or corporation, inimical to public order, ſhall be formed in the colony. No aſſembly of citizens can call itſelf a popular ſociety. Every ſeditious aſſembly ſhall be diſperſed on the inſtant, firſt by verbal order; and afterwards, if neceſſary, by an armed force.

68. Every perſon ſhall have a right to form particular eſtabliſhments for the education and inſtruction of youth, with the permiſſion, and under the inſpection of the municipal adminiſtrations.

69. The law will obſerve with particular caution every ſpecies of occupation which can affect the public morals, the ſecurity, the health, or the fortune of the citizens.

70. The law recompences the inventors of every machine uſeful to agriculture, and gives them an excluſive property in their inventions.

71. There ſhall be an uniformity of weights and meaſures in the whole extent of the colony.

72. The

72. The governor, in the name of the colony, will beſtow recompences on ſuch of its warriors as ſhall diſtinguiſh themſelves in the defence of their country.

73. The proprietors, abſent for whatſoever cauſe, ſhall preſerve all their rights over the property belonging to them in the colony. In order to obtain the removal of the ſequeſtration which may have been laid on it, it will ſuffice to produce their titles, or, in default of titles, ſupplementary deeds, the form of which will be determined by the law, always excepting thoſe who have been, or who ſhall continue to be, on the liſt of French emigrants: in this latter caſe, their properties ſhall continue to be managed as colonial domains, till they ſhall have obtained their reſtoration.

74. The colony declares, under the guarantee of the public faith, that all the *baux* legally confirmed by the adminiſtration, ſhall continue to have their full effect, unleſs the perſons to whom the property is adjudged prefer entering into negotiation with the proprietors who have obtained the removal of the ſequeſtration, or their repreſentatives.

75. It declares, that it is from a reſpect for perſons and properties, that the cultivation of the land, all its productions, all the means of making them proſper, and all ſocial order muſt depend.

76. It declare, that every citizen owes his ſervices to the country which has given him birth, to the ſoil which feeds him, and to the maintenance of liberty, and the juſt diviſion of property, as often as the law calls on him to defend them.

77. The General in Chief, Touſſaint Louverture, is charged with ſending this conſtitution to be preſented for the ſanction of the French government. In the mean time, convinced of the dangers of our ſituation, of the want that we are in of laws, and of the neceſſity of an immediate re-eſtabliſhment of agriculture, and, complying with the unanimous wiſh of the inhabitants of St. Domingo, we invite the General in Chief, in the name of the public, to cauſe the preſent conſtitution to be put in force in the whole extent of the colony.

Done at Port Republican, May 9, ninth year of the French republic, one and indiviſible, 1801.

(Signed) BORGELLA, Preſident.

NAMONO. LACOUR.
COLLET. NAXAS.
GASTON. MUGNOX.
NOGERGE. MANGEBO.

VIART, Secretary.

After having examined the conſtitution, I give it my approbation: invitation of the Central Aſſembly is in my eyes an order, in conſequence of which I will tranſmit it to the French government to obtain its ſanction; as to its execution throughout the colony, the wiſh expreſſed by the Central Aſſembly ſhall be fulfilled and executed.

Given at Cape Français, 2d July, ninth year of the French republic, one and indiviſible, 1801.

The General in Chief,
(Signed)
TOUSSAINT LOUVERTURE.

Letter from Touſſaint Louverture, Commander in Chief of the Army of

of St. Domingo, to Citizen Bonaparté, First Conſul of the French Republic.

At Santo Domingo, Feb. 12, *9th year of the French Republic, One and Indiviſible,* 1801.

Citizen Conſul,

DISAFFECTION, alarmed at the determination by which the Spaniſh part of St. Domingo was about to be annexed to the dominions of the republic, employed every art and intrigue to raiſe obſtacles to the meaſure. That which beſt ſuited its views was to recal Citizen Roume, agent of the government, and to engage him to adopt means for poſtponing the poſſeſſion of that ſettlement which he had himſelf decreed.

Reſolved to obtain it by force of arms, I felt it my duty, before I began my march, to invite Citizen Roume to terminate his functions and to retire to Dondon until he ſhould receive new orders; becauſe intrigue and diſaffection would be there leſs capable of leading him aſtray. He continues there ready to obey your orders. Whenever you ſhall claim him, I will ſend him to France. Whatever may be the calumnies which my enemies may have prevailed upon him to tranſmit to you againſt me, I ſhall abſtain from any juſtification of myſelf; but while my delicacy compels me to ſilence, my duty enjoins me to prevent him from acting improperly.

The neceſſity of carrying on a ſtrict correſpondence with my government, and the few opportunities that preſent themſelves for that purpoſe, induce me to requeſt, Citizen Conſul, that you will appropriate L'Enfant Prodigue corvet to that object only, and that you will diſpatch it to St. Domingo once at leaſt every three months, in order that I may be enabled to tranſmit to you regularly, at the periods of its return, the preciſe ſtate of this fine colony, for the proſperity of which you may be aſſured I ſhall continue on all occaſions to exert my ſelf.

Health and profound reſpect.

TOUSSAINT LOUVERTURE.

Letter from Touſſaint Louverture, Commander in Chief of the Army at St. Domingo, to Citizen Bonaparté, Firſt Conſul of the French Republic.

Cape Français, July 16, 1801.

Citizen Conſul,

THE miniſter of the marine, in the account that he has of courſe given you of the political ſituation of this colony, and which I tranſmitted to him by the diſpatches ſent by the corvette L'Enfant Prodigue, on her return to France, muſt have ſubmitted to you my proclamation of the 5th of February. It announces a convocation of a Central Aſſembly, which (at the inſtant in which an union of the French and Spaniſh parts of St. Domingo made them but one country, ſubject to the ſame legiſlative ſyſtem) was to eſtabliſh their future condition by wholeſome laws, founded on the manners and poſition of the inhabitants.

I have this day the ſatisfaction to inform you, that the finiſhing hand

hand has been put to this work, and that a conſtitution has been formed, which promiſes happineſs to the long ſuffering inhabitants of this colony, and which I tranſmit to you for your approbation and that of my government. For this purpoſe I have diſpatched to you Citizen Vincent, chief director of the fortifications at St. Domingo, to whom I intruſted this precious charge. The Central Aſſembly having required of me (on account on the non-exiſtence of all law, and the neceſſity that there is for the ſuppreſſion of anarchy) to put this conſtitution in force, as a means of ſooner producing its future proſperity, I have acquieſced in their demand. It has been received by all claſſes of perſons, with tranſports of joy, which no doubt will be reiterated as ſoon as it ſhall be returned to them with the ſanction of government.

Health and reſpect.

TOUSSAINT LOUVERTURE.

Proclamation by Touſſaint Louverture. From the Official Bulletin of St. Domingo, of the 19th Meſſidor, 8th July 1801, old Style.

LIBERTY. EQUALITY.
French Republic.

People of St. Domingo,

THE colonial conſtitution for this important iſland, has juſt been handed to me by the Central Aſſembly, compoſed of legiſlators, who, in virtue of my proclamation of the 16th Pluvoiſe laſt, have met to eſtabliſh laws which are to regulate and govern us.

I have read that law with attention; and perſuaded that it will enſure the welfare of my fellow-citizens, as it is founded on good morals, on localities, and principally on religion, I approve it.

But when I conſider that I am charged with the execution of theſe conſtitutional laws, I ſee that my taſk is more difficult than that of the legiſlators has been. Nevertheleſs, I announce, that however vaſt and ſpacious this undertaking may be, I will do my beſt to go through with it.

O you, my fellow-citizens, of every age, of every ſtation, and of every colour, you are free; and the conſtitution, which is this day remitted to me, is to render this liberty eternal.

Let us, in the firſt place, proſtrate ourſelves before the Creator of the univerſe, to thank him for his bleſſings ſo precious.

It is my duty to ſpeak to you in the language of truth. This conſtitution aſſures to every individual the enjoyment of his rights; it requires of every citizen the practice of the virtues, as it calls within our climate the reign of good morals, and the divine religion of Jeſus Chriſt.

Therefore, then, magiſtrates, ſerve as an example to the people of whom you are to conſider yourſelves the fathers and the defenders. Let probity and righteouſneſs guide your actions and dictate your ſentences. You will ſecure to yourſelves the eſteem of your fellow citizens: it is the ſweeteſt conſolation a man in office can deſire.

Brave military men! Generals, officers, ſubalterns, and ſoldiers! Obſerve diſcipline and ſubordination, give activity to culture,

be obedient to your chiefs, defend and maintain the conſtitution againſt foreign and domeſtic enemies, who might endeavour to injure it. Let your motto always be Bravery, and your guide Honour; you will deſerve well of the country.

Cultivators! avoid indolence, it is the mother of vices. Guard principally againſt the ſeductions of men as ill-intentioned as malevolent. You will at all times find in me, as well as in generals my repreſentatives, the repreſſors of injuſtice and abuſes.

Induſtrious inhabitants of the towns! be ſubmiſſive to the laws; they will not ceaſe to be your protection and your ægis.

People, magiſtrates, and ſoldiers! I lay before you your duties and mine. For me, I promiſe, in the face of Heaven, to do whatever will depend on me, by the permiſſion of God, to preſerve union, peace and public tranquillity, and conſequently the happineſs of my fellow citizens. I promiſe to execute what is preſcribed to me by the conſtitution. Swear to me, in like manner, before the Supreme Being, that you will ſubmit yourſelves to thoſe laws which are to inſure your happineſs and conſolidate your liberty.

Citizens! I inform you that the law is the compaſs of every citizen; that when it ſpeaks they muſt yield obedience. The civil and military authorities are to be the firſt to ſubmit to them, and to give thereby an example to the people. Follow from point to point the conſtitution which the Central and legiſlative Aſſembly of St. Domingo has juſt preſented to you; and may the ſublime principles it has juſt conſecrated remain eternally engraven upon your hearts.

At all times, my dear fellow-citizens and friends, my deſire, my wiſh, and my ambition, conſiſted in finding and preparing the means to render you free and happy: if I can attain an object ſo dear to my heart, I ſhall not regret life, and I ſhall go without any remorſe to render an account of my actions to the Almighty God, the Sovereign Author of all things.

Live for ever the French republic and the colonial conſtitution!

The General in Chief,
(Signed)
TOUSSAINT LOUVERTURE.

Proclamation in the Name of the French Colony of St. Domingo, Touſſaint Louverture, Governor.

LIBERTY. EQUALITY.

EVER ſince the revolution I have done all that reſted with me to reſtore the happineſs of my country, to ſecure the liberty of my fellow-citizens. Forced to fight the internal and external enemies of the French republic, I have made war with courage, honour, and loyalty. Towards my greateſt enemies I have never ſwerved from the rules of juſtice; and if I have all the means which were in my power to conquer them, I have likewiſe endeavoured, ſo far as lay in me, to mitigate the horrors of war, to ſpare the blood of man. The pardon of offences has ever been my principle; humanity my leading ſentiment; and

and I have received as friends and brothers thoſe who the day before were under the hoſtile banners. By forgetting errors and faults, I have wiſhed to make the genuine and ſacred cauſe of liberty amiable, even to our moſt ardent adverſaries.

I have conſtantly reminded my brethren in arms, as well officers as generals, that the rank to which they were raiſed ought only to be the reward of honour, bravery, and irreproachable private behaviour; that the more they were elevated above their fellow-citizens, the more circumſpect and unblameable ſhould be all their actions and all their words; that the ſcandal of public men was attended by conſequences more detrimental to ſociety than that of ſimple citizens; that the rank and functions with which they were inveſted, were not given to them only to ſerve their fortunes or their ambition, but that thoſe neceſſary inſtitutions had for their cauſe and their end the public good; that they impoſed duties which ought, in the firſt place, to be diſcharged without ſelfiſh conſiderations; that impartiality and equity ought to dictate all their deciſions; the love of order, the proſperity of the colony, the ſuppreſſion of every vice, ſhould perpetually call forth their activity, their vigilance, and their zeal.

I have continually and energetically recommended to the whole military, ſubordination, diſcipline, and obedience, without which an army cannot exiſt. It is created to protect liberty, the ſecurity of perſons and property; and all thoſe who compoſe it ſhould never loſe ſight of the object of its honourable deſtination. It is for the officers, along with good advice, to give their ſoldiers good examples. Each captain ought to feel the noble emulation of having his company the beſt diſciplined, the cleaneſt, and the beſt exerciſed; he ought to conſider that the errors of his ſoldiers recoil upon himſelf, and that he is degraded by the faults of thoſe he commands. The ſame ſentiments ought, in a higher degree, to animate chiefs of battalion for their battalions, and chiefs of brigade for their brigades: they ought to regard them as their own families, when the individuals of whom they are compoſed perform their duty well, and ſhow themſelves rigid commanders when they depart from it.

Such is the language I have held out to General Moyſe during ten years, in all my private converſations; which I have repeated to him a thouſand times in the preſence of his companions; which I have reſumed in my correſpondence: ſuch are the principles I have recorded in a thouſand of my letters. On every occaſion I have endeavoured to explain to him the holy maxims of our religion, and to prove to him that man is nothing without the power and will of God; that the duties of a Chriſtian who has received baptiſm ought never to be neglected; that when a man braves Providence he muſt expect a dreadful end. What have I not done to bring him back to virtue, to juſtice, to benevolence, to change his vicious inclinations, and to hinder him from precipitating himſelf into the abyſs? God alone knows it. Inſtead of liſtening to the advice of a father, of a chief devoted to the colony, he

was only guided by his deſtructive paſſions—he periſhed miſerably! Such is the lot reſerved for thoſe who ſhall imitate him. The juſtice of Heaven is ſlow, but ſooner or later it ſtrikes the wicked like a thunderbolt, and cruſhes them.

The cruel experiment I have juſt made will not be uſeleſs to me; and after the miſconduct of General Moyſe there ſhall be no general of diviſion named without new orders from the French government.

Nevertheleſs General Deſſalines ſhall, on account of the ſervices he has done, retain his rank of general of diviſion.

In one of my proclamations, during the war of the ſouth, I have traced the duties of fathers and mothers, their obligations to educate their children in the fear of God, always regarding religion as the baſis of all virtue, and the foundation of the happineſs of ſociety. In fact, who are they who have, ſince the revolution, cauſed the greateſt misfortunes to the colony? Have they not been men without religion or morals? He that deſpiſes God and his divine precepts, who does not cheriſh his neareſt relations, will he love his fellow-creatures? Thou ſhalt honour thy father and thy mother, that thy days may be long, is one of the firſt commandments of God. Will a child, who does not reſpect his father and his mother, liſten to the advice of thoſe who are ſtrangers to him? Will he obey the laws of ſociety, who has trampled upon the holieſt and mildeſt law of nature? Yet with what negligence do fathers and mothers educate their children, eſpecially in cities! Inſtead of inſtructing them in religion, exacting from them reſpect and obedience, and giving them ideas ſuitable to their condition; inſtead of teaching them to love induſtry, they leave them in idleneſs, and ignorance of their firſt duties; they appear themſelves to deſpiſe, and teach their children to deſpiſe agriculture, the firſt, the moſt honourable, and moſt uſeful of occupations. Scarcely are they born when we ſee the ſame children at once decked with toys and earrings, and covered with filthy rags, offending the eyes of decency with their nakedneſs. They thus arrive at the age of twelve, without moral principles or occupation, and with no education, except a reliſh for luxury and indolence; and as bad impreſſions are hard to eradicate, they become bad citizens, vagabonds, and thieves; or, if they are girls, they are proſtitutes: and, be which they will, are ready to obey the impulſe of any conſpirator who ſhall preach to them diſorder, aſſaſſination, and plunder. Upon ſuch vile fathers and mothers, upon ſuch dangerous pupils, the military commanders ought to keep perpetually a watchful eye, that the hand of juſtice ſhould be continually ſtretched out.

The ſame reproach equally applies to a great number of cultivators, male and female, upon the plantations. Since the revolution, ill-diſpoſed men have addreſſed the lazy and turbulent, and ſaid, "That liberty was the right of living in idleneſs, and doing ill with impunity, of deſpiſing the laws, and only following their own fancies." Such a doctrine could not but be well received by all bad ſubjects, thieves, and aſſaſſins. It is time to ſtrike at thoſe hardened men who perſiſt in ſuch ideas.

All the world ought to know that there are no means of living peaceable and reſpected, but labour, and aſſiduous labour.

Such is the leſſon which fathers and mothers ought to give to their children every day, and every moment of their lives.

As ſoon almoſt as a child can walk he ought to be employed about the plantations, in ſome uſeful labour proportioned to his ſtrength, inſtead of being ſent into towns, under pretence of that education he does not receive; he comes there only to learn vices, to increaſe the rabble of vagabonds, and women of ill fame, to diſturb the repoſe of his fellow-citizens by his very exiſtence, and to end it by a capital puniſhment. The military commanders and the magiſtrates muſt be inexorable to this claſs of men; they muſt force them, in ſpite of themſelves, to be uſeful to that ſociety of which they would be the ſcourge without the ſevereſt vigilance.

Since the revolution it is evident that the war has cauſed the deſtruction of far more men than women; of theſe latter alſo are found a greater number in the towns, whoſe only exiſtence is founded upon libertiniſm. Occupied entirely with thoughts of dreſs, the effects of their proſtitution; diſdaining not only culture, but every other employment, they entirely refuſe to do any thing uſeful. Theſe are they who conceal all the guilty, who live upon the profits of their rapine, who excite them to robbery for the purpoſe of partaking the fruits of their crimes. It concerns the honour of the magiſtrates, generals, and commanders, not to leave one of theſe in the towns or ſuburbs; the leaſt negligence in this reſpect will render them worthy of public cenſure.

Moyſe, it is true, was the ſoul of the late conſpiracy; but he could not have completed his infamy had he not been able to find accomplices.

As to domeſtics, every citizen ought only to have as many as are indiſpenſably neceſſary for his ſervice. The perſons with whom they live ought to be the principal obſervers of their conduct, and to ſuffer nothing in them contrary to good morals, to ſubmiſſion, and to order; if they are idle, they ſhould correct them for this vice; if they are thieves, they ought to be denounced to the military commanders, to be puniſhed according to the laws. A good ſervant, animated with juſtice, will do more work than four bad ones: and ſince, in the new regime, all labour merits wages, ſo all wages merit labour.

Such is the invariable and decided will of the government.

There is, beſides, an object worthy its attention; that is, the obſerving of ſtrangers who arrive in the colony. Some of them only know, from the reports of the enemies of the new order of things, the changes which have taken place, without reflecting upon the cauſes which have produced them, or upon the difficulties which were to overcome, that the greateſt diſorder that ever exiſted might be ſucceeded by tranquillity and peace, cultivation and trade; they entertain deſigns the more dangerous, as they are welcomed by all thoſe who, founding their hopes upon diſturbances, only deſire pretexts.

Such faults ought to be the more ſeverely puniſhed, as the negligence of the public functionaries in this reſpect would enſure that confidence they require, and would cauſe them to be juſtly regarded as the enemies of liberty.

The moſt ſacred of all inſtitutions of men who live in ſociety, from whence flows every good, is marriage. A good father of a family, a good huſband, entirely occupied by the happineſs of his children, ought to be among them the living image of the Divinity. Thus a good government ought always to ſurround good families with honour, with reſpect, and with veneration; it ought never to repoſe till it has pulled up the laſt root of immorality. The military commanders, the public functionaries, are, above all, without excuſe, when they publicly give way to the ſcandal of vice. Thoſe who, having wives, keep concubines in their own houſes, or thoſe who, not being married, live publicly with a variety of women, are unworthy to command, and will be caſhiered.

As a final analyſis: every man exiſting in the colony owes to his fellow-citizens a good example; every military commander, every public functionary, ought accurately to fulfil his duty; they will be judged by their actions, by the good they have done, by the tranquillity and proſperity of the places they command. In a well-ordered ſtate, idleneſs is the ſource of every diſorder, and if it is ſuffered in a ſingle individual, I ſhall blame the military commanders, perſuaded that thoſe who tolerate idle perſons and vagabonds, have bad deſigns, and are the ſecret enemies of the government.

No perſon can, under any pretence, be exempt from ſome taſk or other, according to his faculties. Fathers and mothers, who have children and eſtates, ought to go and live there, work there themſelves, make their children work, watch over their labours, and, in the moment of repoſe, inſtruct them themſelves; or by teaching them the precepts of our religion, impreſs upon them the horror of vice, explain to them the commandments of God, grave the principles of them upon their heart in an ineffaceable manner, and penetrate them with this truth, that as idleneſs is the mother of every vice, ſo is labour the father of every virtue. It is by theſe means that reſpectable and uſeful citizens will be formed, that one may expect to ſee this beautiful colony one of the happieſt countries upon earth, and for ever keep away thoſe horrible events, the recollection of which can never be effaced from our memories.

In conſequence I decree as follows:

Art. 1. Every commandant who, ſince the late conſpiracy, has had knowledge of the troubles which ſhould have broken out, and permitted plunder or aſſaſſination, who being able to prevent or hinder revolt, has ſuffered to be broken that law which declares the life, the property, and the home of every citizen, ſacred and inviolable, ſhall be carried before a ſpecial tribunal, and puniſhed according to the law of the 22d Thermidor, year 9 (Auguſt 10, 1801.)

Every

Every military commander, who, by want of foreſight, or neglect, has not put a ſtop to diſorders when committed, ſhall be caſhiered, and puniſhed with a year's impriſonment.

There ſhall, in conſequence, be made a rigorous inquiry into their conduct, and then the governor will pronounce upon their fate.

2. All generals commanders of the arrondiſſements or quarters, who ſhall for the future neglect to take all neceſſary precautions to prevent ſeditions, but ſhall ſuffer the law to be violated, which declares the life, the property, and home of every citizen, ſacred and inviolable, ſhall be carried before a ſpecial tribunal, and puniſhed, conformable to the law of the 22d Thermidor, year 9 (Auguſt 10, 1801).

3. In caſe of trouble, or indications of its breaking out, the national guard of that quarter or circle ſhall be at the order of the military commanders, on their ſimple requiſition. Every commander who ſhall not have taken the neceſſary precautions for preventing trouble in their quarters, or the propagation of troubles from an adjacent quarter; every military man, either of the line or national troops, who ſhall refuſe to obey legal orders, ſhall be puniſhed with death.

4. Every individual, male or female, of whatever colour, who ſhall be convicted of having entertained ſerious intentions of raiſing ſedition, ſhall be taken before a council of war, and puniſhed conformable to law.

5. Every individual Creole, male or female, convicted of having entertained deſigns tending to diſturb the public tranquillity, but who ſhall not be thought worthy of death, ſhall be ſent to work, with a chain at his foot, for ſix months.

6. Every ſtranger in the ſituation of the article preceding, ſhall be ſent out of the colony as a bad ſubject.

7. In every commune of the colony, where there exiſt municipal adminiſtrations, all the citizens, male and female, which inhabit them, whatever their qualities or condition, muſt provide themſelves with cards of ſafety.

This card ſhall contain the name, ſurname, domicile, ſtate, age, profeſſion, and quality, age and ſex, of thoſe who bear it.

It ſhall be ſigned by the mayor and commiſſary of the quarter where the perſon inhabits.

It ſhall be renewed every ſix months, on paying a dollar, by each individual: the ſums thus ariſing to be applied to the communal expence.

8. It is expreſsly forbidden to the municipal adminiſtrations to give cards to any one who has not an eſtate or profeſſion, well-known irreproachable conduct, and certain means of exiſtence.

All thoſe who cannot fulfil the neceſſary conditions ſtrictly, ſhall, if Creoles, be ſent to till the ground, or, if ſtrangers, be ſent away from the colony.

9. Every mayor or officer of police, who, by negligence, or to favour vice, ſhall have ſigned and delivered a card of ſafety to an individual who is not qualified to obtain it, ſhall be caſhiered and impriſoned one month.

10. Fifteen days after the publication of the preſent arrêt, every

perſon found without a card of ſafety, if a Creole, ſhall be ſent to culture; if a ſtranger, ſent out of the colony, unleſs he prefers ſerving in the troops of the line.

11. Every domeſtic, who, before leaving the houſe where he has ſerved, ſhall not have been thought worthy a certificate of good behaviour, ſhall be declared incapable of receiving a card of ſafety. Any perſon, who, to favour him, ſhall give him one, ſhall be impriſoned one month.

12. Fifteen days after the publication of the preſent arrêt, all managers or conductors of plantations are charged to ſend an exact liſt of all the cultivators of every age and ſex in the plantation, under pain of being impriſoned eight days.

Every conductor or manager is the principal guard of the plantation; he is declared perſonally reſponſible for every kind of diſorder committed there, and for the idleneſs and vagabondage of the cultivators.

13. A month after the publication of this arrêt, all the commanders of quarters are required to ſend the liſt of the cultivators of every plantation of their quarters to the commanders of circles, on pain of being caſhiered.

14. The commanders of circles are required to ſend liſts of all the plantations of their circles to the generals under the orders of whom they are, without delay, under pain of diſobedience.

Theſe liſts, depoſited in the archives of the government, will ſerve for the future as an immutable baſis for the fixing of the cultivators with reſpect to the inhabitants.

15. Every manager or conductor of a plantation, where a ſtranger cultivator ſhall have taken refuge, is required to denounce him to the captain or commander of the ſection, within twenty-four hours, under pain of eight days impriſonment.

16. Every captain or commandant of a ſection, who by negligence ſhall have left a ſtrange cultivator more than three days in a plantation in his ſection, ſhall be caſhiered.

17. Vagabond cultivators thus arreſted ſhall be conducted by the military to their own habitation. They ſhall be recommended to the peculiar inſpection of the conductors or managers, and thus ſhall for three months have no paſſport to go out of the plantation.

18. It is forbidden to any ſoldier to go to any plantation or private houſe in the town. Thoſe who wiſh to work, and have obtained their officers' permiſſion, ſhall be employed at labours for the republic, and paid according to their labour.

19. It is forbidden to any ſoldier to go to any plantation unleſs to ſee his father or his mother. If he fails to return to his corps at the hour appointed, he ſhall be puniſhed according to the caſe, conformably to military law.

20. Every perſon convicted of having diſturbed or attempted to diſturb a family, ſhall be denounced to the civil and military authorities, who ſhall give an account of it to the Governor, who will decide according to the caſe.

21. My order relative to culture given at Port Republican, 20th Vendemiaire, year 9, ſhall be executed in its form and tenour.

It

It is enjoined to the military commanders to look into it, and ſee that it is executed with rigour, and literally, and whatever is not contrary to the preſent proclamation.

The preſent proclamation ſhall be printed, tranſcribed upon the adminiſtrative and judicial regiſters, read, publiſhed, and poſted where need is; and beſides inſerted in the official bulletin of St. Domingo.

A copy ſhall be ſent to each of the miniſters of worſhip, to be read to their pariſhioners after maſs.

All generals, military commanders, and all civil authorities in the departments, are enjoined to enforce the moſt ſevere, full, and entire execution of its ſpirit and regulations, upon their perſonal reſponſibility, and under pain of diſobedience.

Given at Cape Français, 4th Frimaire, year 10 (November 25, 1801.)

(Signed)

TOUISSAINT LOUVERTURE.

Principal Articles of a ſecond Plan of the Helvetic Conſtitution, preſented to the Executive Council previous to the 5th of May, 1801.

1. THE Helvetic republic ſhall be compoſed of ſeventeen cantons, which ſhall each have, according to its territorial extent and its means, an interior adminiſtrative organization, calculated, in relation, however, with the central government, for all the objects which are to determine the political force of the republic.

2. The Helvetic republic ſhall have a central government, compoſed of a Diet of eighty members, to meet in the chief place for two months in the year; of a permanent Council of State, of twenty-five members; of a Council of Regency or Executive Power; of a High Court of Juſtice.

3. Appointments.—The members of the Diet ſhall be paid by their conſtituents, according to their will. Thoſe of the Council of State ſhall each have 6000 francs a year. Thoſe of the Council of Regency ſhall have: the reigning Landamme 50,000 francs; the ſecond Landamme 10,000; the two Stadtholders 6000 francs each; the three Miniſters, each 6000.

4. The Council of State ſhall be preſided by the Landamme, who is not in regency.

5. The Council of Regency ſhall be compoſed of a reigning Landamme, preſident; of a ſecond Landamme; of two Stadtholders; of three Counſellors performing the functions of miniſters; of a Secretary of State, charged at the ſame time with the political correſpondence (miniſter for foreign affairs.)

6. The Diet names the Council of State from its own body, or not, according as they think fit.

7. The Council of State names from its body the Council of Regency.

8. The Council of State ſhall be compoſed of one member from each canton at leaſt, and of three at moſt.

9. The Miniſters ſhall be for the finances, for war, and for juſtice.

10. With reſpect to the interior adminiſtration of the cantons, there ſhall be no miniſter of the interior, nor miniſter of the arts and ſciences.

The

The Secretary of State performs the functions of Minister of Exterior Relations.

11. Mode of election.—Every municipality names a deputy; these deputies, chosen by the municipalities, shall name for each district one elector. The electors of districts, conjointly with the national prefect and the administrative chambers, name the deputies to the Diet, and determine the interior of their cantons. There shall be prescribed to the municipalities a maximum of property upon which they shall decide their choice.

12. The Council of Regency shall name for each canton a Stadtholder, who shall be its representative.

13. According to their extent and proportion, the cantons shall name to the Diet as follows:

14. Berne shall be the chief place of the republic.

15. The Diet proposes laws; the cantons ratify. In default of a sufficient majority, the Diet itself sanctions.

16. The new organization shall commence the 1st of next August, and the constitution shall be put in force on the 23d of September.

Substance of the Address of Citizen Ruttiman, temporary President of the Executive Council, to the Helvetic Diet, assembled at Bern, on the 7th of September, 1801.

YOU are summoned to deliberate upon the plan of constitution published on the 29th of May last. You have at length to establish a permanent order of things in the Helvetic republic. At this decisive moment every eye is fixed upon you. Your time is too precious to admit of my entering into a laboured harangue. It is necessary to act, and to act with promptitude. In affairs of state, as in those of individuals, there are certain precious opportunities, which must be instantly improved, or they are irrecoverably lost.

At the commencement of the fourteenth century, the plant of liberty shot forth in Switzerland; may it still be seen to blossom at the commencement of the nineteenth! Time must have instructed us in many things. For three years we have trodden, as it were, upon burning coals. Our liberty primitively sprung from the sorry huts of a nation of shepherds: let us not forget our origin. Our country contains many more cottages than sumptuous palaces; and it is from the latter that slavery frequently traces its descent. Let us, however, beware, on the other hand, of holding the arts and sciences in contempt. They ennoble the human race; their mild effulgence inspires life and vigour, elevates man to a sense of his own dignity, and renders him truly free. Proceed—every revolution is a victory—the conqueror may act as a magnanimous hero; but let him not renounce his right.

Commit no infringement of the rights of man, but proceed in the path of justice. It is justice only that can prevent the ruin of our morals; and a people without morals is already devoted to destruction. May the maxims of religion, the conviction of the existence of an Eternal Being, and the lessons of Christianity, continue to transform us into better men and better citizens! Do not flatter the people,

people, for flattery is the ruin of nations as well as of kings. May the rigid œconomy, to which Switzerland owes her paſt happineſs, re-appear among us! The maxims adapted to the conduct of individuals, are thoſe which ſhould alſo regulate the affairs of our petty ſtate. Do not look ſo much to the revenue we may be able to raiſe, as to the expences which may be ſuperſeded. With us the farmer and the artiſan are not in a condition to ſupport conſiderable impoſts. May the bitter remembrance of the paſt be extinguiſhed! Forget individuals, that you may recollect events. Who is the man that can boaſt of having committed no error during the courſe of this too long revolution? Reflect that the human mind may be frequently deceived, while the heart ſtill remains good, ſtill cheriſhes the cauſe of liberty and its country. This day is the commencement of a new epoch. Endeavour to unite all the inhabitants of Helvetia in one family. May brothers ſympathize in the joys and ſorrows of brothers! may they riſe together, and lie down together, as in the days of our fathers!—Maintain an indiſſoluble union. The old obſervation is ſtill applicable; union ſtrengthens the moſt feeble ſtates; diſcord deſtroys the moſt powerful. Let the experience of the paſt teach you to fix the future while it is in your power. Awaken the national ſpirit—reanimate the national honour. Let every man feel proud of the name of Swiſs, and make it an appellation of honour in foreign countries. You will accompliſh this deſirable object, if the order of things which you are going to eſtabliſh will give us peace and tranquillity, and ſecure our liberty and independence.

Begin your work with energy, but with prudence. Reject not a certain good, in the purſuit of that which appears better, but which is concealed in the lap of expectation. Heſitate not to leave ſomething to be done by time. What is of the moſt urgent importance, is to replace the preſent proviſional order of things by a definite ſyſtem. Render this ſyſtem permanent, and all the people of Helvetia will bleſs you to the remoteſt generations. May God bleſs your labours.

[At the concluſion of this addreſs, a call of the members took place. They came forward in ſucceſſion, and laid the act of their nomination upon the table. All of them were preſent. The Aſſembly conſiſts of eighty-one members.]

Helvetic Republic.

The Projet of the Conſtitution, which was preſented on the 21ſt of September, 1801, *for the Helvetic Republic.*

TITLE I.

THE Helvetic republic ſhall be divided into one great ſtate, and its territory ſhall be ſeparated into cantons.

Theſe cantons ſhall be Berne, the firſt cantonal Diet, according to the decree of the 27th of June, 1801; Zurich, according to the ſame modifications, with the exception of any ſubſequent regulations; Lucerne, Uri, Schwitz, Underwald, Zug, Glaris, Appenzel, Fribourg, Baſle, to which is to be added the lower part of Frickthall, Schaffhauſen, Argorie,

to which is to be added the higher part of Frickthall, the Pays de Vaud, the Griſon, and the Teſin.

The legiſlature ſhall determine the limits of the Valais. In general it may be ſaid that they will be reduced to a more equal diviſion.

TITLE II.

There ſhall be a general organization of the republic, for the exerciſe of a national ſovereignty, and a cantonal organization.

The general organization comprehends the higher branches of general police.

The armed force for the interior and exterior ſecurity of the republic.

The political and diplomatic connections with foreign ſtates.

The legal adminiſtration, and adminiſtration of juſtice.

The determination of the ſhare which each canton ſhall pay in direct impoſitions.

The determination and perception of the indirect impoſts, which the law may annually require for the general wants.

The property and legal diſpoſition of the national wealth and domains, under the reſerve of the charges that may be attached to them.

The general adminiſtration of the taxes on ſalt, poſts, mines, gunpowder, cuſtoms, and tolls.

The management and police of banks.

The regulation and management of commerce.

The public eſtabliſhments, and the individuals deſtined to the purpoſes of civil education.

The conceſſion of the right of citizenſhip in the Helvetic republic, according to the conditions preſcribed by law.

The particular organization of each canton comprehends the diviſion and receipt of direct impoſts.

The internal and local police.

The taxes upon real property belong abſolutely to the nation, together with the tithes and hundredths, under this condition, that private proprietors and charitable inſtitutions ſhall be indemnified, and that the eſtabliſhments for the purpoſes of education throughout the canton ſhall be properly maintained.

Public worſhip, and the indemnities of the clergy, and the eſtabliſhments for education and inſtruction. The ſurplus of the tenths and hundredths ſhall be preferably employed to cover the expence thus occaſioned.

Articles of the new Helvetic Conſtitution, agreed to on the 29th of September, 1801, at Berne.

1. THE integrity of Helvetia is a fundamental article of the Helvetic conſtitution.

2. The Helvetic republic forms only one ſtate:—its territory is divided into cantons.

3. There is one right of Helvetic citizenſhip:—there are no political rights of citizens relative to diſtinct cantons.

4. The whole canton of Valais ſhall appertain to Helvetia, and not be ceded, unleſs France ſhould take poſſeſſion of it by force.

Farther Articles, voted upon the 1ſt and 2d of October, 1801.

5. The Senate has the neceſſary propoſal of laws, but ſhall receive on the ſubject the remarks of the ſovereign authority of each canton,

ton, and lay the ſame, together with its propoſal, before the Diet, which ſhall finally decide.

6. The Diet ſhall aſſemble ordinarily the 1ſt of February of every year, and extraordinarily, when either the majority of the cantons or the ſenate itſelf ſhall judge neceſſary.

7. The Diet conſiſts of deputies from all the cantons, the number of which ſhall be fixed in proportion to the population.

8. The members of the Diet ſhall be choſen in their reſpective cantons, in the manner preſcribed by the organization of each canton.

9. The ſenate poſſeſſes, together with the propoſal of laws, the direction of the general meaſures of government.

10. A committee appointed by the ſenate (the leſſer council) ſhall ſuperintend the execution of its determination.

Decree of the ancient Helvetic Legiſlative Body; dated Berne, 28th of October, 1801.

THE Legiſlative Council, conſidering the evils with which the country is menaced, by the incoherence of the labours of the Helvetic Diet, and the manifeſt partiality which has ſwayed its deliberations:

Conſidering that this Diet has miſtaken its duties and gone beyond the limits of its powers, in occupying itſelf upon a new plan of conſtitution, and arrogating to itſelf in fact the functions of a conſtituent aſſembly;

Conſidering that ſuch a ſtep is not juſtified by any power legitimately delegated, that it is even in formal oppoſition to the organic laws, as well as to the wiſh of Helvetia, tacitly expreſſed by the convocation of the aſſemblies of cantons;

Conſidering that by the ſeceſſion of ſixteen members of that aſſembly, ſeveral cantons, not being repreſented at all, and others only being ſo partially, it has ceaſed to be the General Helvetic Diet, and could not lawfully continue its labours;

Conſidering, finally, that the imperious duty of the government is to prevent internal diſſenſions and all the evils of anarchy, decree:

Art. 1. The aſſembly, ſitting at Berne, under the name of the Helvetic Diet, is declared diſſolved, and its proceedings are conſidered as null and void.

2. The conſtitution, publiſhed on the 29th of May, 1801, ſhall, from the preſent moment, be put in execution, as far as regards the organization of the central authorities.

3. There ſhall be appointed, from the Legiſlative Body, a commiſſion of five members, charged with propoſing, during the preſent ſitting, a liſt of twenty-five members, to form the Senate.

The Legiſlative Body ſhall proceed immediately to the nominations.

4. As ſoon as the majority of it is aſſembled, the Senate ſhall enter upon its functions, and from that moment the proviſional authority of the government ſhall ceaſe.

5. The Senate ſhall exerciſe the attributes and power delegated to it by the conſtitution.

6. It

6. It is especially charged with making all the necessary dispositions for the convocation of the constitutional Diet, which shall assemble in three months at the latest.

7. The Senate is besides charged with preparing for that Diet a statement of the ameliorations of which the constitution is susceptible, as well as the organic laws, necessary to its being put in activity.

8. It shall ascertain the wishes expressed in favour of such and such a change to be made in the division of territory, and shall make a report to the Diet.

9. It is finally charged with examining plans of cantonal organization, and making a report to the Diet. Until the Diet has approved and registered them, the authorities existing at present in the cantons shall continue their functions.

10. Independently of the before-mentioned labours, the Senate shall give an account to the Diet of the state of the republic, and of the manner in which it has governed from its installation to the period of making such an account.

11. The Diet shall have the right of confirming the Senate, or of proceeding to a new election.

President of the Legislative Council,

(Signed) MARCACCI.

Letter written by the Deputies of the small Cantons to the First Consul, when they withdrew from the Helvetic Diet.

Berne, Nov. 1, 1801.

Citizen First Consul,

DEPRIVED of all resources, the three cantons of the Helvetic confederacy, Uri, Schwitz, and Underwald, feel too strongly the absolute necessity of a constitution founded on the simplicity and œconomy of their ancestors, not to signify to you the ardent desire which they have of preserving, as much as possible, that which the fathers of liberty have founded, and which, during nearly five hundred years, has constituted the happiness of their children. Europe knows with what firmness, and with what devotion, out of all proportion to their strength, the descendants of Tell have struggled for its preservation; and the virtue of a Bonaparte cannot refuse to them a mark of esteem which renders them still more courageous.

The envy and ambition of some individuals, unworthy the name of Swiss, unfortunately seems too much to influence the French government, and we are the unhappy victim of their despicable adherents. But scarcely, Great Consul, had you marked the path of happiness to the French, than you deigned to cast an eye of compassion on us; you wished to re-establish both our limits and our happiness; but the same passions which have caused our ruin, still labour to confirm it.

We wish to follow your views, and re-unite ourselves to Helvetia, even with some sacrifices; but our deceitful brethren desire a restoration of powers which would degenerate into despotism, and reduce us to the condition of slaves.

The diversity of worship, manners, education, customs, wants, and many other circumstances, render an uniformity of administration impossible, and the attempt could not fail totally to destroy us. It is absolutely necessary that our boundaries

daries ſhould be marked, and that we ſhould have a particular adminiſtration, in order to maintain the purity of our religion and morals, and to re-eſtabliſh that œconomy which is ſo neceſſary to our political proſperity. This is the general wiſh of the people of Uri, of Schwitz, and of Underwald, who make it known to us in a requeſt, ſigned by 3600 citizens out of 3800 which this laſt canton contains. Citizen Firſt Conſul, one word from you would render impotent theſe ambitious individuals, who have influence only in proportion as they impreſs the idea that they are ſupported by France. We requeſt this word with confidence, perſuaded that it can neither be your intention, nor for the intereſt of France, to increaſe the misfortunes of a people who have already ſuffered ſo much, and who deſire only tranquillity and repoſe.

Proclamation of the Executive Directory of the Batavian Republic, on preſenting, for the Acceptance of the People, a Plan of a new Conſtitution.

LIBERTY—EQUALITY—FRATERNITY.

Citizens,

IF there ever was an epocha when private intereſt ought to be ſacrificed, prejudices combated, the paſſions moderated, and the ſpirit of party extinguiſhed; when the voice of truth ought to be heard, and nothing but duty, the love of our country, and experience, ought to guide us; it is undoubtedly at that time when we come to give an account of the reſult of thoſe meditations which for a long time have abſorbed all our conſideration. Theſe meditations, directed towards your deareſt intereſts, have had for their only object to eſtabliſh in our country an order of things, which might abſorb the paſt, and preſent for the future a flattering proſpect, and ſuch as might become, by the ſanction of all the citizens, a certain pledge of their re-union, and the foundation of their warmeſt hopes.

The interior ſtate of our country —its exterior relations—the political ſituation of Europe—the diſpoſitions of foreign powers in regard to our republic, demand our ſolicitude, ſhould excite our zeal, and preſent us beforehand the ſucceſs and recompence of our efforts.

And who is he, that, having obſerved in ſilence, with the calmneſs natural to Batavians, the courſe of affairs, has not met, which ever way he turned his eyes, the traces of diviſion, of diſcontent, and a ſtrong deſire for another order of things?

But this diſpoſition of mind, ſo foreign to the character of a nation which attaches itſelf to its ancient cuſtoms, and a hatred for innovation, has, more than once, been the cauſe of their preferring to remain as they were, in certain matters, inferior to other people, rather than ſacrifice the preſent, with all its diſadvantages, to the future. Will this diſpoſition ſurpriſe us, when, proceeding from effects to cauſes, we recollect all that the Batavian people have witneſſed and ſuffered within the laſt ſix years? Torn by inteſtine diviſions, menaced and aſſailed by the greateſt dangers, has it not ſeen within that ſhort period its finances exhauſted

exhauſted by a ruinous war; its commerce annihilated; the ſources of its exiſtence and its proſperity poiſoned; the greateſt part of its colonies torn away; its maritime efforts ſinking to nothing; its moſt valuable cargoes and beſt ſhips becoming the prey of the enemy? Notwithſtanding theſe diſaſters, have not theſe people ſacrificed, without murmur, their means to the unceaſing wants of the country?

This ſame people have ſupported ſo many loſſes, in the hopes of being one day delivered from the yoke which preſſed upon them—to reſume their rank among the nations of Europe, and once more to become, by their love of liberty, by good order and virtue, the example of ſome, and an object of emulation to others.

Very far, however, was ſucceſs from anſwering their attempts; very far.—At the end of a ſtruggle ſupported with ſuch conſtancy, a conſtitution founded in the nature of circumſtances, adapted to localities and to the manners of our fellow-citizens, re-eſtabliſhed tranquillity, happineſs, and union. The country was delivered to all the fury of the paſſions—citizens infuriate againſt citizens—the one pronouncing againſt the other the moſt unfounded judgment upon their works and opinions—envy and hatred uſurping the places of talents and information, and deciding arbitrarily upon the fate of the country; our firſt aſſemblies, inſtead of coming to the object of their union, opened in their deliberations new ſources of diviſion and trouble:—ſuch is the picture that has been preſented by the republic, ſince the cloſe of the National Convention, diſſolved as illegally as it was called together (after two years uſeleſs labour,) gave place to a government, to whom it ſeemed reſerved to cloſe the wounds of the ſtate, and to rally all good citizens round the ſtandard of public good.

But here again the general attempt failed; and this long ſtruggle produced a conſtitution, vicious in its principle, and whoſe effects prove it to be the child of paſſion and precipitation.

We aſk of you, citizens, of you who have, on deciſive occaſions, ſhown you have at heart the intereſt of your country, we aſk of you to-day, whether that conſtitution is the law expreſſive of your wills? Is it adequate to your wants, to your cuſtoms, or to your character? Is it ſufficient for the preſervation of your rights? Or is it the work of a party, who, following all the windings of a crooked policy, wiſhed to make the government of a ſtate the property of a certain claſs of individuals?

Does not this conſtitution deprive you of the knowledge, ſo deſirable, of your own affairs? Does it not deprive you of that perſonal adminiſtration, without which there can exiſt neither order nor œconomy? Has it not reduced you to the neceſſity, to ſeek at diſtance, deciſions upon your domeſtic intereſts which you were accuſtomed to have almoſt without ſtirring for them? Can the general adminiſtration efficaciouſly protect and defend you? Thoſe whoſe duty it is to inſtruct and counſel, can they ſee all themſelves? The objects ſubmitted to their deliberations, multiplied into infinity and placed at immenſe diſtances, like as upon a rugged rock whoſe approach

proach is ſurrounded with difficulties, can they be ſeized by them, whatever may be their courage and their conſtancy?

The firſt miniſters of the ſtate, to prevent a ſtagnation in public affairs, are found to be ſurrounded with a multitude of ſubalterns, of which the leaſt evil is an increaſe of expence. When the courſe of human affairs is conſidered with impartiality, ought we not to fear, that perſons, to whom no reſponſibility attaches, may acquire an influence dangerous to public affairs, and that miniſters may become, notwithſtanding their vigilance, the inſtruments of the corruption of their agents? This ſtate is the more to be ſuſpected, as theſe agents may find the means to eſcape detection, by obtaining, by falſe repreſentation, orders under which they may cover their abuſe of confidence.

This picture, citizens, however ſad and diſcouraging it may appear, is not at all overcharged. It is the fruit of experience acquired on the part of government committed to our care. But far from ſtopping here, we ſhould regard as the effects of an heated imagination, thoſe defects which we have juſt detailed, if the deliberations and reſolutions of the repreſentative body did not oblige us to remark their ſimilar vices to thoſe we ſo ſadly deplore. How many laws diſcuſſed among them for three years, can be conſidered as general rules of conduct? Do there not exiſt as many particular laws as public ones? and does not the number increaſe every day with the wants and griefs of the inhabitants? The innumerable reſolutions paralyze the executive government, and bewilder thoſe citizens, whoſe duty or whoſe buſineſs obliges them to approach the abyſs. Far be it from us, however, to throw ſuſpicion on the heart of the legiſlators. It is in the nature of things that we muſt act; and in order to leave no doubt upon this point, we will examine, with equal impartiality, the ſum of their labours.

It will be ſufficient to recall to your minds the diverſity of opinions upon ſeveral important articles—the difficulties which retarded the eſtabliſhment of ſome of the organic laws of the conſtitution—the conflicting ſentiments which theſe propoſitions cauſed in the two Chambers—the numerous reports which it was neceſſary to preſent upon one ſingle affair, to well underſtand it, and in particular the labour upon the adminiſtration of the poor; upon the municipalities; that upon the civil tribunals, diſcuſſed a long time without any ultimate deciſion—in ſhort, the tedious and embarraſſing manner in which the moſt minute affairs were managed.

You muſt conclude then with us, citizens, that the Legiſlative Aſſembly could not, whatever was its zeal and energy, overcome the vices and obſtacles cauſed by its organization. The complication of conſtruction impeded its progreſs, and the evident effect was public and private ruin. This ſtate of things, citizens, has long attracted our notice. Situated, by the nature of our functions, in a manner to appreciate the danger, could we avoid the obligation of finding the means to bring them to an end? But it was not ſufficient to know the evil and the remedy;

we ought, like prudent phyſicians, to take into conſideration the ſtate of the patient, and not run the riſk of killing him, by adminiſtering, without caution, the remedies which ought to operate for his cure.

What had already paſſed, ſufficiently demonſtrated the neceſſity of reſting upon a ſolid baſis civil and political liberty, before we abandoned that ſyſtem, the fruit of our revolution, to the incertitude of future events.

Neither could a momentary ſuſpicion be entertained that the Stadtholder ſhould be reſtored: that would have been giving to the cabinet of St. James's that fatal influence which ſhe has already uſed for the deſtruction of the proſperity of this once happy and flouriſhing country.

Thus far, then, the ſituation of affairs in Europe has given to the partizans of the Houſe of Orange a hope of realizing their wiſhes. We could neither hope ſucceſs to our efforts, nor union of wills and ſentiments; but at preſent, that this queſtion is for ever determined, as it appears no cabinet nouriſhes the plan of reſtoring the Stadtholder, we thought we could no longer delay a project, which a longer delay might have rendered abortive.

At preſent we feel ourſelves as happy in being able to addreſs ourſelves, not as the heads of a party, but to the whole of the republic; and to count equally upon thoſe, who, carried away by a blind zeal, or ſeduced by prejudices, have hitherto ſearched for their country out of the country, and who, notwithſtanding, have never ceaſed to find there protection for their perſons and their property.

Peace is ſigned on the continent: the Houſe of Auſtria has recognized our independence; our political relations with Ruſſia are renewed. Soon we ſhall reckon her envoy among the number of ambaſſadors of ſo many other people, allies, friends, and neighbours.

The French government cannot admit our independence with greater *eclat* than by the laſt convention which ſhe has juſt concluded; a convention which conſiderably diminiſhes expences, and at the ſame time takes from Calumny that pretext with which ſhe has attempted more than once to ſerve herſelf, by drawing from the nature of the relation of the French army with the government, conſequences equally outraging the French nation and humiliating to our republic.

Could we have juſtified ourſelves to our fellow-citizens, or in our own eyes, if, far from profiting by ſuch favourable circumſtances, the republic had been aſſigned, at the period of a general peace, a rank below what ſhe has a right to expect? By that alone, we had heſitated to treat with a government which offered no guarantee, and, in effect, liable to overturn in a year and a half, the *epoque* fixed for a reviſion of the conſtitution. Who could have anſwered, that it would then have taken effect in ſuch a ſtate of incertitude, of which we have already experienced the pernicious influence?

You know, citizens, that ſix years ago we made to the legiſlative body a propoſition which had for its object the amelioration of the

the fundamental laws of the ſtate. You were then, without doubt, convinced by the courſe of its deliberations, that it is impoſſible (as the National Convention had already furniſhed another proof) that ſo numerous an aſſembly, agitated by ſo many different paſſions, could give to the ſtate a good conſtitution. Thoſe who are called to defend and protect the ſtate, wiſh with good faith its happineſs; and its ſafety cannot expoſe it to new agitations.

Penetrated with this truth, and ſtrong in the conviction that we have nothing in view but your welfare and your glory, we have formed a plan of a conſtitution which ſteers a middle courſe between the different opinions which have hitherto diſtracted the inhabitants of the country, and in which we are aſſured that the leading features are not diſpleaſing to our natural ally. We have done more: in ſubmitting this plan to the judgment of the people, we have given intelligence to the two Chambers of the Repreſentative Body. And, in fine, that every thing may paſs with order, we have reſolved as follows:—

1ſt. As ſoon as theſe preſents are ready, the municipality ſhall ſubmit to public examination a ſufficient number of copies of this proclamation, and of the project of a conſtitution annexed.

2d. The 1ſt of October next they ſhall open regiſters in every commune of the republic, and ſhall furniſh to every citizen of twenty years of age, who ſhall not be excluded the right of voting by the 13th article of the conſtitution, the means of giving his ſuffrage by aye or non, upon the preſented *projet*.

3d. The 6th of October theſe regiſters ſhall be cloſed—the adminiſtration of every commune ſhall ſend the liſt of the votes to the Executive Directory as ſoon as poſſible, and at the lateſt, by the 15th of October, joining a general liſt of the actual citizens in their commune, that they may be enabled to communicate to the Batavian people the reſult of the votes. Every actual citizen, who does not vote, ſhall be conſidered as approving the plan of conſtitution.

Such, citizens, is the fruit of our long and painful meditations. At preſent, it remains with you to determine whether the project we preſent accords with your true intereſts, and has for its real object the happineſs of the people.

Let a ripe reflection guide your judgment, and ſuppreſs your paſſions; never forget that you are going to pronounce upon the fate of your country. For our parts, citizens, we ſhall attend with reſignation the reſult of your deliberations; and whatever may be the conſequences of your opinion, convinced that right was intended, we ſhall not doubt but that your judgment is that of all Europe.

The Executive Directory orders that this proclamation be fixed up in all the uſual places, with injunctions to the departmental adminiſtrations, to ſee that it be carried into execution as promptly as poſſible in the manner within preſcribed.

Done and ordained in the Directorial Aſſembly of the Batavian republic, at the

Hague, the 14th September, 1801, 7th year of Batavian liberty.

(Signed) BEZIER, Preſident.

By command of the ſame,

(Signed) DASSEVAEL.

Proclamation to the Batavians.

Batavians,

THE Firſt Chamber of the Legiſlative Body, by a feeble majority of two voices, has this day pronounced the ſuſpenſion of our proclamation of the 14th of this month, by which the Batavian people are invited to approve or reject the conſtitution juſt preſented to them.

This reſolution, in perpetuating an order of things, which has carried the higheſt degree of confuſion into public affairs, and tends uniformly to the advantage of ſome particular individuals, while it cauſes general ruin, has no other object, but to prevent the people from pronouncing freely upon an object of the greateſt importance, and to excite a civil war.

We have thought, under theſe difficult circumſtances, that it was our duty to oppoſe theſe determinations; and to prevent, by efficacious means, the fatal conſequences. We have taken meaſures to prevent the future meetings of the Legiſlative Body, until the people have pronounced their opinion.

Citizen Batavians, however ſtrangers we may be to any kind of cenſure, we could not, we ought not to ſuffer that the voice of a nation ſhould be extinguiſhed, and that a few individuals ſhould raſhly pronounce upon the will of the people before it was known. Our only object, and our only deſire, is, that it ſhould be manifeſted. It ſhall be our ſupreme law. We wait for it without fear; firm in the conviction that we have conſidered with diſintereſtedneſs your welfare. Weigh calmly, maturely, and without paſſion, the project preſented to you; judge for yourſelves, and reject with diſdain all foreign influence.

Batavians, you are about to pronounce on your deareſt intereſts, upon thoſe of your children. Chooſe what will be the moſt for your advantage. May the meaſures taken for your tranquillity give you confidence. It will not be diſturbed. We ſhall be able to repreſs the malevolence of thoſe who do not fear to cover themſelves with ignominy in wiſhing to fetter your wills.

The Directory orders that this proclamation be ſtuck up in all the ordinary places.

At the Hague, the 18th of September, 1801, (7th year of Batavian liberty.)

(Signed)

BESIER, for the Preſident.

By order of the Directory,

(Signed)

MANSEL, for the Secretary.

Conſtitution of the Batavian People.

General Principles and Diſpoſitions.

Art. 1. THE happineſs of the whole is the firſt of laws. Conſequently no member, nor any ſection of ſociety, can receive advantage by any particular law to the prejudice of others.

2. All the members of ſociety are equal in the eye of the law, without diſtinction of rank or birth.

3. Each

3. Each citizen may do what he pleaſes; but remains reſponſible to, and, according to the law, both for his actions and the ſentiments he propagates.

4. The law eſtabliſhes the neceſſary diſpoſitions for enſuring to every citizen an honeſt ſubſiſtence, but all privileged bodies and excluſive affiliations are aboliſhed.

5. Every inhabitant is maintained in the peaceable poſſeſſion and enjoyment of his property. No one can be deprived of any part of his poſſeſſions, unleſs the general good imperiouſly requires it; and in that caſe, he ſhall receive a juſt and proper indemnity.

6. Every inhabitant is inviolable in his habitation; no one can enter it without his conſent, and in virtue of an order iſſued by the proper authority.

7. No one can be arreſted but according to the law. No one can be tried or condemned but by the judge acknowledged by the conſtitution or the law, and until after being ſummoned agreeably to what they preſcribe, and having obtained all the means of defence which they determine.

8. Every citizen muſt be heard in three days after he has been delivered into the hands of his natural judge. A copy of the motives of his arreſtation cannot be refuſed to him: the law determines the puniſhment of the judge who ſhall offend againſt theſe diſpoſitions. If the examination and motives of arreſtation have not been communicated within the time above preſcribed, the priſoner has a right to be releaſed, and without any delay.

9. All uſeleſs ſeverity in the guarding of priſoners is forbidden. All violent means for extorting confeſſion are aboliſhed.

10. Every citizen has a right to addreſs, in writing, petitions and propoſitions to the conſtituted authorities, provided they are ſigned individually; in any other caſe they cannot be made but by the bodies conſtituted by the law, and muſt relate only to objects which have relation to the functions which they diſcharge.

11. All religious ſocieties, which acknowledge a Supreme Being, and rendering homage to him, tend to favour virtue and good morals, are equally protected by the law. Every religious ſociety publicly profeſſes its opinions, and grants free acceſs to the places conſecrated to the exerciſe of its worſhip.

12. Every head of a family, and every independent perſon of either ſex, who has attained to the age of fourteen, muſt inſcribe their names in one of theſe religious ſocieties, which they may freely quit to enter into another. Every ſociety requires from its members an annual contribution for the maintenance of its miniſters and of its property. This contribution, however, can never exceed the ſum ſtipulated for that purpoſe by the law.

13. Every religious ſociety whatever remains irrevocably in poſſeſſion of what it poſſeſſed at the commencement of the preſent century.

14. No excluſive civil rights can be attached to any of them. The teachers, miniſters, and eccleſiaſtical ſervants of the reformed religion, therefore the prevailing religion, who being paid ſalaries or penſions from the public treaſures, are actually in exerciſe, ſhall

continue to enjoy their incomes and penſions until the full execution of the diſpoſitions preſcribed by article 12.

15. All the laws and diſpoſitions, which ſince the commencement of the year 1795, have leſſened the value of property or poſſeſſions legally acquired, are ſubject to reviſion. Whoever has been injured by theſe laws, may apply to the regency of the ſtate, which, according to the exigency of the caſe, ſhall propoſe to the Legiſlative Body either a repeal of the law, or its reviſion, or a juſt and proper indemnity.

16. Feudality is aboliſhed; all fiefs are declared allodial. The law provides an indemnity for the poſſeſſors of lordſhips.

17. The Batavian people deſire that the national guard, eſtabliſhed for the purpoſe of enſuring liberty and maintaining the national independence, ſhall be encouraged by every proper means. No citizen forming part of that guard is obliged to ſerve beyond the territory of the republic. He is not bound to any ſervice beyond his department, without a decree of the Legiſlative Body, and only in the caſe of an attack from the enemy. The active ſervice of the national guard in each department is farther determined by the law.

18. The ſame kinds of money ſhall be coined, and circulated throughout the whole republic, according to the manner and value which the law ſhall eſtabliſh.

19. The weights and meaſures already known in the republic ſhall be uniformly regulated. The law ſhall fix the mode and the period when this diſpoſition ſhall be carried into execution.

Of the Diviſion of the Territory and the Right of Suffrage.

20. The Batavian republic is one and indiviſible.

21. Its European territory remains divided into eight departments, the limits of which ſhall be thoſe of the ancient provinces, the modifications under-mentioned remain; the country of Drenthe ſhall be united to the province of Overyſſel; and Batavian Brabant ſhall form an eighth department; Ameland ſhall form part of Frieſland; Wedde and Weſt Woldingerland of Groningen; Yſſelſtein of Holland; Vlane of Utrecht; and Kuilenburg and Buren of Guelderland. The law ſhall further determine to what department the countries, which are already or may hereafter be annexed to the territory of the republic, ſhall belong.

22. Each department ſhall be, in regard to its limits, divided into a certain number of diſtricts. It is according to this regulation that the election of the members of the departmental adminiſtration ſhall take place.

23. The preſent diviſion of the Primary Aſſemblies is maintained for the election of the members of the Legiſlative Body.

24. Thoſe who unite the following qualities are active citizens:—1ſt. Thoſe who have inſcribed the place of their habitation in the national regiſter.—2d. Thoſe who have attained to the full age of twenty-one, or who form a part of the national guard.—3d. Thoſe who have reſided without interruption in the republic for one year, if natives of the country, or ſix years, if foreigners.—4th. Thoſe who can read and write Dutch,

Dutch, a diſpoſition which, however, cannot be applicable to citizens inſcribed before the 23d of April, 1799.—5th. Thoſe who have made the following declaration: "I promiſe fidelity to the conſtitution and ſubmiſſion to the law."

25. The following are excluded from voting:—1ſt. Thoſe who are in the ſervice of any foreign power, or who receive from it a penſion; 2d. Domeſtics who receive wages attached to perſonal houſehold ſervice; 3d. Thoſe maintained in the houſes of charity, orphan-houſes, and hoſpitals; 4th. Thoſe who during the laſt ſix months have been maintained from the poor's box; 5th. Thoſe under tutorſhip on account of bad conduct, diſſipation, or mental derangement; 6th. Bankrupts, as well as thoſe who have given up their property, until their creditors are paid; 7th. Thoſe who are in a ſtate of accuſation, or who in juſtice are known to be infamous.

26. The law fixes the manner in which the right of ſuffrage ought to be exerciſed, and the qualification in regard to property required to be elected.

27. The miniſters of any worſhip are not eligible to functions depending on the government.

28. The military cannot exerciſe their functions, but in the place of their reſidence, and in ſo far as it is diſtinct from that where they are in garriſon.

Of the Government.

29. The government is intruſted to a Regency of State, compoſed of twelve members, choſen from among the active citizens of full thirty-five years of age, born within the republic, having reſided in it for the laſt ſix years, and not being connected by relationſhip or alliance within the fourth degree with any member of the Regency. They ſhall enjoy an annual penſion of 10,000 florins.

30. For this time, ſeven of theſe members are immediately named by the preſent Executive Directory. Theſe ſeven members ſhall proceed to chooſe the other five. The twelve Regents ſhall chooſe from among themſelves a preſident, who is elected for three months. During the firſt ſix months of the inſtallation of the Regency of State, if one or more vacancies ſhall happen, the remaining members ſhall proceed in the courſe of eight days to fill them up.

31. The Regency of State decrees the regulation of order for holding the ſittings. It ſhall divide itſelf into as many commiſſions as the different branches of the adminiſtration render neceſſary. Theſe commiſſions ſhall employ themſelves in diſcuſſing and examining the affairs referred to them by the council.

32. The Regency ſhall unite to itſelf, beſides a ſecretary general, a ſecretary of ſtate, having the department of foreign affairs, three other ſecretaries of ſtate, having the departments of the marine, war, and interior: or, if he thinks more proper, in place of each of the three latter, three councils, compoſed each of three members. In the laſt place, a council of finances, intruſted to three perſons, and a treaſurer-general.

33. The ſecretaries of ſtate, or the councils which ſupply their

place, are charged with the administration of the affairs within their province, as well as the execution of the orders transmitted to them by the Regency, agreeably to its instructions, and under their responsibility. They are named by the Regency of the State, from a triple list, formed by the section of the council of regency attached to the department to which they belong.

34. Every year one member of the Regency of State shall go out in rotation; this shall take place, for the first time, on the 1st of November, 1802, according to the order, which shall be determined by lot, for the annual going out of all the members. To supply the vacant places, the departments shall proceed, in the order hereafter prescribed, to the nomination of four persons, a list of whom shall be sent to the Regency. The latter shall reduce this number to two, from whom the Legislative Body shall make a definitive choice.

The Legislative Body is composed of thirty-five members, named for the first time by the government during the first eight days of their installation. Twelve of them chosen by a plurality of voices for the term of session, ordinary or extraordinary, shall discuss the laws proposed.

Discussions on all projects presented during the first week of a common session, must be terminated at the latest the last day of the session, that is to say, on the 30th of May, or the 15th of December.

During extraordinary convocations, the propositions which have given rise to them must be determined before the separation of the Legislative Body, and within a month at the least.

The members of the Legislative Body pronounce on the projects presented to them, by Yes or No.

These projects may always be withdrawn during the course of the discussion. If the project is rejected, the Regency of State, when it judges necessary, shall depute three of its members to the Legislative Body to explain and defend the motives of their vote: if the Legislative Body persist in rejecting the project, it cannot be again brought forwards. In this case the Legislative Body must assign reasons for their refusal; the Regency retains the right of presenting another project.

The debts and obligations contracted, not only by the generality and in its name, but also in the names of the different provinces of the three quarters of Guelderland, the country of Drenthe, Batavian Brabant, and of the East India Company, are declared national debts and obligations.

Contracts for rents, obligations, receipts, and all other obligatory acts, shall be exchanged as soon as possible for national obligations, without any deduction whatever of capital or interest.

Promise of the Members of the Legislative Body.

I solemnly promise, that as member of the Legislative Body, and in conformity to the constitutional act, I will assist with all my power to support the interests of the Batavian people, as well as to maintain their rights; and that I will discharge with sincerity and zeal all the duties imposed on me

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in this reſpect, without ever deviating from them for any conſideration whatever, favour or diſgrace, promiſes or preſents, or any other thing. I equally promiſe that I will in no manner concur nor take part in any reſolution or project, that may tend to introduce hereditary dignities, or that may tend to deviate from the principles of a repreſentative popular government.

Promiſe of the Members of the Regency of the State.

I ſolemnly promiſe, as a member of the Regency of State, that agreeably to the conſtitution and power which has been intruſted to me, I will aſſiſt with all my might to maintain the intereſts of the Batavian people, to defend its rights, its rank and dignity, to conſolidate, maintain, and enſure the independence of the republic, and the liberty of the citizens; that I will with ſincerity and zeal diſcharge all the duties impoſed on me in this reſpect, without ever departing from them on any conſideration whatever, favour or diſgrace, promiſes or preſents, or any other thing; and that I will never aſſiſt in any manner to form or countenance any project that may deviate from the principles of the conſtitution, or tend to introduce hereditary dignities, or which may be contrary to a popular repreſentative government; And I moreover promiſe, that if I come to the knowledge of any enterpriſe of this kind, I will oppoſe it, and endeavour to prevent it by all the means with which I have been intruſted.

Proclamation of the new Batavian Conſtitution, by the Batavian Directory, at the Hague, on the 16th October 1801.

Batavians,

THE plan of a conſtitution, which our duty and knowledge of your true intereſt obliged us to lay before you, has been accepted; out of the 416,419, whoſe names were given in to us as entitled to vote, only 52,219 have voted for its rejection. By far the greater part of the nation have therefore given an unequivocal proof of their coinciding with us in ſentiment relative to the principles and form of the future conſtitution.

There can therefore no longer be any doubt of your wiſh and choice, ſince nothing prevents you from expreſſing them. Every thing in the constitution which was a restraint upon you we have removed. Tranquillity will now reign perpetually amidſt you, ſince you have deliberated and confirmed your choice. And though we have used every exertion to prevent your being miſled by the ignorant and prejudiced, we have not had recourſe either to force or intimidation to compel the acceptance of a conſtitution which you might consider as detrimental to your intereſts.

At length a new order of things is, with your conſent, eſtabliſhed, and in which you have all, without diſtinction of rank or opinion, been able to co-operate; and if ever a plan of ſuch importance was carried into effect under fortunate auſpices it is this.

While you were employed in eſtabliſhing a wiſe and moderate conſtitution,

conſtitution, conformable to your natural character and manners, and conducive to your happineſs, ſecurity, and welfare, the foundations have been laid abroad of a peace which embraces all the countries and ſeas of Europe, and the moſt diſtant parts of the world; which enables tortured humanity again to breathe, and affords you a diſtant proſpect of reaping the fruits of your fidelity and perſeverance, the reward of all your numberleſs ſacrifices.

Batavians, be happy in the conſtitution which you have accepted, and confirm it by your virtues and amity. We ſhall immediately, according to the 10th article of this conſtitution, nominate ſeven citizens, who, with five others, choſen by them, ſhall form the Council of State of the Batavian republic, that the new conſtitution may be carried into effect as ſpeedily as poſſible, agreeably to your wiſhes.

The Directory commands that this proclamation ſhall be made public, and affixed in all the uſual places.

Given at the Hague, the 16th of October 1801, in the 7th year of Batavian liberty.

(Signed)

VAN HAERNSOLTE.

C. DOLLEVAEL, Loco Sec.

Proclamation, publiſhed at Florence previous to the Coronation of the King of Etruria.

Louis I. by the Grace of God, Infant of Spain, King of Etruria.

IN conſequence of the ſolemn treaty concluded and ſigned at Luneville, on the 8th of February laſt, and the conventions which followed it, we, called to the auguſt throne of Tuſcany, charge the Marquis de Gallenella, and Count Cæſar Ventura, Grand Croſs of the royal order of Charles II. gentleman of the chamber in waiting, and privy counſellor of his Royal Highneſs the Infant of Parma, to take poſſeſſion in our royal name, and in quality of our plenipotentiary, of the kingdom of Tuſcany; to receive to that effect the homage and oaths of inauguration in the accuſtomed forms, and the uſages heretofore obſerved upon ſimilar occaſions.

We deſire that the ſaid Marquis Cæſar Ventura be received as aforeſaid, in quality of our plenipotentiary, until our arrival.

We confirm, until new orders ſhall be iſſued to the contrary, all the laws, decrees, and cuſtoms, heretofore maintained; as alſo the actual proviſional government, the individuals who compoſe it, together with the governor, proviſional commiſſary, the judges and tribunals of juſtice, and all other perſons now employed in the civil, military, and financial departments. We charge the ſaid proviſional government to give orders and take care that our preſent regulations be carried into effect.

Given at Parma, the 26th of July 1801.

(Signed) LOUIS.

A true copy.

(Signed) General MURAT.

The royal proviſional government, in publiſhing the ſovereign diſpoſitions above expreſſed, charges the ſupreme magiſtrate of the Florentine ſtate, and the governor of Sienna for the Sienneſe, to make the neceſſary

neceſſary communications of it without delay.

Given at the reſidence of the proviſional government, in the Old Palace, the 28th of July 1801.

(Signed)

JOSEPH-FRANCIS PIERALLINI
ANTOINE CERCIGNANI.
BERNARD LESSI.
JULES PIOMBANCI,
Chev. J. B. NUTI, Secretary.

Proclamation of General Murat, commanding the Army of Obſervation of the South, to the Tuſcans; dated Head-quarters, at Florence, July 26, 1801.

Tuſcans!

THE French people are linked to you by ties of attachment, founded upon mutual eſteem. They reſpect your manners and your habits. They are perſuaded that the happineſs and the virtues of a nation depend upon a perfect agreement between its character and its laws.

The prince who is to govern you has announced that he is about to take the reins of the ſtate. You will preſerve a juſt veneration for the inſtitutions and the memory of thoſe princes who have raiſed this country to the higheſt degree of ſplendour. The firſt uſe which Louis I. makes of his authority is to confirm the worth of their wiſdom, in ſecuring the empire of their laws, and all the regulations that proceeded from them. Your country is that of the arts and ſciences; the new monarch, who is to reign over you, has fixed the attention of Europe by his taſte for the ſciences and the arts, by the ſucceſs with which he has cultivated them, as well as by the milder virtues which render men juſt and princes beneficent. His acceſſion to the throne affords you a preſage of all thoſe glories which illuſtrated Tuſcany under the reigns of the Medicis and the Leopolds: this miniſter is to receive your oath of fidelity; he even has already received that which he ſwore to make you happy.

Tuſcans!—Since my command amongſt you, I uſed every endeavour to make you feel the bleſſings of peace. The troops have preſerved the ſtricteſt diſcipline, perſons and property have been reſpected. You ſupported no other charges but ſuch as the expenſe of my army, on the ſevereſt calculation, rendered neceſſary. The teſtimonies of your attachment have been the rewards of my care. Your King will heal the wounds inflicted by war: encompaſſed by your love, you will always find yourſelves protected by his paternal ſolicitude.

Tuſcans!—You ſhould look upon the French as a friendly people, who are willing to reſpect, amongſt foreigners, monarchical principles, while they cheriſh republican principles within themſelves.

J. MURAT.

Proces Verbal of the taking Poſſeſſion of the Sovereignty of Tuſcany, made in the Name of his Majeſty the King of Etruria, by his Excellency the Count Cæſar Ventura, Marquis de Gallinella, Knight of the Grand Croſs of the Royal Order of Charles III. Gentleman

in Waiting, and Member of the Privy Council of his Royal Highneſs the Infant Duke of Parma, Plenipotentiary of his Majeſty.

THE miniſter plenipotentiary, M. the Count Cæſar Ventura, General Murat, and M. Agar, the commiſſary, having conſulted about the ceremonial of taking poſſeſſion, the morning of the 2d of Auguſt was choſen for that grand ceremony.

At ſeven in the morning, the great clock in the Old Palace, which is uſed for indicating great feſtivals and galas, announced the ſolemn act which was to take place.

A detachment of two hundred grenadiers, with their officers, and drums beating, made their appearance at nine o'clock. They were immediately diſtributed to the poſts aſſigned them.

His Excellency the General in Chief Murat arrived with his ſtaff at eleven, and was received at the gate of the Old Palace by the Marquis Fabio Fearoni, and the Marquis Giovani Gerini, who accompanied him to what is called the ſaloon *des Deux Cents*, where an alcove was erected for him and his etat major, till the beginning of the ceremony.

The wife of the General, and the widow of the deceaſed Spaniſh miniſter, the Chevalier Quineres, came together. They were received at the gates of the Palace by the prior, Chevalier Jean Baptiſt Griſoni, deputed from his corps, and accompanied them to the ſeats appointed for them.

His Excellency the Miniſter Plenipotentiary, the Marquis Count Cæſar Ventura, came immediately afterwards, with ſeven knights, and went to receive four ſenators, who accompanied him to the grand ſaloon.

The Plenipotentiary and the General in Chief entered the ſaloon at the ſame time through different paſſages, receiving the ordinary ſalute from the militia. Their march was ſo concerted, that they arrived at the ſame time before the throne, ſo that neither ſhould have the precedency.

In the mean while, the Senate, the civil magiſtracy, and the other miniſters who were to aſſiſt at the ceremony, took the places aſſigned them. The Miniſter Plenipotentiary, and the Commander in Chief, alſo took their ſeats.

Every one being ſeated, a moſt profound ſilence took place in the ſaloon, where there were not leſs than two thouſand five hundred perſons of different orders of the ſtate. The firſt miniſter began the ceremony: the notary of ſtate, the Doctor François Gonella, made a very long ſpeech, in which he praiſed the wiſe meaſures taken by the French republic, and the qualities of the Firſt Conſul Bonaparté, to whoſe genius the continent of Europe was taught to look for peace. He added, that, by the happy concurrence of his meaſures with thoſe of his Imperial Majeſty, peace was ſigned at Luneville. He then read the whole of the 5th article of the treaty; after which the Miniſter Plenipotentiary alſo read the proclamation of the 26th of July, by which his Majeſty Louis I. announced himſelf, in virtue of that article and poſterior regulations, to the Tuſcans, as the new King of Etruria, and charged the Marquis Count Cæſar Ventura

Ventura to receive, as his plenipotentiary, the uſual oath of fidelity and obedience.

The royal advocate, Thomas Magnami, *ad interim*, then ſtood up who acted as *Directeur des Informations*, and who, in that capacity, invited, in an elegant ſpeech, the Senate, and the civic magiſtracy, to take the oath of fidelity and obedience to the new ſovereign, whoſe rare and well-known qualities could alone compenſate for the ſovereign they had loſt.

The Senator Lieutenant Count Roland del Benino next roſe, and made a ſuitable anſwer to this ſpeech. He expatiated equally on the greatneſs of the boon which Tuſcany had received, and the confident expectations entertained that the known qualities of the new king would compenſate for the loſs of the prince whom he ſucceeded. He concluded with adhering to the treaty of Luneville, and the arrangements which it made. He then, as well as the whole Senate, in the name of the Tuſcan nation, ſwore to Louis I. the ſame fidelity and obedience which they obſerved towards his predeceſſors.

After this ſpeech, the Senators and the elders of the civic community, each according to his reſpective order, advanced to the foot of the throne, where, after ſaluting the portrait of his Majeſty, the Miniſter Plenipotentiary and the General in Chief took the oath, laying the right hand on that part of the Holy Goſpel which contained the eccleſiaſtical ceremony of the equeſtrian order of St. Etienne. When all of them had returned to their reſpective poſts, the Notary of State read, in a loud tone of voice, the ſolemn inſtrument of the oath, naming loudly the ſeven perſonages who aſſiſted as witneſſes, and prayed to Heaven for the proſperity and preſervation of the new king Louis I. The happy auguring was reſounded by univerſal plaudits, and the ſhouts of *Evviva!* with which the new king was proclaimed by this numerous aſſembly.

Thus ended this auguſt ceremony, during which, every time that mention was made either of the French republic or the royal perſonages, the Miniſter Plenipotentiary and the General in Chief took off their hats at a ſignal made to them by Joſeph Corſi, the maſter of the ceremonies, and according to what was before agreed upon.

The diſcharge of cannon accompanied this ſolemn pomp, and, at the cloſe of it, the Miniſter Plenipotentiary and the General in Chief withdrew, obſerving the ſame ceremony as on their arrival.

The firſt Miniſter *des Reformations* and Notary of State,
(Signed)
D. Francisco Gonella.
The Maſter of the Ceremonies,
(Signed)
Guiseppe Corsi.
Florence, Aug. 4, 1801.

Letter from the King of Etruria to the King of Pruſſia.

Sir; Brother, and Couſin,

AS in conſequence of the treaty, concluded and ſigned at Luneville on the 9th of February, of the preſent year, and of ſubſequent conventions, the ſovereignty of the kingdom of Etruria has been conferred upon me: I have repaired

to

to theſe my ſtates, where I have conſidered it as one of the firſt duties of my government, to inform your Majeſty of my arrival, and communicate to you the moſt ſincere aſſurances of my firm reſolution to imitate, with the utmoſt zeal, the example of my predeceſſors; by promoting, to the utmoſt of my power, every thing which may tend to the ſervice of your Majeſty, and the advantage of your ſubjects. I flatter myſelf that your Majeſty will receive graciouſly theſe profeſſions of my high eſteem, and honour me with the ſame favour and friendſhip which my predeceſſors have received. In this hope, and truſting that the Tuſcan nation will be honoured with the ſame good will and protection as the ſubjects of your Majeſty,

I remain with the higheſt eſteem,
Sir, Brother, and Couſin,
Your Majeſty's affectionate Brother, Servant, and Couſin,
LOUIS.

Florence, Aug. 27, 1801.

Letter from the King of Pruſſia, in Anſwer to the Letter of the King of Etruria, of the 27th Auguſt 1801.

Sir, Brother, and Couſin,

BEFORE I received the letter of the date of the 27th of Auguſt, which it has pleaſed your Majeſty to tranſmit to me, I was informed, by a communication from the Firſt Conſul of the French republic, and the King of Spain, of the new dignity which is connected with the ſovereignty of Tuſcany, and I did myſelf the pleaſure to teſtify my friendſhip and eſteem for your perſonal qualities, by immediately complying with your wiſh, by acknowledging your new dignity. Nothing remains for me but to congratulate your Majeſty on your acceſſion to the throne and government which has been allotted to you by the treaty of Luneville; and, at the ſame time, to expreſs my ſincere wiſhes for the prolongation of your life, the proſperity of your government, and the happineſs of the people committed to your care. Gratified with the proof of confidence and friendſhip which you have given me, I entreat you to be convinced that I ſhall with pleaſure avail myſelf of every opportunity to expreſs the perfect reciprocity of my ſentiments towards you, and aſſure you that I ſhall always be ready to render every ſervice as far as may depend upon me. To theſe ſincere declarations I add the aſſurance of the high eſteem with which I am,

Sir, Brother, and Couſin,
Your Majeſty's good Brother and Cousin,
(Signed) FREDERIC WILLIAM.

Proclamation, publiſhed at Leghorn September 1, 1801.

LEWIS, by the grace of God, Infant of Spain, King of Tuſcany, and Hereditary Prince of Parma, Placentia, Guaſtalla, &c.

The ſatisfaction which we have experienced in taking into our hands the reins of the ſtate, is in ſome degree troubled by learning that the late political changes have left in ſome of our dearly beloved ſubjects the ſeeds of diviſion. It is our will that the commencement of our reign ſhould be ſignalized by

by the deciſive reſolution of granting a perpetual amneſty with reſpect to every cauſe of reciprocal diſtruſt. Where the law is the ſame and equally adminiſtered for all, where the government acts in conformity to that law, parties neither are nor ſhould be known.

Attachment to the government, ſubmiſſion to the laws, and reſpect for the Magiſtrates are the eſſential duties of ſubjects. If in the conflict of paſt events, ſome have neglected theſe duties, they are not therefore the leſs ſacred and agreeable to the hearts of Tuſcans. Let thoſe who may have deviated from the exerciſe of principles ſo juſt, inſtantly reſume the practice of loyalty and virtue! A vigilant ſyſtem of politics and impartial juſtice ſhall puniſh thoſe who may be guilty of violating the laws, or treating with contempt the conſtituted authorities.

To extinguiſh the ſpirit of diſcord, and prevent the repetition of odious appellations, ſhall be the conſtant care of the magiſtrates.

We truſt that theſe maxims which emanate from our heart, and which ſhall uniformly guide us in the exerciſe of our power, will, by their general diffuſion, conſolidate that deſirable union, and that unanimity of virtuous ſentiments, that have ever conſtituted the dignity and the happineſs of this illuſtrious nation.

CHARACTERS,

Omitted in the Appendix to the Chronicle.

The following authentic Extracts from the Corn-Regiſter, are taken from Accounts collected from the Cuſtom-Houſe Books, and delivered to Mr. John James Catherwood, Receiver of Corn Returns, by Authority of Parliament.

An Account of the Quantities of all Corn and Grain exported from, and imported into, England *and* Scotland, *with the Bounties and Drawbacks paid, and the Duties received thereon, for the Year ended the 5th of* January, 1802.

EXPORTED.

1801.	British.	Foreign	
ENGLAND.	Quarters.	Quarters.	
Wheat	881	4,350	Bounties Nil. Drawbacks Nil.
Rye	25		
Barley	1,604	3	
Malt	2,110		
Oats	9,762	900	
Beans	5,441	35	
Peaſe	1,506	9	
	cwts. qurs. lbs.	cwts. qurs. lbs.	
Wheat Flour	70,315 2 6	9,137 3 4	
Oatmeal	4,292 2 9	1 0 18	
Rye Meal	- - - -	6,872 0 0	
Indian Meal	- - - -	1,991 0 15	
Indian Corn	- - - -	378	
SCOTLAND.			
	Qrs.		
Barley	38		Bounties Nil.
Oats	1,692		
Groats	3		
	cwt. qurs. lbs.		
Wheat Flour	644 0 0		
Biſcuit	1,391 1 0		
Oatmeal	489 3 25		

IMPORTED.

ENGLAND.	Quarters.	
Wheat	1,104,481	Bounties paid on Corn and Rice. £. s. d.
Rye	99,075	
Barley	103,977	
Oats	537,433	
Beans	16,228	
Peaſe	39,830	
Indian Corn	30,331	1,275,608 15 7½
	cwt. qurs. lbs.	
Wheat Flour	754,612 3 10	
Rye Meal	163,922 2 16	
Indian Meal	66,811 1 27	
	Bolls.	
Oatmeal	10	

PUBLIC LIBRARY, BRENTFORD

IMPORTED.

SCOTLAND.	Quarters.			Bounties paid on Corn and Rice. £. s. d.
Wheat	75,936			
Barley	8,913			
Oats	44,256			
Beans	11			
Peaſe	4,355			
Buck Wheat	19			
Indian Corn	14,141			
Ditto Meal	526			144,746 5 6¼
	cwt.	qurs.	lbs.	
Ditto ditto	43,937	2	23	
Wheat Flour	78,178	1	27	
Rye ditto	7,625	0	0	
Ditto Meal	5,946	2	14	
Buck Flour	203	2	0	
Barley hulled	22	0	5	
Oatmeal	64	2	4	

N. B. No diſtinction can be made between the Bounties on Corn and Rice imported, being paid under one Act of Parliament.

The following is an Account of the Average Prices of Corn in England and Wales, by the ſtandard Wincheſter Buſhel, for the year 1801.

Wheat.	Rye.	Barley.	Oats.	Beans.	Peaſe.
s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
14 9¼	9 11½	8 5½	4 6¾	7 10	8 5½

N. B. The price of the fineſt and coarſeſt ſorts of grain generally exceed, and reduce the average price as follows, viz.

	Wheat.	Rye.	Barley.	Oats.	Beans.	Peaſe.
Per buſhel,	6d.	3d.	3d.	3d.	6d.	6d.

CHARACTERS.

Memoirs of the late Dr. William Robertſon. *Extracted from a Work, by* Dugald Stewart.

WILLIAM Robertſon, D.D. late Principal of the Univerſity of Edinburgh, and Hiſtoriographer to his Majeſty for Scotland, was the ſon of the Rev. William Robertſon, miniſter of the Old Gray Friars church, and of Eleanor Pitcairn, daughter of David Pitcairn, Eſq. of Dreghorn.

He was born in 1721 at Borthwick, in the county of Mid-Lothian, where his father was then miniſter; and received the firſt rudiments of his education at the ſchool of Dalkeith. In 1733 he again joined his father's family on their removal to Edinburgh; and, towards the end of the ſame year, he entered on his courſe of academical ſtudy.

From this period till the year 1759, when, by the publication of his Scottiſh Hiſtory, he fixed anew æra in the literary annals of his country; the habits and occurrences of his life were ſuch as to ſupply few materials for biography. His genius was not of that forward and irregular growth, which forces itſelf prematurely on public notice; and it was only a few intimate and diſcerning friends, who, in the native vigour of his powers, and in the patient culture by which he laboured to improve them, perceived the earneſts of a fame that was to laſt for ever.

The large proportion of Dr. Robertſon's life, which he thus devoted to obſcurity, will appear the more remarkable when contraſted with his early and enthuſiaſtic love of ſtudy. Some of his oldeſt common-place books, ſtill in his ſon's poſſeſſion, (dated in the years 1735, 1736, and 1737,) bear marks of a perſevering aſſiduity, unexampled perhaps at ſo tender an age; and the motto prefixed to all of them (*vita ſine literis mors eſt*) atteſts how ſoon thoſe views and ſentiments were formed, which to his lateſt hour continued to guide and to dignify his ambition. In times ſuch as the preſent, when literary diſtinction leads to other rewards, the labours of the ſtudious are often prompted by motives very different from the hope of fame, or the inſpiration of genius; but when Dr. Robertſon's career commenced, theſe were the only incitements which exiſted to animate his exertions. The trade of authorſhip was unknown in Scotland; and the rank which that country had early acquired among the learned nations of Europe, had, for many years, been ſuſtained entirely by a ſmall number of emi-

nent men, who diſtinguiſhed themſelves by an honourable and diſintereſted zeal in the ungainful walks of abſtract ſcience.

Dr. Robertſon's ambition was not to be checked by theſe obſtacles; and he appears, from a very early period of life, to have employed, with much perſeverance, the moſt effectual means for ſurmounting them. Among other expedients, he was accuſtomed to exerciſe himſelf in the practice of tranſlation; and he had even gone ſo far in the cultivation of this very difficult art, as to have thought ſeriouſly of preparing for the preſs a verſion of *Marcus Antonius*, when he was anticipated, by an anonymous publication at Glaſgow, in the execution of his deſign. In making choice of this author, he was probably not a little influenced by that partiality with which (among the writings of the Heathen Moraliſts) he always regarded the remains of the Stoical Philoſophy.

Nor was his ambition limited to the attainment of the honours that reward the induſtry of the recluſe ſtudent. Anxious to diſtinguiſh himſelf by the utility of his labours in that profeſſion to which he had reſolved to devote his talents, and looking forward, it is probable, to the active ſhare he was afterwards to take in the Eccleſiaſtical Police of Scotland, he aſpired to add to the art of claſſical compoſition, the powers of a perſuaſive and commanding ſpeaker. With this view he united with ſome of his contemporaries, during the laſt years of his attendance at college, in the formation of a ſociety, where their object was to cultivate the ſtudy of elocution, and to prepare themſelves, by the habits of extemporary diſcuſſion and debate, for conducting the buſineſs of popular aſſemblies. Fortunately for Dr. Robertſon, he had here aſſociates to contend with worthy of himſelf: among others, Dr. William M'Ghie, an ingenious young phyſician, afterwards well known in London; Mr. William Cleghorn, afterwards profeſſor of moral philoſophy in Edinburgh; Dr. John Blair, late prebendary of Weſtminſter; Dr. Wilkie, author of the Epigoniad; and Mr. John Home, author of the tragedy of Douglas.

His ſtudies at the univerſity being at length finiſhed, Dr. Robertſon was licenſed to preach by the preſbytery of Dalkeith in 1741, and in 1743 he was preſented to the living of Gladſmuir, in Eaſt Lothian, by the Earl of Hopeton. The income was but inconſiderable (the whole emoluments not exceeding one hundred pounds a year;) but the preferment, ſuch as it was, came to him at a time ſingularly fortunate; for, not long afterwards, his father and mother died within a few hours of each other, leaving a family of ſix daughters, and a younger ſon, in ſuch circumſtances as required every aid which his ſlender funds enabled him to beſtow.

Dr. Robertſon's conduct in this trying ſituation, while it bore the moſt honourable teſtimony to the generoſity of his diſpoſition, and to the warmth of his affections, was ſtrongly marked with that manly deciſion in his plans, and that perſevering ſteadineſs in their execution, which were characteriſtical features of his mind. Undeterred

deterred by the magnitude of a charge which muſt have appeared fatal to the proſpects that had hitherto animated his ſtudies, and reſolved to ſacrifice to a ſacred duty all perſonal conſiderations, he invited his father's family to Gladſmuir, and continued to educate his ſiſters under his own roof till they were ſettled reſpectably in the world. Nor did he think himſelf at liberty till then to complete an union, which had been long the object of his wiſhes, and which may be juſtly numbered among the moſt fortunate incidents of his life. He remained ſingle till 1751, when he married his couſin, Miſs Mary Niſbet, daughter of the Rev. Mr. Niſbet, one of the miniſters of Edinburgh.

While he was thus engaged in the diſcharge of thoſe pious offices which had devolved upon him by the ſudden death of his parents, the Rebellion of 1745 broke out in Scotland, and afforded him an opportunity of evincing the ſincerity of that zeal for the civil and religious liberties of his country, which he had imbibed with the firſt principles of his education; and which afterwards, at the diſtance of more than forty years, when he was called on to employ his eloquence in the national commemoration of the Revolution, ſeemed to rekindle the fires of his youth. His ſituation as a country clergyman, confined indeed his patriotic exertions within a narrow ſphere; but even here his conduct was guided by a mind ſuperior to the ſcene in which he acted. On one occaſion (when the capital of Scotland was in danger of falling into the hands of the rebels) the ſtate of public affairs appeared ſo critical, that he thought himſelf juſtified in laying aſide, for a time, the pacific habits of his profeſſion, and in quitting his parochial reſidence at Gladſmuir, to join the volunteers of Edinburgh; and when, at laſt, it was determined that the city ſhould be ſurrendered, he was one of the ſmall band who repaired to Haddington, and offered their ſervices to the commander of his Majeſty's forces.

The duties of his ſacred profeſſion were, in the mean time, diſcharged with a punctuality, which ſecured to him the veneration and attachment of his pariſhioners; while the eloquence and taſte that diſtinguiſhed him as a preacher, drew the attention of the neighbouring clergy, and prepared the way for that influence in the church which he afterwards attained. A ſermon, which he preached in the year 1755 before the Society for Propagating Chriſtian Knowledge, and which was the earlieſt of all his publications, affords a ſufficient proof of the eminence he might have attained in that ſpecies of compoſition, if his genius had not inclined him more ſtrongly to other ſtudies. This ſermon, the only one he ever publiſhed, has been long ranked, in both parts of the iſland, among the beſt models of pulpit eloquence in our language. It has undergone five editions, and is well known, in ſome parts of the continent, in the German tranſlation of Mr. Ebeling.

A few years before this period he made his firſt appearance in the debates of the General Aſſembly of the church of Scotland. The queſtions which were then agitated in that place have long ceaſed to

be intereſting; but they were highly important at the time, as they involved not only the authority of the ſupreme court of eccleſiaſtical judicature, but the general tranquillity and good order of the country. The principles which Dr. Robertſon held in the aſſembly of 1751, when he firſt ſubmitted them to public diſcuſſion, were ſo contrary to the prevailing ideas, that, although he enforced them with extraordinary powers of argument and eloquence, and was moſt ably ſupported by the late Sir Gilbert Elliot and Mr. Andrew Pringle, (afterwards Lord Alemoor) he was left in a very ſmall minority; the houſe dividing two hundred againſt eleven. The year following, by a ſteady perſeverance in the ſame views, he had the ſatisfaction of bringing over a majority to his ſentiments, and gave a beginning to that ſyſtem of eccleſiaſtical government, which it was one of the great objects of his life to carry into effect, by the moſt vigorous and deciſive, though the moſt temperate and conciliatory meaſures.

The eſtabliſhment of the *Select Society* in Edinburgh, in the year 1754, opened another field for the diſplay and for the cultivation of his talents. This inſtitution, intended partly for philoſophical enquiry, and partly for the improvement of the members in public ſpeaking, was projected by Mr. Allan Ramſay, the printer, and a few of his friends; but ſoon attracted ſo much of the public notice, that in the following year the number of members exceeded a hundred, including all the individuals in Edinburgh and the neighbourhood who were moſt diſtinguiſhed by genius, or by literary attainments. In the liſt of thoſe who united with Mr. Ramſay in the formation of this ſociety, we find the names of Dr. Robertſon, Mr. David Hume, Mr. Adam Smith, Mr. Wedderburn (now Lord Chancellor,) Lord Kames, Mr. John Home, Dr. Carlyle, Mr. Andrew Stuart, Sir Gilbert Elliot, and Lord Alemoor.

In the eccleſiaſtical courts, during the very period when the Select Society was contributing ſo much to the fame and to the improvement of Scotland, there occurred one ſubject of debate, unconnected with the ordinary details of church government, which afforded at once full ſcope to Dr. Robertſon's powers as a ſpeaker, and to a diſplay of that mild and conciliatory temper, which was afterwards, for a long courſe of years, ſo honourably employed in healing the diviſions of a church torn with faction, and in ſmoothing the tranſition from the ſeverity of puritanical manners, to habits leſs at variance with the genius of the times. For this important and arduous taſk he was fitted in an eminent degree by the happy union he exhibited in his own character, of that exemplary decency which became his order, with all the qualities that form the charm and the ornament of ſocial life. The occurrence to which I allude more particularly at preſent, was the flame kindled among the Scottiſh clergy in the year 1757, by the publication of the tragedy of Douglas, the author of which, Mr. John Home, was then miniſter of Athelſtonford. The extraordinary merits of this performance, which is now become to Scotchmen a ſubject of national

national pride, were not ſufficient to atone for ſo bold a departure from the auſterity expected in a Preſbyterian divine; the offence was not a little exaſperated by the conduct of ſome of Mr. Home's brethren, who, partly from curioſity, and partly from a friendly wiſh to ſhare in the cenſure beſtowed on the author, were led to witneſs the firſt repreſentation of the piece on the Edinburgh ſtage. In the whole courſe of the eccleſiaſtical proceedings connected with theſe incidents, Dr. Robertſon diſtinguiſhed himſelf by the ableſt and moſt animated exertions in defence of his friends; and contributed greatly, by his perſuaſive eloquence, to the mildneſs of that ſentence in which the proſecution at laſt terminated, and his arguments on this occaſion had, it may be preſumed, the greater weight, that he had never himſelf entered within the walls of a playhouſe.

The flattering notice theſe exertions drew to him from the public, and the riſing influence he had already ſecured among his own order, would have preſented to a temper leſs active and perſevering than his, many ſeductions to interrupt his ſtudies; but no ſeductions could divert Dr. Robertſon from the earlieſt objects of his ambition; and in the midſt of all his avocations his ſtudies had been advancing with a gradual progreſs. In the ſpring of the year, which followed the debates about Mr. Home's tragedy, he went to London to concert meaſures for the publication of his Hiſtory of Scotland: a work, of which the plan is ſaid to have been formed ſoon after his ſettlement at Gladſmuir. It was publiſhed on the 1ſt of February, 1759, and was received by the world with ſuch unbounded applauſe, that before the end of that month he was deſired by his bookſeller to prepare for a ſecond edition.

From this moment the complexion of his fortune was changed. After a long ſtruggle, in an obſcure though a happy and hoſpitable retreat, with a narrow income, and increaſing family, his proſpects brightened at once. He ſaw independence and affluence within his reach, and flattered himſelf with the idea of giving a ſtill bolder flight to his genius, when no longer depreſſed by thoſe tender anxieties which ſo often fall to the lot of men, whoſe purſuits and habits, while they heighten the endearments of domeſtic life, withdraw them from the paths of intereſt and ambition.

Of this work, ſo flattering to the author by its firſt ſucceſs, no fewer than fourteen editions were publiſhed before his death, and he had the ſatisfaction to ſee its popularity increaſe to the laſt, notwithſtanding the repeated aſſaults it had to encounter from various writers, diſtinguiſhed by their controverſial acuteneſs, and ſeconded by all the prepoſſeſſions which are likely to influence the opinions of the majority of readers.

During the time that the Hiſtory of Scotland was in the preſs, Dr. Robertſon removed with his family from Gladſmuir to Edinburgh, in conſequence of a preſentation which he had received to one of the churches of that city. His preferments now multiplied rapidly. In 1759, he was appointed chaplain of Stirling Caſtle; in 1761, one of his Majeſty's

chaplains in ordinary for Scotland, and in 1762, he was choſen principal of this univerſity. Two years afterwards, the office of King's Hiſtoriographer for Scotland (with a ſalary of two hundred pounds a year) was revived in his favour.

The revenue ariſing from theſe different appointments, though far exceeding what had ever been enjoyed before by any Preſbyterian clergyman in Scotland, did not ſatisfy the zeal of ſome of Dr. Robertſon's admirers, who, mortified at the narrow field which this part of the iſland afforded to his ambition, wiſhed to open it to the career of the Engliſh church. References to ſuch a project occur in letters addreſſed to him about this time by Sir Gilbert Elliot, Mr. Hume, and Dr. John Blair. What anſwer he returned to them I have not been able to learn; but as the ſubject is mentioned once only by each of theſe gentlemen, it is preſumed that his diſapprobation was expreſſed in thoſe decided terms which became the conſiſtency and dignity of his character.

Dr. Robertſon's own ambition was in the mean time directed to a different object. Soon after the publication of his Scottiſh Hiſtory, we find him conſulting his friends about the choice of another hiſtorical ſubject; anxious to add new laurels to thoſe he had already acquired. Dr. John Blair urged him ſtrongly, on this occaſion, to write a complete Hiſtory of England, and mentioned to him, as an inducement, a converſation between Lord Cheſterfield and Colonel Irwin, in which the former ſaid that he would not ſcruple, if Dr. Robertſon would undertake ſuch a work, to move, in the Houſe of Peers, that he ſhould have public encouragement to enable him to carry it into execution. But this propoſal he was prevented from liſtening to, by his unwillingneſs to interfere with Mr. Hume, although it coincided with a favourite plan which he himſelf had formed at a very early period of his life. The two ſubjects which appear to have chiefly divided his choice were the Hiſtory of Greece, and that of the Emperor Charles the Fifth. Between theſe he heſitated long, balancing their comparative advantages and diſadvantages, and availing himſelf of all the lights that his correſpondents could impart to him.

After much deliberation, Dr. Robertſon reſolved to undertake the Hiſtory of Charles V.—a determination not leſs fortunate for the public than for his own fame, as it engaged him, unexpectedly perhaps, in a train of reſearches not confined to the period, or to the quarter of the globe that he had originally in view; but which opening as he advanced, new and more magnificent proſpects, attracted his curioſity to two of the greateſt and moſt intereſting ſubjects of ſpeculation in the Hiſtory of Human Affairs; the enterpriſes of modern ambition in the Weſtern world, and the traces of ancient wiſdom and arts exiſting in the Eaſt.

The delays which retarded the publication of the Hiſtory of Charles V. together with the author's eſtabliſhed popularity as a writer, had raiſed the curioſity of the public to a high pitch before that work appeared; and perhaps there never was a book, unconnected

nected with the circumſtances of the times, that was expected with more general impatience. It is unneceſſary for me to ſay, that theſe expectations were not diſappointed; nor would it be worth while to ſwell this memoir with a repetition of the *eulogiums* laviſhed on the author in the literary Journals of the day.

While Dr. Robertſon's fame was thus rapidly extending wherever the language in which he wrote was underſtood and cultivated, he had the ſingular good fortune to find in M. Suard, a writer fully capable of transfuſing into a language ſtill more univerſal, all the ſpirit and eloquence of the original. It appears from a letter preſerved among Dr. Robertſon's papers, that M. Suard was ſelected for the undertaking, by the well-known Baron d'Holbaek. He has ſince made ample additions to his fame by his own productions; but if I am not miſtaken, it was his tranſlation of Charles V. which firſt eſtabliſhed his reputation, and procured him a ſeat in the French Academy.

After an interval of eight years from the publication of Charles the Fifth, Dr. Robertſon produced the Hiſtory of America; a work which, by the variety of reſearches and of ſpeculation that it exhibits, enables us to form a ſufficient idea of the manner in which he had employed the intervening period.

In undertaking this taſk, the author's original intention was only to complete his account of the great events connected with the reign of Charles V.; but perceiving, as he advanced, that a Hiſtory of America, confined ſolely to the operations and concerns of the Spaniards, would not be likely to excite a very general intereſt, he reſolved to include in his plan the tranſactions of all the European nations in the New World. The origin and progreſs of the Britiſh Empire there, he deſtined for the ſubject of one volume; but afterwards abandoned, or rather ſuſpended the execution of this part of his deſign, for reaſons mentioned in his preface.

In conſequence of the interruption of Dr. Robertſon's plans produced by the American Revolution, he was led to think of ſome other ſubject which might, in the mean time, give employment to his ſtudious leiſure. And he projected the Hiſtory of Great Britain, from the Revolution to the Acceſſion of the Houſe of Hanover.

Whatever the motives were which induced him to relinquiſh this project, it is certain that it did not long occupy his thoughts. From a letter of Mr. Gibbon's, it would appear to have been abandoned before the end of the year 1779.

I have not heard of any other work that he projected after this period: he ſeems indeed to have abandoned all thoughts of writing any more for the public, and to have indulged the idea of proſecuting his ſtudies in future for his private amuſement. His circumſtances were independant: he was approaching to the age of ſixty, with a conſtitution conſiderably inpaired by a ſedentary life; and a long application to the compoſitions he had prepared for the preſs, had interfered (it is preſumable) with much of the gratification he might have enjoyed, if he had been at liberty to follow the impulſe of his own taſte and curioſity.

Such a ſacrifice muſt be more or leſs made by all who devote themſelves to letters, whether with a view to emolument or to fame; nor would it perhaps be eaſy to make it, were it not for the proſpect (ſeldom, alas! realized,) of earning by their exertions, that learned and honourable leiſure which he was ſo fortunate as to attain. He retired from the buſineſs of the eccleſiaſtical courts about the ſame time; and, for ſeven or eight years, divided the hours which he could ſpare from his profeſſional duties, between the luxury of reading and the converſation of his friends.

The activity of his mind, in the mean time, continued unimpaired; and the habits of his ſtudy he had ſo long been accuſtomed to, gave a certain ſcope and connexion even to his hiſtorical recreations. To one of theſe, which, from its accidental connexion with ſome of his former works, engaged his attention more cloſely than his ordinary purſuits, the public is indebted for a valuable performance, of which the materials ſeem almoſt inſenſibly to have ſwelled to a volume, long after his moſt intimate friends imagined that he had renounced all thoughts of the preſs. The Diſquiſition concerning Ancient India, which cloſes his hiſtorical labours, took its riſe (as he himſelf informs us) "from the peruſal of Major Rennell's memoir for illuſtrating his map of Indoſtan." This ſuggeſted to him the idea of examining, more fully than he had done in the introductory book to his History of America, into the knowledge which the ancients had of that country, and of conſidering what is certain, what is obſcure, and what is fabulous, in the account of it which they have handed down to us."—"In undertaking this enquiry, (he adds) he had originally no other object than his own amuſement and inſtruction; but in carrying it on, and conſulting with care the authors of antiquity, ſome facts hitherto unobſerved, and many of which had not been examined with proper attention, occurred; new views opened, his ideas gradually extended, and became more intereſting; till at length he imagined the reſult of his reſearches might prove amuſing and inſtructive to others."

Such is the account given by himſelf of the origin and progreſs of a diſquiſition begun in the ſixty-eighth year of his age, and in twelve months brought to a concluſion; exhibiting, nevertheleſs, in every part, a diligence in reſearch, a ſoundneſs in judgment, and a perſpicuity of method, not inferior to thoſe which diſtinguiſhed his other performances. From the nature of the ſubject it was impoſſible to render it equally amuſing to ordinary readers, or to beſtow on his language the ſame ſplendour and variety; but the ſtyle poſſeſſes all the characteriſtical beauties of his former compoſitions, as far as they could with propriety be introduced into a diſcourſe of which the general deſign excluded every ſuperfluous and ambitious ornament.

In reviewing the Hiſtory of Dr. Robertſon's life, our attention has hitherto been confined to thoſe purſuits which formed the habitual occupation of his mind; and which have left behind them unperiſhable monuments. His life, however, was not devoted wholly to the cultivation of letters. His talents

fitted him in an eminent degree for the buſineſs of the world; and the ſtation in which Providence placed him opened to him a field, which, however unequal to his ambition or to his genius, afforded him the means of evincing what he might have accompliſhed, if his ſphere of exertion had been more extenſive and brilliant.

Among the active ſcenes in which he had an opportunity to engage, the moſt conſpicuous was preſented to him by the Supreme Eccleſiaſtical Court in Scotland, which differs in ſome remarkable particulars from the clerical convocations in other chriſtian countries.

A queſtion which came under the conſideration of the Aſſembly in the year 1751, when he ſpoke for the firſt time in that ſupreme court, afforded Dr. Robertſon an opportunity of unfolding his general principles of eccleſiaſtical government. The conduct of a clergyman who had diſobeyed a ſentence of a former aſſembly, gave riſe to a warm diſcuſſion, in the courſe of which, Dr. Robertſon, ſupported by a few of his friends, contended for the expediency of a ſevere and exemplary ſentence. But this doctrine was then ſo little underſtood or reliſhed, that he was left in an inconſiderable minority.

The *Commiſſion* of that Aſſembly at their meeting, in November 1751, ordered the Preſbytery of Dunfermline, which had already been guilty of diſobedience, to admit Mr. Richardſon as miniſter of Inverkeithing; intimating to them at the ſame time, that in caſe of their continued contumacy, the Commiſſion was to proceed, at their next meeting in March, to a very high cenſure. The Preſbytery again diſobeyed; and yet the Commiſſion, with a prepoſterous lenity, ſuffered their conduct to paſs with impunity. The inconſiſtency and expediency of this ſentence were urged ſtrenuouſly by Dr. Robertſon and his friends, who in their diſſent or proteſt againſt it, have left a valuable record of the general principles on which they acted. The paper is ſtill extant, and though evidently a haſty compoſition, bears in various paſſages, the marks of Dr. Robertſon's hand.

Dr. Robertſon argued this cauſe in the General Aſſembly, 1752; and, ſuch was the impreſſion made by the arguments contained in the proteſt, and more fully illuſtrated in his ſpeech, that the Supreme Court reverſed the judgment of commiſſion, and depoſed one of the miniſters of the preſbytery of Dunfermline, for diſobeying the orders of his ſuperiors.

The ſucceſs of theſe attempts had probably ſome effect in determining Dr. Robertſon to continue his attention to the affairs of the church; more eſpecially, after his office in the univerſity put it in his power to be returned annually as a repreſentative to the General Aſſembly. By an uninterrupted attendance in that court for nearly twenty years, he acquired an intimate acquaintance with the whole train of its buſineſs; while the influence which he thus ſecured was increaſed and confirmed by his conciliating manners, by the charms of his converſation, and by the celebrity of his name.

The circumſtances which chiefly diſtinguiſhed his ſyſtem of policy were

were, *firſt*, a ſteady and uniform ſupport of the law of patronage; and, *ſecondly*, an impartial exerciſe of the judicial power of the church.

In the former of theſe reſpects, his exertions are ſuppoſed by his friends, not only to have produced in the eccleſiaſtical eſtabliſhment a tranquillity unknown in former times; but to have contributed, in no ſmall degree, to the peace and good order of the country.

A ſyſtematical regularity, to which the church of Scotland has been little accuſtomed, in the exerciſe of its judicial power, was another effect of the aſcendant which Dr. Robertſon poſſeſſed in the conduct of its buſineſs.

With reſpect to the various incidental diſcuſſions in which he was, on different occaſions, called on to take an active concern, it is impoſſible for me to enter into details. One of theſe, however, which occurred towards the cloſe of his public life, is of too memorable a nature to be paſſed over in ſilence.

The diſturbances occaſioned in Scotland in 1779, by the propoſed extenſion to that part of the kingdom of the repeal of the penal laws againſt Roman Catholics, are well known to all who have the ſlighteſt acquaintance with the hiſtory of that period, in which Dr. Robertſon diſplayed the utmoſt firmneſs and tranquillity at a very critical juncture; when, after repeated acts of ſucceſsful and unpuniſhed outrage, committed in different parts of Edinburgh, a furious populace threatened an attack on his houſe, and were only reſtrained by a military force from ſacrificing his life to their vengeance.

The laſt aſſembly in which Dr. Robertſon ſat, was that of 1780. While his faculties were yet vigorous, his conſtitution unbroken, and his influence undiminiſhed, he choſe to withdraw from the active ſcenes in which he had ſo long borne a part, and to conſecrate the remainder of his life to the quiet purſuits of ſtudy, and to the paſtoral duties of his profeſſion. His retreat was deeply regretted and ſincerely felt by his friends; nor was it leſs lamented by many individuals of the oppoſite party in the church, who, while they reſiſted the principles of eccleſiaſtical policy, loved his candour, and reſpected his integrity.

One great quality aſcribed to Dr. Robertſon was, his ability in debate; the characteriſtic of his eloquence was *perſuaſion*; mild, rational, and conciliating, yet manly and dignified. In early life, when forced as a partizan to expoſe himſelf to the contentious heat of popular diſcuſſion, he is ſaid to have been diſtinguiſhed by promptitude and animation in repelling the attacks which he occaſionally encountered; but long before the period during which I knew him, he had become the acknowledged head of his party, and generally ſpoke laſt in the debate; reſuming the arguments on both ſides, with ſuch perſpicuity of arrangement and expreſſion, ſuch reſpect to his antagoniſts, and ſuch an air of candour and earneſtneſs in every thing he ſaid, that he often united the ſuffrages of the Houſe in favour of the concluſions he wiſhed to eſtabliſh.

His pronunciation and accent were ſtrongly marked with the peculiarities of his country; nor was

was this defect compenſated by the graces of delivery. His manner, however, though deficient in eaſe, was intereſting and impreſſive; and had ſomething in its general effect, neither unſuitable to his profeſſional ſtation, nor to the particular ſtyle of his eloquence. His diction was rich and ſplendid, and abounded with the ſame beauties that characterize his writings.

In conſequence of the various connexions with ſociety, which roſe from theſe profeſſional duties, and from the intereſt which he was led to take, both by his official ſituation, and the activity of his public ſpirit, in the literary or the patriotic undertakings of others, a conſiderable portion of Dr. Robertſon's leiſure was devoted to converſation and company. No man enjoyed theſe with more reliſh, and few have poſſeſſed the ſame talents to add to their attractions.

His health began apparently to decline in the end of the year 1791. Till then, it had been more uniformly good than might have been expected from his ſtudious habits; but, about this period, he ſuddenly diſcovered ſtrong ſymptoms of jaundice, which gradually undermined his conſtitution, and terminated at length in a lingering and fatal illneſs. He had the proſpect of death long before him; a proſpect deeply afflicting to his family and his friends; but of which, without any viſible abatement in his ſpirits, he happily availed himſelf, to adorn the doctrines which he had long taught, by an example of fortitude, and of chriſtian reſignation. In the concluding ſtage of his diſorder, he removed from Edinburgh to *Grange Houſe* in the neighbourhood, where he had the advantage of a freer air, and a more quiet ſituation, and (what he valued more than moſt men) the pleaſure of rural objects, and a beautiful landſcape. While he was able to walk abroad, he commonly paſſed a part of the day in a ſmall garden, enjoying the ſimple gratifications it afforded with all his wonted reliſh.

It only remains to mention his exemplary diligence in the diſcharge of his paſtoral duties; a diligence which, inſtead of relaxing as he advanced in life, became more conſpicuous when his growing infirmities withdrew him from buſineſs, and leſſened the number of his active engagements. As long as his health allowed him, he preached regularly every Sunday, and he continued to do ſo occaſionally till within a few months of his death.

The particular ſtyle of his pulpit eloquence may be judged of from the ſpecimen which has been long in the hands of the public; and it is not improbable, that the world might have been favoured with others of equal excellence, if he had not loſt, before his removal from Gladſmuir, a volume of Sermons which he had compoſed with care.

At his particular deſire, I ſaw him (for the laſt time) on the 4th of June, 1793, when his weakneſs confined him to his couch, and his articulation was already beginning to fail; and it is in obedience to a requeſt with which he then honoured me, that I have ventured, without conſulting my own powers, to offer this tribute to his memory. He died on the 11th of the ſame month, in the 71ſt year of his age.

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I have already hinted at his domeſtic happineſs. Nothing was wanting to render it perfect while he lived; and, at his death, he had the ſatisfaction to leave, in proſperous circumſtances, a numerous family united to each other, and to their excellent mother, by the tendereſt affection. His eldeſt ſon, an eminent lawyer at the Scotch bar, has been alſo prevented, by the engagements of an active profeſſion, from ſuſtaining his father's literary name; while his two younger ſons, both of whom very early embraced a military life, have carried his valour and enterprize into a different career of ambition. His eldeſt daughter is married to Mr. Brydone, the well known author of one of our moſt elegant and popular works of travels. Another is the widow of the late John Ruſſell, Eſq. clerk to the Signet, and one of the members of this Society.

In point of ſtature Dr. Robertſon was rather above the middle ſize, and his form, though it did not convey the idea of much activity, announced vigour of body and healthful conſtitution. His features were regular and manly, and his eye ſpoke at once good ſenſe and good humour. He appeared to greateſt advantage in his complete clerical dreſs, and was more remarkable for gravity and dignity in diſcharging the functions of his public ſtations, than for eaſe or grace in private ſociety. His portrait, by Reynolds, painted about twenty years ago, is an admirable likeneſs; and fortunately (for the colours are already much faded) all its ſpirit is preſerved in an excellent mezzotinto. At the requeſt of his colleagues in the Univerſity, who were anxious to have ſome memorial of him placed in the public library, he ſat again, a few months before his death, to Mr. Raeburn, at a time when his altered and ſickly aſpect rendered the taſk of the artiſt particularly difficult. The picture, however, is not only worthy in every reſpect of Mr. Raeburn's high and deſerved reputation, but to thoſe who were accuſtomed to ſee Dr. Robertſon at this intereſting period, derives an additional value from an air of languor and feebleneſs, which ſtrongly marked his appearance during his long decline.

Sketch of the Life of Bryan Edwards, *Eſq. written by himſelf a ſhort time before his death. Extracted from his third volume of his Hiſtory of the Weſt Indies.*

I Was born the 21ſt of May, 1743, in the decayed town of Weſtbury, in the county of Wilts. My father inherited a ſmall paternal eſtate in the neighbourhood of about 100*l.* per ann. which proving but a ſcanty maintenance for a large family, he undertook, without any knowledge of the buſineſs, as I have been informed, to deal in corn and malt, but with very little ſucceſs. He died in 1756, leaving my excellent mother, and ſix children, in diſtreſſed circumſtances. Luckily for my mother, ſhe had two opulent brothers in the Weſt Indies, one of them a wiſe and worthy man, of a liberal mind, and princely fortune. This was Zachary Bayly, of the iſland of Jamaica, who, on the death of my father, took my mother and her family under his protection; and

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as I was the eldeſt ſon, directed that I ſhould be well educated. I had been placed by my father at the ſchool of a diſſenting miniſter in Briſtol, whoſe name was William Foot, of whom I remember enough to believe that he was both a learned and good man; but by a ſtrange abſurdity he was forbidden to teach me Latin and Greek, and directed to confine my ſtudies to writing, arithmetic, and the Engliſh grammar. I ſhould therefore have had little to do, but that the ſchool-maſter had an excellent method of making the boys write letters to him on different ſubjects, ſuch as the beauty and dignity of truth, the obligation of a religious life, the benefits of good education, the miſchief of idleneſs, &c. &c. previouſly ſtating to them the chief arguments to be urged, and inſiſting on correctneſs in orthography and grammar. In this employment I had ſometimes the good fortune to excel other boys, and when this happened my maſter never failed to praiſe me very liberally before them all, and he would frequently tranſmit my letters to my father and mother. This excited in my mind a ſpirit of emulation, and, I believe, gave me the firſt taſte for correct and elegant compoſition. I acquired, however, all this time, but very little learning; and when my uncle (on my father's death) took me under his protection, his agent in Briſtol conſidered me as neglected by Mr. Foot, and immediately removed me to a French boarding-ſchool in the ſame city, where I ſoon obtained the French language, and having acceſs to a circulating library, I acquired a paſſion for books, which has ſince become the ſolace of my life.

In 1759, a younger and the only brother of my great and good uncle, came to England, and ſettling in London, took me to reſide with him, in a high and elegant ſtyle of life. He was a repreſentative in Parliament for Abingdon, and afterwards for his native town. Further, I cannot ſpeak of him ſo favourably as I could wiſh, for I remember that at the period I allude to, his conduct towards me was ſuch as not to inſpire me with much reſpect: he perceived it, and ſoon after, in the latter end of the ſame year, ſent me to Jamaica. This proved a happy and fortunate change in my life, for I found my eldeſt uncle the reverſe, in every poſſible circumſtance, of his brother. To the moſt enlarged and enlightened mind he added the ſweeteſt temper, and the moſt generous diſpoſition. His tenderneſs towards me was exceſſive, and I regarded him with more than filial affection and veneration. Obſerving my paſſion for books, and thinking favourably of my capacity, he engaged a clergyman (my loved and ever to be lamented friend, Iſaac Teale,) to reſide in his family, chiefly to ſupply by his inſtructions my deficiency in the learned languages. Mr. Teale had been maſter of a free grammar ſchool, and beſides being a moſt accompliſhed ſcholar, poſſeſſed an exquiſite taſte for poetry, of which the reader will be convinced by referring to the Gentleman's Magazine, for Auguſt 1771, the beautiful copy of verſes, there firſt publiſhed, called "The Compli-

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ment of the Day," being of his compoſition. I dare not ſay, however, that I made any great progreſs in the language under his tuition; I acquired "*ſmall Latin, and leſs Greek*;" even now, I find it difficult to read the Roman poets in their own language. The caſe was, that not having been grounded in the Latin grammar at an earlier period of life, I found the ſtudy of it inſupportably diſguſting, after that I had acquired a taſte for the beauties of fine writing. Poetry was our chief amuſement; for my friend, as well as myſelf, preferred the charms of Dryden and Pope, to the dull drudgery of poring over Syntax and Proſody. We preferred Belles Lettres. We laughed away many a happy hour over the plays of Moliére, and wrote verſes on local and temporary ſubjects, which we ſometimes publiſhed in the colonial news-papers. Yet the Latin claſſicks were not altogether neglected; my friend delighted to point out to me the beauties of Horace, and would frequently impoſe on me the taſk of tranſlating an ode into Engliſh verſe, which, with his aſſiſtance in conſtruing the words, I ſometimes accompliſhed.

Having made myſelf known to the public by my writings, it is probable that after I am in the grave, that ſome collector of anecdotes, or biographical compiler, may pretend to furniſh ſome particulars concerning my life and manners. It is not pleaſant to think that miſrepreſentation or malice may faſten on my memory, and I have therefore made it the amuſement of an idle hour to compile a ſhort account of myſelf. My perſonal hiſtory, however, is of little importance to the world. It will furniſh no diverſified ſcenes of fortune, nor relate many circumſtances of myſelf worth remembering. Yet I feel the fond ambition of an author, and am willing to hope, that thoſe who have read my book with approbation will be glad to know ſomething further concerning me.

"*For who, to dumb forgetfulneſs a prey,*" &c.

For the ſatisfaction then of ſuch kind readers, (if ſuch there are) and the information of my poſterity, I have drawn up this paper, which I deſire my bookſeller to prefix to the next edition of my Hiſtory of the Weſt Indies.

Memoirs of John Bacon, *Eſq.* R. A. *By the Rev.* Richard Cecil, A. M.

THIS celebrated ſculptor was deſcended from an ancient family in Somerſetſhire: his grandfather, John Bacon, was the ſon of William Bacon, who poſſeſſed a conſiderable eſtate near Manſel, in that county. His father, Thomas Bacon, was a clothworker in Southwark, where Mr. Bacon was born November 24, 1740.

Providence ſeems to have peculiarly favoured his infancy, for when he was about five years of age he fell into the pit of a ſoap-boiler, and would have periſhed, if a man, who then entered the yard, had not diſcovered the top of his head, and immediately drawn him out. About the ſame time he fell before a cart, the wheel of which went over his right hand, and muſt have cruſhed it, had it not

not fallen between two projecting ſtones.

When very young Mr. B. diſcovered an inclination for drawing, common to children; but not purſuing it, he never made any great proficiency in that art.

He, indeed, at that time was obliged to ſeek a ſupport in the humbleſt ſtation, but even while a child, ſeeds of his future growth and eminence appeared. "I have often heard him mention," ſays his ſon, "that, when a boy under the age of ten years, and playing at marbles, or other games, his thoughts have been chiefly employed in the enquiry, whence aroſe the ſatisfaction he felt?" and perceiving the weakneſs of its principle, his former pleaſures have been turned into contempt towards himſelf and his companions, as the eaſy dupes of fancy. At this age he concluded that happineſs was in every man's power who could learn to diſcipline his own mind; and on this plan he made a ſort of philoſophical attempt to command his own happineſs.

In the year 1755, and at the age of fourteen, Mr. B. was bound apprentice to Mr. Criſpe, of Bow Church-yard, where he was employed, among other things, in painting on porcelain. Mr. Criſpe had a manufactory at Lambeth, to which Mr. B. occaſionally went, and where he aſſiſted. His then occupation, indeed, was but a feeble ſtep towards his future acquirements, as he was chiefly employed in forming ſhepherds, ſhepherdeſſes, and ſuch ſmall ornamental pieces; yet, for a ſelf-taught artiſt to perform even works like theſe with taſte, and, in leſs than two years, form (as he did) all the models for the manufactory, was to give an indication of no ordinary powers. But as goodneſs of heart excels greatneſs of parts, a proof of his filial affection ought here to be recorded. At this early period he principally ſupported his parents by the produce of his labours, even to the abridging himſelf of the neceſſaries of life.

Mr. B.'s capacity, however, for greater things in his art than he had yet attempted, diſcovered itſelf on the following occaſion: In attending the manufactory at Lambeth, he had an opportunity of obſerving the models of different ſculptors, which were ſent to a pottery on the ſame premiſes to be burnt. Small circumſtances often give riſe to the moſt important events in our lives. From the ſight of theſe models, Mr. B. firſt conceived a ſtrong inclination for his future profeſſion. He applied himſelf to this attainment with the moſt unremitting diligence; his progreſs was as rapid, as his turn for it was ſudden and unpremeditated. This will appear from the books publiſhed annually by the Society for the Encouragement of Arts; where it may be found, that, between the years 1763 and 1766, inclusive, the firſt premiums in thoſe claſſes, for which he contended, were no leſs than nine times adjudged to him. The firſt of theſe attempts was made in the year 1758, in a ſmall figure of Peace, after the manner of the antique.

It was during Mr. B.'s apprenticeſhip that he formed a deſign of making ſtatues in artificial ſtone, which he afterwards perfected. By theſe exertions he recovered the manufactory at Lambeth, now carried

ried on by Mrs. Coade; and which, before Mr. B. undertook the management of it, had fallen into very low circumstances.

About the year 1763, Mr. B. first attempted working in marble; and having never seen that operation performed, he was led to invent an instrument for transferring the form of the model to the marble, (technically called, *getting out the points*) which instrument has since been used by many other sculptors in England and France. Its advantage, beyond the instruments formerly employed, consists in its certainty and exactness—in its taking a correct measurement in *every direction*—in its occupying so small a compass as not to encumber the workman—and, that it may be transferable either to the model, or to the marble, without having a separate instrument for each, as before was the custom.

At this time Mr. B. lived in the city, where his family connexions were, but in the year 1768 he removed to the west end of the town; and it was then (being about twenty-eight years of age) in attending the Royal Academy, instituted that year, that he received his first instructions in his future profession, having never before seen the art of modelling or sculpture regularly performed.

In the following year, the gold medal for sculpture, the first ever given by that Society, was decreed to Mr. B. He became an associate of that body in the year 1770. His reputation was now well established by the exhibition of his statue of Mars; it recommended him to the notice of the present Archbishop of York, who, having designed to place a bust of his present Majesty in the hall of Christ Church College, Oxford, presented Mr. B. to the King, who was pleased to sit to him for that purpose.

When Mr. B. was modelling the bust of his Majesty, the King asked him, "if he had ever been out of the kingdom?" Upon being answered in the negative, his Majesty said, "I am glad of it—you will be the greater honour to it."

Mr. B.'s execution of this work, added to the fame he had already acquired, procured him the Royal Patronage, and he received an order from his Majesty to prepare another bust, intended as a present to the University of Gottingen. Her Majesty was also pleased to give directions for a third; and Mr. B. has since executed a fourth, which was placed in the meeting-room of the Society of Antiquaries. He was soon afterwards employed by the Dean and Fellows of Christ Church in forming several busts for them, particularly those of the late General Guise, the Bishop of Durham, and the Primate of Ireland.

In the year 1773 he presented to the Society for the Encouragement of Arts two statues in plaister, which, by a vote of that Society, were directed to be placed in their great room. On this occasion Mr. B. addressed a letter to them, to which the Society sent a polite answer, accompanied with their gold medal, on the reverse of which is inscribed, EMINENT MERIT.

His first *work* in sculpture is in Christ Church College, already mentioned; the first *Figures* he executed in marble, are at the Duke of Richmond's at Godwood; his first *Monument* is that of Mrs. Withers,

Withers, in St. Mary's, Worceſter.

In the year 1777 he was employed to prepare a model of a monument to be erected in Guy's-hoſpital, Southwark, to the memory of the founder. It was this work that chiefly recommended him to the execution of Lord Chatham's monument in Guildhall. This latter gave ſuch general ſatisfaction, that he was preſented with a handſome gratuity after the ſum agreed for was paid.

The next year, in which he became a Royal Academician, he finiſhed the monument of Mrs. Draper. About the ſame time he began a marble ſtatue of Mars from the model he had before exhibited; the commiſſion was given him by Charles Anderſon Pelham, now Lord Yarborough, but it was not compleated till the year 1786. Some time in this year (1780) he executed the two groups for the top of Somerſet-houſe, and alſo the monument of Lord Halifax, placed in the north aiſle of Weſtminſter Abbey.

In the year 1781 he began the ſtatue of Judge Blackſtone for All Souls College, Oxford; and the next year that of Henry the Sixth for the Anti-chapel at Eton.

In the year 1783, the inhabitants of Jerſey, having determined to perpetuate the memory of the gallant Major Pierſon, who fell in the defence of that iſland againſt the French, the execution of the monument was committed to Mr. B.

It may here be remarked, that in the different competitions with rival artiſts, Mr. B. has been almoſt always ſucceſsful, there being but one exception out of ſixteen inſtances.

Of the works which Mr. B. exhibited at the Royal Academy, the following may be enumerated: Statues of Mars and Venus, a coloſſal buſt of Jupiter, a coloſſal ſtatue of the Thames, ſeveral ſmall figures in marble, and a monument, ſince placed in the cathedral of Briſtol, to the memory of Mrs. Draper, celebrated by Sterne under the name of Eliza.

But the moſt important work hitherto preſented to the public by Mr. B. is the monument of the Earl of Chatham, erected in Weſtminſter Abbey. This was begun in the year 1778, and finiſhed in 1783. It may perhaps be produced as an inſtance, not only that true genius is the growth of the Britiſh iſle, but that it may be fully ripened in it, unaſſiſted by foreign aid.

When young, Mr. B.'s abilities as an artiſt were not called in queſtion, except in reſpect to the antique; of which ſome affirmed that he underſtood nothing. On this occaſion he modelled his large head of Jupiter Tonans, which was inſpected by ſeveral eminent connoiſſeurs, and miſtaken for a fine antique: they even enquired, "from what temple abroad it had been brought?"

Mr. B. never uſed to *ſet his draperies*, as it is termed, but they were the production of his own feelings, and of the obſervations he had made, with ſcarcely any aſſiſtance from artificial arrangements, and diſpoſitions of them upon a figure.

Beſides the works already mentioned, thoſe which ſtand among the

the principal are, the Bronze Groupe, in the ſquare of Somerſet-houſe; Lady Miller's, at Bath; Lord Rodney's, at Jamaica; Lord Heathfield's, at Buckland, near Plymouth; Earl and Counteſs of Effingham's, at Jamaica; Sir George Pocock's and Biſhop Thomas's, in Weſtminſter Abbey; Mr. Howard's and Dr. Johnſon's, in St. Paul's Cathedral; and the Pediment of the Eaſt India Houſe.

Mr. B. had under his hand at the time of his death the following monuments: that of Mr. Whitbread; Sir William Jones; the Poet Maſon; Rev. Joſeph Milner; General Dundas, for St. Paul's; Captains Harvey and Hutt, for Weſtminſter Abbey; a Groupe for India, containing a coloſſal ſtatue of Marquis Cornwallis; an equeſtrian Bronze of William the Third, for St. James's-ſquare; with ſome others of leſs importance.

This diſtinguiſhed artiſt, and excellent man, was ſuddenly attacked with an inflammation in his bowels, on the evening of Sunday, Auguſt 4, 1799, which occaſioned his death in little more than two days. During this ſhort illneſs he expreſſed a firm reliance on that ſure foundation on which he had long and conſiſtently built. He departed on Wedneſday morning, Auguſt the 7th, in the 59th year of his age, leaving two ſons and three daughters by his firſt wife, and three ſons by his laſt, the ſurviving widow.

Mr. B. was about five feet eight inches in ſtature, of a fair complexion, and intereſting countenance, expreſſive of his natural vivacity, tenderneſs, and addreſs.

In communicating his ideas he was ſometimes forcible and happy, eſpecially if the occaſion and the aſſembly demanded care and preparation. The obſervations he uſed to make at the Royal Academy were received with the greateſt attention and deference.

He was naturally irritable, but not at all vindictive; warm in his attachments, but more diſpoſed to lament his wrongs than to reſent them.

It is the reward of ſound character, that, however it may be obſcured by calumny or accident, time will bring forth its reality, and oblige even enemies to acknowledge it. This was verified in the probity of Mr. B. Thoſe who a long time felt it their intereſt to ſink his riſing reputation, have afterwards been glad to appeal to his tried integrity.

I had many opportunities of obſerving Mr. B.'s integrity and generoſity in giving the merits of rival ſculptors their juſt demands. He was ſanguine in praiſing any thing felicitous that came from their hands, and ſeemed to take peculiar pleaſure in expreſſing it. On the contrary, I do not recollect a ſingle inſtance of his being ſevere on the defects that might have afforded ample ſcope for his criticiſm or wit.

The reader has, perhaps, obſerved in ſome eminent character, that his credit and uſefulneſs have been greatly leſſened by a peculiar bad habit, or falſe ſentiment, which either length of time, or the flattery of fond admirers, or a temper indiſpoſed to animadverſion, has at length rendered almoſt inveterate. Nothing of this ſort of difficulty ever diſcouraged remark on the

the character before us: he ſeemed to feel the reproof of a friend as a token of peculiar friendſhip.

Mr. B.'s habits were frugal, but not penurious; being favoured by the public with the execution of moſt of the principal pieces which have been done of late, he could not but acquire conſiderable property: but the prudence which, as the father of a large family, and in a precarious profeſſion, he deemed it neceſſary to obſerve—the plain and careleſs ſtyle of every thing about his houſe—the envy of ſome intereſted contemporaries—and, above all, the motives of his conduct being greatly miſunderſtood, gave occaſion to the objections which have been brought againſt his liberality.

That there was ſometimes the appearance of parſimony cannot be denied; and alſo, that he has been known to lament a diſpoſition towards it, while he dilated, as he frequently did, on the odiouſneſs of the vice.

While Mr. B. employed every method to preſerve his family from mixing with a diſſipated and dangerous world, he ſtrove by every means to render their home delightful, and ſpared no expence that could make it ſo. He was in his family not only the pious father, but alſo the pleaſant friend and companion. While he inſtructed he entertained, while he reſtrained he ſoothed. In a word, thoſe knew him not who did not know that he was a truly affectionate huſband, a tender parent, a ſteady friend, a loyal ſubject, an honeſt man, and a real chriſtian.

As to his literary attainments, it is rather to be admired, conſidering his early diſadvantages and arduous profeſſional occupations, that he arrived at mediocrity in letters, than that he ſhould not attain to excellence. Yet, whoever reads what he wrote under the article ſculpture, in Dr. Rees's edition of Chambers's Dictionary, will form no mean opinion of his attainment in this reſpect.

He was alſo the author of ſeveral anonymous pieces reſpecting the arts—of ſeveral well written proſe epitaphs, one of which was preferred by the king for lord Chatham's monument, and on which his Majeſty complimented him—and of a poetical tract, calculated, from the familiarity of its manner, to correct and allay the political ferment that prevailed a few years ago among the common people. To ſay ſomething popular to this claſs was the principal ambition he ſeemed to have in uſing his pen. He amuſed himſelf in putting down hundreds of epitaphs which he hoped might more uſefully meet the public eye in a church-yard, than thoſe trite, and often ridiculous ones that are uſually obſerved. With the ſame view he compoſed a great number of fables, as the ground of the moral and religious ſentiments with which he meant to accompany them. They were, however, written in ſuch haſte,—generally put down at the moment the thought occurred; and often conceived as he walked the ſtreets, that they were not fit, in their preſent ſtate, to appear in print.

A long and intimate acquaintance with the deceaſed enables the writer of theſe memoirs to ſpeak of a once invaluable friend, the loſs of whoſe counſel and example he muſt deeply feel through life. In his intercourſes, he obſerved

the philoſopher and the ſculptor loſt in the believer and the philanthropiſt: he heard the *artiſt* diſcourſe, but he ſaw the *chriſtian* glow: and he now views, with heart-felt ſatisfaction, the bleſſings of this eminent character deſcending upon his children.

Memoirs of Richard Earl of Warwick, *from* Coxe's *Hiſtorical Tour in Monmouthſhire.*

RICHARD earl of Warwick, was one of the moſt puiſſant and valorous nobles of his age, and by his feats in arms almoſt realized the fabulous adventures of Guy earl of Warwick, his renowned anceſtor. He ſignalized himſelf at a very early age in ſuppreſſing the rebellion of Owen Glendower, whoſe ſtandard he took in open combat, and gained great honour at the memorable battle of Shrewſbury. Without recounting the numerous inſtances of his military ſkill and heroic intrepidity, which greatly contributed to the ſucceſs of the Engliſh arms in France; it will be ſufficient to obſerve that he was the friend and companion in arms of Henry the fifth, who gratefully rewarded his ſervices by repeated marks of favour, and gave the higheſt teſtimony of his reſpect; by appointing him guardian to his infant ſon.

He was no leſs diſtinguiſhed by foreign princes than his own ſovereign; being deputed with a retinue of 800 horſe, to accompany the Engliſh prelates to the general council of Conſtance, he received uncommon marks of approbation from the Emperor Sigiſmond and his conſort. Having ſignalized himſelf at a tournament, the empreſs took his badge from the ſhoulder of one of his knights, and placed it on her own. The emperor alſo, on his arrival in England, ſaid to Henry the fifth, "No chriſtian prince has ſuch a knight, for wiſdom, nurture, and manhood; and if all courteſy was loſt on earth it might yet be found again in him:" hence he was denominated, "*the father of courteſy.*"

He was not only the moſt diſtinguiſhed warrior, but the greateſt traveller of his age. After viſiting France and Italy, he made a pilgrimage to the Holy Land, and was received at Jeruſalem with the higheſt marks of reſpect, as well for his own valour, as from his deſcent from Guy earl of Warwick, whoſe romantic hiſtory was adapted to the genius of the eaſt. From Jeruſalem he returned to Venice, and continued his travels through Ruſſia, Lithuania, Poland, Pruſſia, and Germany. During this expedition, he performed extraordinary feats of chivalry in diverſe tournaments, in which he ſurpaſſed all his contemporaries. But he even ſurpaſſed himſelf in a tournament which he held near Calais, in 1416. An account of this ſingular adventure is related by Dugdale, from an ancient manuſcript, with ſuch ſpirit and ſimplicity, that it cannot be abridged without injury to the narrative.

"Whereupon," ſays this author, "he ſoon haſtened to Calais, and the more ſpeedily becauſe he heard that the French were raiſing great forces againſt that place; but when he underſtood, that thoſe forces bent another way, he reſolved to put in practice ſome new point of chivalry, cauſing three

ſhields to be made, and in each of them a lady painted; the firſt harping at the end of a bedſtead, with a grate of gold on her left ſleeve, and her knight called the *green knight*, with a black quarter, who was ready to juſt with any knight of France twelve courſes; having two ſhields of purveyance, and his letter ſealed with the ſeal of his arms, *the field ſilver, a manch, gules;* the ſecond pavice or ſhield, had a lady ſitting at a covered board, working pearls, and on her ſleeve a glove of plate ſacked, her knight being called chevalier Vert, having his letter ſealed with theſe arms, *the field ſilver, two bars of gules,* who was to juſt fifteen courſes, and that ſhould be ſaddles of chains; the third pavice had a lady ſitting in a garden making a chaplet, and on her ſleeve a polein with a rivet, her knight being called *chevalier Attendant*, who with his fellow muſt run and courſe with ſharp ſpears, his letter being ſealed with *gold and gules quarterly, and a border vert;* which letters were ſent to the king's court of France, where three French knights received them, and promiſed their fellows to meet at a day and place aſſigned, whereupon the firſt was a knight called ſir Gerard Herbaumes, who called himſelf *le chevalier rouge;* the ſecond a famous knight, called ſir Hugh Launey, calling himſelf *le chevalier Blanke;* and the third a knight named ſir Collard Fines; twelfth day in Chriſtmas being appointed for the time, that they ſhould meet in a land called the Park Hedge of Gynes.

" On which day the earl came into the field with his face covered, a plume of Oſtrich feathers upon his helm, and his horſe trapped with the lord Toney's arms, (one of his anceſtors) viz. *argent a manch gules*, where firſt encountering with the chevalier Rouge, at the third courſe he unhorſed him, and ſo returned with cloſe vizor unknown, to his pavilion, whence he ſent to that knight a good courſer.

" The next day he came into the field with his vizor cloſe; a chaplet on his helm, and a plume of oſtrich feathers aloft, his horſe trapped with the arms of Hanſlap, viz. *ſilver two bars gules*, where he met with the *blank knight*, with whom he encountered, ſmote off his vizor twice, broke his biſagues, and other harneys, and returned victoriouſly to his pavilion with all his own habiliments ſafe, and as yet not known to any; from whence he ſent this *blank knight*, ſir Hugh Launey, a good courſer.

" But the morrow after, being the laſt day of the juſts, he came with his face open, and his helmet as the day before, ſave that the chaplet was rich with pearl and precious ſtones, and in his coat of arms of Guy and Beauchamp quarterly, having the arms of Toney and Hanſlap on his trappers, and ſaid, that as he had in his own perſon performed the ſervice the two days before, ſo, with God's grace, he would the third. Whereupon, encountering with ſir Collard Fines, at every ſtroke he bore him backwards to his horſe, inſomuch as the Frenchmen ſaying that he himſelf was bound to his ſaddle, he alighted and preſently got up again. But all being ended, he returned to his pavilion, ſent to ſir Collard Fines a fair courſer, feaſted all the people,

gave to thoſe three knights great rewards, and ſo rode to Calais with great honour."

He died at Rouen in Normandy, in 1439, bearing the high office of Regent of France.

Memoirs of Geoffrey *of* Monmouth.
From the ſame.

TRADITION ſtill points out a ſmall apartment of the priory of Geoffrey of Monmouth; it bears in the ceiling and windows remains of former magnificence, but is much more modern than the age of Geoffrey: it is now converted into a ſchool room. Although the century in which Geoffrey flouriſhed is known, yet neither his family, the time of his birth, nor the place of his education is aſcertained; we are only informed that he was born in this town, probably educated in the monaſtery, became archdeacon of Monmouth, and was conſecrated biſhop of St. Aſaph in 1152. By ſome he is called a monk of the Dominican order, but according to Leland, without ſufficient authority; by others he is ſtyled a cardinal, but has no more claim to that dignity than his heroes have to the actions he makes them perform.

He wrote a treatiſe on the holy ſacrament, and ſome miſcellaneous verſes on Merlin; yet neither of theſe performances would have reſcued his name from oblivion, had not chance made him the tranſlator of a Britiſh Hiſtory, preſented to him in the original language, by Walter archdeacon of Oxford.

This hiſtory has occaſioned a long controverſy, and divided the learned world as much as any other work ever given to the public; by ſome it has been treated as a forgery impoſed upon the world by Geoffrey himſelf; by others the ground-work is conſidered as true, although the hiſtory, like moſt monkiſh writings, is mixed with childiſh fables and legendary tales. Thompſon, the tranſlator of the Britiſh Hiſtory, has written an elaborate vindication of the work, and defends Geoffrey with great ſkill and learning; but after refuting the charge of forgery, he has failed in eſtabliſhing it as an hiſtorical performance; for he himſelf invalidates its authority, by acknowledging, that it was only ſuch an irregular account as the Britains were able to preſerve in thoſe times of deſtruction and confuſion; beſides ſome other romantic tales, which indeed might be traditions among the Welſh, and ſuch as Geoffrey might think entertaining ſtories for the credulity of the times.

We have, however, no need of any other arguments than the confeſſion of Geoffrey himſelf, who acknowledges that the Hiſtory of Britain was not *wholly* a tranſlation of the Welſh manuſcript; he avows that he added ſeveral parts, particularly Merlin's prophecies, and inſerted ſome circumſtances "which he had heared from that moſt learned hiſtorian, Walter, archdeacon of Oxford."

The controverſy is at length decided, and the beſt Welſh critics allow that Geoffrey's work was a vitiated tranſlation of the Hiſtory of the Britiſh Kings, written by Tyſſilio, or St. Teliau, biſhop of St. Aſaph, who flouriſhed in the ſeventh century. Geoffrey in his work

work omitted many parts, made conſiderable alterations, additions, and interpolations, latiniſed many of the Britiſh appellations, and in the opinion of a learned Welſhman, murdered Tyſſilio; we may therefore conclude, that Geoffrey ought to be no more cited as an hiſtorical authority, than Amadis de Gaul, or the Seven Champions of Chriſtendom.

But whatever opinion may be entertained in regard to its authenticity, Geoffrey's Britiſh Hiſtory forms a new epoch in the literature of this country; and next to the Hiſtory of Charlemagne, by Turpin, probably written in the eleventh century, was the firſt production which introduced that ſpecies of compoſition called romance.

The work of Geoffrey is extremely entertaining, and his fables have been frequently clothed in rhyme: in the thirteenth century Robert, a monk of the abbey of Gloceſter, wrote a hiſtory of England in verſe, in the Alexandrian meaſure, from Brutus to the reign of Edward the firſt. Warton juſtly obſerves in his hiſtory of Engliſh Poetry, "that the tales have often a more poetical air in Jeffery's proſe than in this rhyming chronicle, which is totally deſtitute of art or imagination, and from its obſolete language ſcarcely intelligible." This hiſtorical romance, however, was not only verſified by monkiſh writers, but ſupplied ſome of our beſt poets with materials for their ſublime compoſitions. Spencer, in the ſecond book of his Faerie Queene, has given,

"A chronicle of Briton kings,
"From Brute to Arthur's rayne;

in which he adorns the genealogy with poetical images, and introduces it with a ſublime addreſs to queen Elizabeth, who was proud of tracing her deſcent from the Britiſh line:

"Thy name, O ſoveraine Queene, thy realme and race,
"From this renowmed prince derived arre,
"Who mightily upheld that royal mace,
"Which now thou bear'ſt, to thee deſcended farre
"From mighty kings and conquerours in warre,
"Thy fathers and grandfathers of old,
"Whoſe noble deeds above the northerne ſtarre
"Immortall fame for ever hath enroll'd:
"As in that *old man's booke* they were in order told."

In this hiſtorical romance is alſo to be found, the affecting hiſtory of Leir, king of Britain, the eleventh in ſucceſſion after Brutus, who divided his kingdom between Gonorilla and Regan his two elder daughters, and diſinherited his youngeſt daughter Cordeilla. Being ungratefully treated by his elder daughters, he was reſtored to the crown by Cordeilla, who eſpouſed Aganippus king of the Franks: from this account the divine bard of Avon ſelected his incomparable tragedy of King Lear; but improved the pathos by making the death of Cordeilla (which name he ſoftened, after the example of Spenſer, into Cordelia) precede that of Lear, while in the original ſtory, the aged father is reſtored to his kingdom, and ſurvived by Cordeilla.

Milton ſeems to have been particularly fond of Geoffrey's tales, to which he was indebted for the beautiful fiction of Sabrina in the maſk of Comus. In his youth he

even formed the design of making the early period of the British history, from Brutus to Arthur, the subject of an epic poem. The poetical language of Milton was particularly suited to this species of romance; he would have exalted the legends of Geoffrey, and enriched with the finest imagery, the incantations and prophecies of Merlin, the heroic deeds of Vortimer, Aurelius, and Uther Pendragon;

"and what resounds,
"In fable or romance of Uther's son,
"Begirt with British and Armoric knights."

But we have no reason to regret that in his more mature age he relinquished this design, and composed an epic poem on a still more sublime plan:

"Of man's first disobedience, and the fruit
"Of that forbidden tree, whose mortal taste
"Brought death into the world, and all our woe,
"With loss of Eden."——

Dryden composed a dramatic opera on the subject of king Arthur, or the British Worthy, whom he has finely described;

"in battle brave——
"But still serene in all the stormy war,
"Like heaven above the clouds; and after fight
"As merciful and kind to vanquished foe
"As a forgiving God."

He intended also to write an epic poem, either on the subject of Arthur, or of the Black Prince. This great author, who possessed the true taste of poetry, and excelled in "that fairy kind of writing which depends upon the force of imagination," proposed to introduce as supernatural agents, the guardian angels of kingdoms, or tutelary genii, and thus accommodate to christian use the philosophy of Plato.

At one period of his life, Pope resolved to undertake what Milton and Dryden relinquished. He even drew a plan of an epic poem on the subject of Brutus and the establishment of the British monarchy, which is published by Ruffhead; it is extensive and diversified, and capable of great effect if wrought with fancy, spirit and dignity. Although the poetical powers of Pope were inferior to those of Milton and Dryden; yet he has given evident proof that he possessed the genius of invention, by the beautiful machinery of the sylphs and gnomes in the Rape of the Lock. I feel much regret that Dryden or Pope did not proceed in their intended work, as we have no epic poem in our language on any great subject of national history, except the miserable productions of Blackmore.

Character of Henry V. *King of England. From the same.*

MONMOUTH castle was a favourite residence of John of Gaunt and of his son Henry of Bolingbroke, afterwards Henry the fourth; but was more highly distinguished as the birth-place of the hero of Agincourt, who from that circumstance was styled Henry of Monmouth.

He was born in 1387, and seems to have passed his infancy in Monmouthshire. During the short period

riod which elapſed between his father's baniſhment and acceſſion to the throne, he was educated in the court of his couſin Richard the ſecond, who treated him with the warmeſt marks of affection. According to a contemporary hiſtorian, the monarch was captivated with his ſpirit and underſtanding, frequently pointed him out, and prophetically obſerved, "We have heard that our England will produce a prince called Henry, who will be renowned for dignity of manners, ſplendour of action, and military ſkill, and we conclude infallibly that this is the Henry thus predicted."

Soon after the acceſſion of his father, Henry ſtudied at Oxford, under his uncle cardinal Beaufort, chancellor of that univerſity, and, as Stow affirms, "delighted in ſongs, meetors, and muſical inſtruments." From Speed we may alſo learn, that "he had in great veneration ſuch as excelled in virtue or learning, particularly Thomas Rodban, of Merton college, a great aſtronomer, whom he afterwards preferred to the biſhoprick of St. David's; and John Carpenter of Oriel, a learned doctor in theology, whom he advanced to the ſee of Worceſter."

Henry is thus deſcribed by Stowe, on the authority of Thomas de Elmham: "This prince exceeded the mean ſtature of men, he was beautiful of viſage, his neck long, body ſlender and leane, and his bones ſmall; nevertheleſſe he was of marvellous great ſtrength, and paſſing ſwift in running, inſomuch that he with two other of his lords, without hounds, bow, or other engine, would take a wilde bucke or doe in a large parke."

At a very early age he was initiated in the uſe of arms, and before he attained the age of ſixteen, gave, at the memorable battle of Shrewſbury, a noble ſpecimen of heroic intrepidity, which augured his future renown. In the midſt of the battle, the king, beſet by a powerful corps of the enemy, was in imminent danger; young Henry flew to his aſſiſtance, ruſhed into the adverſe ranks, and was wounded dangerouſly in the face with an arrow. Being exhorted by his followers to retire, he refuſed to ſet an example of flight; "convey me," he exclaimed, "I exhort you, into the midſt of the enemy, that I may ſay to my companions in arms, follow me, your leader, into the combat; I had rather expoſe myſelf to the danger of fortune, than by flying bring ignominy on the military profeſſion." He then precipitated himſelf into the ranks of the enemy; the rebels were diſperſed, their chief fell in the field of battle, and the king obtained the victory by means of his ſon.

He afterwards ſignalized himſelf at the head of the army againſt the followers of Owen Glendower, whom he defeated in various encounters, and finally quelled the rebellion of that lawleſs chief. He no leſs diſtinguiſhed himſelf againſt the Scots, made a ſucceſsful inroad into their country, compelled them to offer terms of peace, took hoſtages for their fidelity, and returned to London loaded with booty.

Theſe repeated ſucceſſes, aided by courteſy and condeſcenſion, increaſed his popularity, and excited the jealouſy of his ſuſpicious father, who excluded him from his councils,

cils, and placed his principal confidence in his other ſons. Being thus reduced to a ſtate of idleneſs, the active ſpirit of the young prince broke out into exceſſes unbecoming his birth, and injurious to his reputation; but on his acceſſion to the throne, his conduct proved that theſe exceſſes were the frolics of youth, and not the effects of a vicious mind.

Sudden and extraordinary converſions from vice to virtue are as uncommon as they are uſually temporary; yet the inſtantaneous tranſition of Henry the Fifth from his former licentiouſneſs to a ſober and dignified conduct, is too well authenticated to admit of the ſmalleſt doubt.

The account given by a contemporary writer of the cauſes which effected this change is ſo ſimple and natural, as to carry internal conviction of truth. During the illneſs of Henry the Fourth, the prince attended him with filial affection: as he ſtood near his bed with the prieſt, who was preparing the Sacrament, the king, whoſe eyes were dim with age, enquired what the prieſt was doing? "Sir," replied the prince, "he has juſt conſecrated the body of our Lord Jeſus Chriſt; I beſeech you devoutly to adore him, under whom kings reign, and princes have dominion." The king inſtantly lifted up his hands, and praying fervently, ſaid, "My ſon approach and kiſs me;" and when he had kiſſed him, he, with a trembling voice, which announced his approaching diſſolution, ſaid, "The bleſſing, my ſon, which Iſaac gave to his ſon Jacob fall upon you, and may God grant you a good and proſperous reign." The prince, obſerving his father in the agonies of death, retired with grief and anguiſh into a ſmall chapel; throwing himſelf on his knees, and ſtriking his breaſt, with tears of contrition he acknowledged his paſt miſconduct, declared his reſolution of future amendment, and called upon God to pardon his offences.

In this manner he paſſed the whole day, and at night repaired ſecretly to a prieſt, remarkable for his ſanctity, confeſſed his ſins, received abſolution, and, to uſe the figurative language of the biographer, returned to his palace, having thrown off the garment of vice, and put on the robe of righteouſneſs. With a view to ſtrengthen his reſolution, he neither eat or drank at a ſumptuous entertainment which he gave in Weſtminſter-hall ſoon after his coronation, and continued his faſt three days and nights; during which time he never retired to reſt, but with faſting, vigils, and prayers, fervently implored the divine aſſiſtance in the government of his kingdom.

After the ceremony of his coronation, he received the Sacrament with ſo much devotion and humility, that ſeveral of the ſpectators were affected even unto tears: nor was his reſolution of amendment a tranſitory fit of enthuſiaſm; his repentance produced a ſuitable practice, and his conduct did not belie his profeſſions.

The firſt public proof which he gave of this change in his ſentiments and behaviour was the diſmiſſion of his diſſolute companions. "After his coronation," ſays Stowe, "he called unto him all thoſe young lords and gentlemen, that were the followers of his young

acts,

acts, to every one of whom he gave rich and bounteous gifts, and then commanded that as many as would change their manners as hee intended to doe, ſhould abide with him in his court; and to all that would perſevere in their former light converſation, he gave expreſſe commandment, upon paine of their heads, never after that day to come into his preſence."

Henry the Fifth is uſually celebrated only for his military proweſs, while the milder qualities of juſtice and humanity, for which he was no leſs conſpicuous, are loſt in the ſplendour of his victorious carcer. He condemned the depoſition and impriſonment of Richard, and treated all concerned in his murder as traitors; as an atonement for his father's crimes, and to evince his own reſpect to Richard's memory, he ordered his corpſe to be magnificently interred in Weſtminſter Abbey among his royal anceſtors; and attended the funeral, declaring, "that he mourned as truly for him as if he had been his natural father."

Although conſcious that Edmund, Earl of March, was rightful heir to the crown; yet he releaſed him from his confinement, and treated him with ſo much kindneſs, that the young nobleman forgot his prior title, and gratefully ſerved his royal benefactor with inviolable attachment. Compaſſionating the misfortunes of the Percys, he recalled the ſon and heir of Hotſpur from Scotland, and reinveſted him with the honours and eſtates of his anceſtors.

He was no leſs remarkable for juſtice: "Every day after dinner," ſays Speed, "for the ſpace of an houre, his cuſtom was to leane on a cuſhion ſet by his cupbord, and there he himſelfe received petitions of the oppreſſed, which, with great equitie, he did redreſſe."

Memoirs of Valentine Morris, *Eſq.*
From the ſame.

VALENTINE Morris was born in 1727, and at an early period inherited conſiderable property, principally ſituated in the iſland of Antigua. About 1752, he eſpouſed Miſs Mary Mordant, niece of Lord Peterborough, a lady of great beauty and accompliſhments, but without fortune, and fixed his reſidence at Piercefield.

Before this period Piercefield was unknown and unfrequented; the charms of the ſituation were not duly appreciated, and the grounds ſolely employed for the purpoſes of agriculture, or covered with inacceſſible foreſts. Morris was enraptured with the romantic beauties of the ſcenery, carried walks through the foreſts, opened the fineſt points of view, and with exquiſite taſte adapted his improvements to the genius of the place, leaving—

"The negligence of Nature, wide and wild."

He lived in a ſtyle of princely rather than private magnificence, and treated thoſe whom curioſity drew to the ſcenes of Piercefield, with a liberal but oſtentatious proſuſion; ſervants out of livery conſtantly attended without being permitted to receive any gratuity; collations were indiſcriminately offered to the numerous viſitors, and even his hot-houſe, cellar, and larder,

larder, were open to the innkeeper of Chepſtow for the accommodation of travellers.

After a reſidence of ſeveral years his circumſtances became involved, and he was compelled to offer Piercefield for ſale. This embarraſſment is generally imputed to the expences of a conteſted election in 1771, for the county of Monmouth, with John Morgan, Eſq. of Tredegar; but the real cauſes were derived from a variety of circumſtances, an expenſive ſtyle of living, numerous benefactions, imprudent management of his Weſt India eſtates, a ſucceſſion of unfavourable ſeaſons in the iſland of Antigua, inattention to his accounts, but, above all, an unfortunate propenſity to gaming. Being diſappointed in finding a purchaſer for Piercefield, he contracted his expences into a narrower ſcale, but it was too late, and his embarraſſments increaſing, he was compelled to retire to his Weſt-India poſſeſſions.

Before his final departure from England he indulged himſelf with bidding adieu to Piercefield. In company with a friend, he ſurveyed his own creation, for the laſt time, with apparent compoſure, and manly reſignation. On his return to Chepſtow he was ſurrounded by the poor, who, throwing themſelves on their knees, thanked him for numerous inſtances of his bounty, and implored the bleſſing of heaven on their generous benefactor. Even this affecting ſpectacle he bore with ſilent fortitude, and entered the chaiſe, which conveyed him to London. But he had no ſooner reached the Gloceſterſhire ſide of the bridge, than his ear was ſtruck with a mournful peal of bells, muffled, as is uſual on the loſs of departed friends; deeply affected with this mark of eſteem and regret, he could no longer controul his emotions, and burſt into tears.

On his return to the Weſt-Indies he was appointed Lieutenant-Governor of St. Vincent's, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf with ſo much zeal and activity in promoting the cultivation of the iſland, where he almoſt raiſed another Piercefield, that he was ſoon after nominated Governor in Chief; in this ſituation he conſiderably improved his fortune, and had almoſt repaired his loſſes, when the iſland, for the defence of which he advanced ſeveral ſums, was taken by the French. In vain he applied to government for the payment of his expences and arrears; the want of proper vouchers, diſagreement with the natives and officers, the blame incurred from a precipitate capitulation, and a variety of other unfortunate events, protracted the diſcharge of the debt.

Thus circumſtanced, he returned to England for the purpoſe of ſeeking redreſs, but with ſmall hopes of ſucceſs, for he obſerved to a friend that he ſhould paſs the winter in the King's Bench Priſon. This prediction was too well fulfilled; he was arreſted ſoon after his arrival, and underwent a confinement of ſeven years.

During his impriſonment he publiſhed a juſtification of his adminiſtration at St. Vincent's, which does him honour as a governor, a ſoldier, and a patriot; yet, from deaths, and frequent changes of miniſtry, his accounts were never audited or ſettled, though his demands were great and juſt; for a

treaſury

treasury warrant for 5,000*l.* dated June 28, 1794, was issued to his representatives as part of the balance.

He was reduced to the greatest distress; his books and all his moveables were exposed to sale; even the gleanings of Mrs. Morris's toilet were sold to purchase bread; and his friend, Mr. Thicknesse, who shared his confinement, shared with him the scanty pittance which he possessed to supply his necessities. His calamities were aggravated by the situation of his amiable wife, who sunk under this load of distress, and became insane.

At length, in 1786, he obtained his liberty, and Lord North, compassionating his distress, expressed an inclination to redeem the justice of his former administrations, and to liquidate his arrears. But public business, and new delays interposing, protracted the settlement of his affairs. In the midst of these disappointments he died at the house of his brother-in-law, Mr. Wilmot, in Bloomsbury-square, on the 26th of August, 1789.

His friend, Mr. Thicknesse, who knew him well, and who equally shared his prosperity and misfortunes, has thus delineated his character:—

"That he was a man of superior taste, and the most amiable manners, all who knew him know; and his natural capacity, if it was not in the first rank, was very far from being of an inferior class; but, among his misfortunes, for so it must be considered, at least as relating to this world, he possessed that goodness of heart to the last, which led him to judge of mankind, not from what he had found them, but from what he felt in himself. The leading feature in his character was a zeal which approached to quixotism, whether it was employed in the service of his country, his friend, or the distressed. He has, indeed, been represented as too much under the influence of a vain ostentation; and the generosity, the urbanity, and the charities of his life, have been imputed to that principle; but by whom? by those who envied his prosperity, and sought to frame an excuse for their ingratitude in his adversity; what other vanity governed his character, than that which is the main spring of human excellence, we know not; but this we know and repeat, that he was a most faithful servant of his country; that he possessed an eminent capacity for friendship; that he never failed to assist distress when he could, and that he did assist when he ought not. He shared his good things in the day of his fortune with the friends of his prosperity, and he divided the pittance that remained in the hour of distress with the companions of his adversity. He had his failings, which disasters might increase, and the insolent rigour of affected virtue may condemn. That his passions might sometimes overcome his morality, and that the benevolence of his heart might too often extinguish his prudence, are circumstances which it is the duty of friendship to lament. But the best of us are the children of infirmity; and the virtues of Valentine Morris were sufficient, in the opinion of those who knew him best, to counterbalance all his errors."

During

During his reſidence at Pierce-field, Valentine Morris diſtinguiſhed himſelf by many acts of public utility, and his name is ſtill endeared to the county for promoting the turnpike bill, the ſucceſs of which was principally owing to his exertions.

The inhabitants of Chepſtow idoliſe his memory, and relate numerous inſtances of his benevolence with a warmth of affection which borders on enthuſiaſm.

Memoirs of the Life of Froiſſart. *Tranſlated from the French of* M. de la Curne de St. Pelaye. *By* Thomas Johnes, *Eſq.* M. P.

JOHN Froiſſart, prieſt, canon, and treaſurer of the collegiate church of Chimay, Hiſtorian and Poet, was born in Valenciennes, a town in Haynault, about the year 1337.

However attentive he may have been to inform us of the minuteſt particulars of his life, he does not ſay one word relative to his family. One can only form a conjecture from a paſſage in his poems, that his father's name was Thomas, and that he was a painter of arms.

His infancy announced what he would one day be; he early manifeſted that eager and inquiſitive mind, which, during the courſe of his life, never allowed him to remain long attached to the ſame occupations, and in the ſame place.

The different games ſuitable to that age, of which he gives us a picture equally curious and amuſing, kept up in his mind a fund of natural diſſipation, which, during his early ſtudies, tried the patience and exerciſed the ſeverity of his maſters.

He loved hunting, muſic, aſſemblies, feaſts, dancing, dreſs, good living, wine, and women: all theſe taſtes, which almoſt all ſhowed themſelves from twelve years of age, being confirmed by habitude, were continued even to his old age, and perhaps never left him. The mind and heart of Froiſſart being not yet ſufficiently occupied, his love for hiſtory filled up that void, which his paſſion for pleaſure left, and became to him an inexhauſtible ſource of amuſement.

He had but juſt left ſchool, and was ſcarcely twenty years old, when, at the entreaty of his dear lord and maſter, Sir Robert de Namur, knight, Lord of Beaufort, he undertook to write the hiſtory of the wars of his own time, more particularly of thoſe which enſued after the battle of Poitiers. Four years afterwards, having gone to England, he preſented part of this hiſtory to Queen Philippa, of Haynault, the wife of Edward the Third. However young he might then be, he had already travelled into the moſt diſtant provinces of France. The object of his viſit to England was to tear himſelf from the pains of an attachment which had tormented him for a long time. This paſſion took poſſeſſion of his heart from infancy; it laſted ten years, and ſparks of it were again rekindled in a more advanced age, in ſpite of his bald head and white hairs.

Froiſſart had been early attached to romances; that of Cleomades was the firſt inſtrument love made uſe of to captivate him. He found it in the hands of a young maiden who was reading it, and who, invited

vited him to read it with her; he readily conſented, for ſuch complaiſances coſt little. There was ſoon formed between them a literary connexion. Froiſſart lent her the romance of the *Baillon d'Amours*, and took the opportunity in ſending it to her, to ſlip into it a ballad, in which he firſt ſpoke of his love. This ſpark of love became a flame which nothing could extinguiſh; and Froiſſart having experienced all that agitation which a firſt paſſion inſpires, was almoſt reduced to deſpair on hearing that his miſtreſs was on the point of being married; his exceſſive grief overwhelmed him, and cauſed him a fit of illneſs which laſted for three months. At laſt he took the reſolution to travel to diſſipate his chagrin, and to recover his health. As he travelled with a large company, he was forced to be attentive to himſelf in order to hide his trouble. After two days journey, during which he had never ceaſed making verſes in honour of his miſtreſs, he arrived at a town, which I believe to be Calais, where he embarked. During his paſſage the weather was ſo tempeſtuous as to threaten an immediate wreck of the veſſel: this, however, was not capable of ſuſpending the application with which he was working to finiſh a rondeau to the honour of his love. The weather became calm, and the rondeau was completed, when he found himſelf on a coaſt, where, as he ſays, *they love war better than peace, and where ſtrangers are very well received.* He ſpeaks of England, the reception they gave him, the amuſements they procured him in the ſocieties of "Lords, Ladies, and Damſels," and the careſſes they loaded him with: but nothing was able to calm the melancholy which overwhelmed him; ſo that, not being able longer to ſupport the pangs of abſence, he reſolved to return nearer the lady of his heart.

A lady, Queen Philippa, of Haynault, who detained him in England, learnt from a virelay, which he preſented to her, the cauſe of his trouble; ſhe took compaſſion on him by ordering him to go back to his own country, on condition however of his promiſe to return, and furniſhed him with money and horſes to perform the journey.

Love ſoon conducted him to the lady of his affections. Froiſſart let no opportunity ſlip of being in the ſame places where ſhe might be, and of converſing with her. We have before ſeen that ſhe was of ſuch high birth, that "Kings and Emperors might have ſought her;" theſe words taken literally are only ſuitable for a perſon of blood royal, or to the iſſue of a ſovereign prince; but how can we connect the idea of ſuch high birth with the detail he gives us of the ſecret converſations, the amuſements, and aſſemblies, which he was at liberty to partake of by day or night? And, as if theſe traits were not ſufficient to make her known at the time he wrote, he ſeems to have wiſhed to have more clearly pointed her out by the name of Anne, in the enigmatical verſes which make part of his manuſcript poems. One may preſume that this love, ſo paſſionate and ſo tender, had the uſual fate of almoſt every paſſion.

Froiſſart ſpeaks in one of his rondeaus of another lady whom he had

had loved, and whose name, composed of five letters, was to be found in that of Polixena: this may be an Alix, which was formerly written Aelix. There is reason to believe that he had a third flame, called Margaret, and that it is her whom he indirectly celebrates in a poem under the title, and in honour of the flower which bears her name.

Perhaps he sought in these episodical amours some remedy for a passion, which, according to his own account, was unfortunate. At least we know that, in despair for the little success which had attended all his assiduities and attentions to his first mistress, he took the resolution of again absenting himself from her. This absence was longer than the preceding one; he returned to England, and attached himself to the service of Queen Philippa. This princess, afterwards sister to the Countess of Namur, wife of Robert, to whom Froissart seems to have been a servant, saw always with pleasure her countrymen from Haynault. She loved letters, the college which she founded, and which at this day is known at Oxford under the name of Queen's College, is an illustrious monument of the protection she granted to them; Froissart therefore united all the titles which could merit the affection of Queen Philippa.

The history which he presented to her, as I have before mentioned, whether at his first journey, or at his second, (for it is not possible to decide which of the two) was very well received, and probably gained him the title of clerk (that is to say, secretary or writer) of the chamber of this princess, which he was in possession of from 1361.

The Queen of England frequently amused herself by making Froissart compose amorous ditties; but this occupation must be considered solely as a relaxation that no way impeded more serious works, since, during the five years he was attached to the service of this princess, he travelled at her expence to various parts of Europe; the object of which seems to be a research after whatever might enrich his history.

Of all the particulars of Froissart's life during his residence in England, we only know that he was present at the separation of the King and Queen in 1361, with their son, the Prince of Wales, and the Princess, his lady, who were going to take possession of the government of Aquitaine; and that he was between Eltham and Westminster in the year 1363, when King John passed on his return to England.

There is in his poems a pastoral, which seems to allude only to that event. With regard to his travels, during the time he was attached to the service of the Queen, he employed six months in Scotland, and penetrated as far as the Highlands. He travelled on horseback, with his portmanteau behind him, and followed by a greyhound.

The King of Scotland, and many lords, whose names he has preserved to us, treated him so handsomely, that he could have wished to have returned thither.

William, Earl of Douglas, lodged him, during fifteen days, in his castle at Dalkeith, five miles from Edinburgh. We are ignorant of the

the date of this journey; and of another, which he made into North Wales, that I believe muſt have been about the ſame time.

He was in France, at Melun ſur Seine, about the 20th of April, 1366; perhaps private reaſons might have led him to take that road to Bourdeaux, where he was on All Saints Day of that year, when the Princeſs of Wales was brought to bed of a ſon, who was afterwards Richard the Second. The Prince of Wales ſetting out a few days afterwards for the war in Spain, Froiſſart accompanied him to Dax, where the prince reſided ſome time. He had expected to have attended him during the continuance of this grand expedition; but the prince would not permit him to go farther, and ſhortly after ſent him back to the Queen, his mother.

Froiſſart could not have made any long ſtay in England, ſince in the following year he was at different Italian Courts. It was this ſame year, that is to ſay, 1368, that Lionel, Duke of Clarence, ſon of the King of England, eſpouſed Jolam, daughter of Galeas the Second, Duke of Milan. The marriage was celebrated the 25th of April; and Lionel died the 17th of October following. Froiſſart, who probably was in his ſuite, was preſent at the magnificent reception which Amadeus, Count de Savoye, ſurnamed the Count Verd, gave him on his return: he deſcribes the feaſts on this occaſion, which laſted three days; and he does not forget to tell us that they danced a virelay of his compoſition.

From the Court of Savoy he returned to Milan, where the ſame Count Amadeus gave him a good cottehardie, with twenty florins of gold; from thence he went to Boulogne and Ferrara, where he received forty ducats from the King of Cyprus, and then to Rome.

Inſtead of the modeſt equipage we have ſeen him travel into Scotland with, he was now like a man of importance, travelling on a handſome horſe, attended by a hackney.

It was about this period that Froiſſart experienced a loſs which nothing could recompence: Philippa, of Haynault, Queen of England, who had heaped wealth on him, died in 1369. He compoſed a lay on this melancholy event, of which, however, he was not a witneſs; for he ſays, in another place, that in 1395 it was twenty-ſeven years ſince he had ſeen England. According to ſeveral authors, he wrote the life of Queen Philippa; but this aſſertion is not founded on any proofs.

Independently of the employment of clerk of the chamber to the Queen of England, which Froiſſart had had, he had alſo been of the houſehold of Edward the Third, and even of that of King John of France. As there are ſeveral other princes and lords, of whoſe houſeholds he had been, or whom he calls his lords and maſters, it is proper to obſerve, that by this mode of ſpeech he means not only thoſe princes and lords to whom he had been attached as a ſervant; but likewiſe all thoſe who had made him preſents, or gratifications; or who, having received him in their courts or caſtles, had admitted him to their tables.

Froiſſart, having loſt his patroneſs, Queen Philippa, did not return to England, but went into his own country, where he obtained the living of Leſtines. Of all that he performed during the time he exerciſed his miniſtry, he tells us nothing more than that the tavern-keepers of Leſtines had five hundred francs of money in the ſhort ſpace of time he was their rector. One reads in a manuſcript Journal of the Biſhop of Chartres, Chancellor to the Duke of Anjou, that, according to letters ſealed on the 12th of December, 1381, this prince cauſed to be ſeized fifty-ſix quires of the Chronicle of Froiſſart, rector of the pariſh church of Leſtines, which the hiſtorian had ſent to be illuminated, and then to be forwarded to the King of England, the enemy of France.

Froiſſart attached himſelf afterwards to Winceſlaus de Luxembourg, Duke of Brabant, perhaps in quality of ſecretary, according to the cuſtom of princes and lords in thoſe days, who employed clerks to manage their affairs, and in their correſpondence, and who amuſed them by their knowledge or their wit.

Winceſlaus had a taſte for poetry: he had made by Froiſſart a collection of his ſongs, his rondeaus, and virelays, who, adding ſome of his own pieces to thoſe of the prince, formed a ſort of romance, under the title of Meliador, or the Knight of the Sun; but the duke did not live ſufficiently long to ſee the completion of the work, for he died 1384.

Almoſt immediately after this event, Froiſſart found another patron: he was made clerk of the chapel to Guy, Count de Bois; and he was not long in teſtifying his gratitude to his new patron, by a paſtoral on the betrothing of Louis, Count de Dunois, ſon of Guy, with Mary, daughter of the Duke of Berry. Two years after the ſolemnization of this marriage at Bourges, he celebrated it in a ſort of Epithalamium, ſufficiently ingenious for thoſe times, intitled "The Temple of Honour."

He paſſed the years 1385, 1386, and 1387, ſometimes in the Blaiſois, ſometimes in Touraine; but the Count de Blois having engaged him to continue the courſe of his hiſtory, which he had left unfiniſhed, he determined in 1388 to take advantage of the peace which was juſt concluded, to viſit the court of Gaſton Phœbus, Count de Foix and de Béarn, in order to gain full information in whatever related to foreign countries, and the more diſtant provinces of the kingdom, where he knew that a great number of warriors ſignalized themſelves daily by the moſt gallant actions.

His age and his health ſtill allowed him to bear great fatigue; his memory was ſufficiently ſtrong to retain whatever he ſhould hear, and his judgment clear enough to point out to him the uſe he ſhould make of it.

He ſet out with letters of recommendation from the Count de Blois to Gaſton Phœbus, and took the road through Avignon. One of his paſtorals informs us, that he reſided in the environs of an abbey, ſituated between Lunee and Montpelier, and that he gained the affections of a young perſon who bewailed his departure. In the ſame poem he tells us, that he carried with him four greyhounds, as a preſent

preſent to the Count de Foix. Gaſton was paſſionately fond of dogs, and had upwards of ſixteen hundred always with him. There exiſts a treatiſe written by him on hunting, which is preſerved in manuſcript in ſeveral libraries, and which was printed in 1520.

Froiſſart went from Carcaſſonne to Pamies, of which he gives an agreeable deſcription; he remained there for three days waiting for the chance of meeting ſome perſon with whom he might travel into Béarn. He was fortunate enough to meet with a knight from the country of Foix, who was returning thither from Avignon, and they journied together.

Sir Eſpaing du Lyon, the name of the knight, was a man of high diſtinction; he had conſiderable commands, and was employed all his life in negociations as delicate as they were important. The two travellers agreed perfectly well together; the knight, who had ſerved in all the wars in Gaſcony, was equally deſirous to learn every thing which related to thoſe that Froiſſart was acquainted with; and Froiſſart, more in a ſituation to ſatisfy him than any one, was not leſs curious to be informed of thoſe events in which the knight had borne a part: they mutually communicated all they knew, with a reciprocal complaiſance. They rode ſide by ſide, and frequently a foot's pace: their whole journey was paſſed in converſations, by which they mutually inſtructed each other.

Towns, caſtles, ruins, plains, heights, valleys, defiles, and every thing awakened the curioſity of Froiſſart, and recalled to the memory of the Lord Eſpaing du Lyon the different actions which had there paſſed under his eyes, or which he had heard related by thoſe who had been engaged in them.

The hiſtorian too exact in the recital which he gives us of theſe converſations, relates even the exclamations by which he teſtified his gratitude to the knight for all the intereſting intelligence he was ſo good to give him.

If they arrived at a town before ſunſet, they profited of the remnant of the day to examine the out-works of the place, or to obſerve thoſe parts of it which had ſuffered from aſſaults. On their return to the inn, they continued the ſame converſations, either between themſelves or with other knights and ſquires, who might be lodged there; and Froiſſart never went to bed until he had put in writing every particular he had heard.

After a journey of ſix days, they arrived at Ortez. This town, one of the moſt conſiderable in Béarn, was the ordinary reſidence of Gaſton, Count de Foix, and Viſcount de Béarn, ſurnamed Phœbus, on account of his beauty. Froiſſart could not have choſen a court more ſuitable to his views. The Count de Foix, at the age of fifty-nine, was the moſt vigorous, the handſomeſt, and beſt made man of that period. Adroit at all exerciſes, valorous, an accompliſhed captain, noble and magnificent; he never ſuffered any warrior who waited on him to depart without carrying with him proofs of his liberality: his caſtle was the rendezvous of all thoſe brave captains who had diſtinguiſhed themſelves in combats, or in tournaments.

Their converſations ſolely ran on attacks of places, ſurprizes, ſieges, aſſaults, ſkirmiſhes, and battles. Their amuſements were games of addreſs and force; tilts, tournaments, and huntings, more laborious, and almoſt as dangerous as war itſelf.

The Count de Foix having learnt from Sir Eſpaing du Lyon the arrival of Froiſſart, who was well known at the court of Ortez by the two firſt volumes of his Chronicle, ſent to ſeek for him at the houſe of one of his eſquires, who had received and lodged him; and, ſeeing him at a diſtance, ſaid to him, ſmiling, and in good French, "That he was perfectly well acquainted with him, although he had never before ſeen him; but that he had heard much talk about him, and he retained him in his houſehold."

This expreſſion, as I have before ſaid, does not mean that Froiſſart was lodged in the caſtle, but only that his expences were defrayed by the count during the winter he paſſed at his court. His moſt uſual occupation, in that time, was to amuſe Gaſton, after his ſupper, by reading to him the romance of Meliador, which he had brought with him. Every evening he repaired to the caſtle at midnight, which was the hour the count ſat down to table, and none dared to interrupt the reading. Gaſton himſelf, who liſtened with the greateſt attention, only ſpoke to aſk queſtions concerning the book; and he never ſent him away before he had made him drink all the wine which had remained on the table from his own bottle.

Sometimes this prince took pleaſure to inform him of thoſe particulars of the wars in which he had diſtinguiſhed himſelf. Froiſſart did not gain leſs information from his frequent converſations with thoſe knights and eſquires whom he found aſſembled at Ortez; more eſpecially from the knights of Arragon, and of England, attached to the houſehold of the Duke of Lancaſter, who at that time reſided at Bourdeaux. They related to him all they knew of the battles of the Kings John of Caſtile, and Denys of Portugal, and their allies. Among others, the famous Baſtot de Maulion, in giving him the hiſtory of his own life, told him alſo that of almoſt all the wars which had happened in the different provinces of France, and even in Spain, from the time of the battle of Poitiers, at which period he firſt bore arms.

Although he applied himſelf, without relaxation, in collecting hiſtorical memoirs, Froiſſart gave however ſome moments to poeſy. We have a paſtoral by him, which he ſeems to have compoſed in the county of Foix, in honour of Gaſton Phœbus.

After a tolerable long reſidence at the court of Ortez, Froiſſart began to think of his departure. He was detained by Gaſton, who gave him hopes that an opportunity would ſoon offer for him to travel in good company. The marriage of the Counteſs of Boulogne, a relation of the count, having been concluded with the Duke de Berry, the young bride was conducted from Ortez to Morlas, where the equipages of the duke, her huſband, were waiting for her. He ſet out in her ſuite, after having received proofs of the generoſity of Gaſton, who warmly preſſed him to return

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to him. He accompanied the princeſs to Avignon, and the remainder of the road which ſhe took acroſs the Lyonnois, la Breſſe, le Forés, and the Bourbonnois, as far as Riom, in Auvergne.

The ſtay at Avignon was unfortunate to Froiſſart; they robbed him. This melancholy adventure was the ſubject of a long poem, in which he introduces ſeveral incidents of his life, and which I have made uſe of in this memoir.

One ſees, by this piece, that the deſire to viſit the tomb of the Cardinal de Luxembourg, who died in odour of ſanctity, was not the ſole motive which had induced him to repaſs through Avignon in the ſuite of the young princeſs; but that he was charged with a private commiſſion from the Lord de Couci. He might, as he ſays, have endeavoured to ſeek for redreſs for the loſs of his money by ſoliciting a benefice; but this reſource was not to his taſte. He laid greater ſtreſs on the generoſity of the Lord de la Riviere, and the Count de Sancerre, who accompanied the Ducheſs de Berry, and on that of the Viſcount d'Aſci. He paints himſelf, in this poem, as a man of much expence; beſides the revenue of the living of Leſtines, which was conſiderable, he had received, ſince he was twenty-five years old, two thouſand francs, of which nothing remained. The compoſition of his work had coſt him ſeven hundred francs; but he regretted not this expence, for, as he ſays, "I have compoſed many a hiſtory which will be ſpoken of by poſterity." The remainder was ſpent among the tavern-keepers at Leſtines, and in his travels, which he always performed with a good equipage, well mounted, well dreſſed, and living well wherever he went.

Froiſſart had been preſent at all the feaſts which were given on the marriage of the Duke of Berry: celebrated the eve of Whit-ſunday at Riom, in Auvergne. He compoſed a paſtoral for the morrow of the nuptials; then, returning to France with the Lord de la Riviere, he went to Paris. His natural activity, and his ardour for information, with which he was inceſſantly occupied, did not permit him to remain there long. We have ſeen him in ſix months go from the Blaiſois to Avignon, then to the county of Foix, from whence he returned again to Avignon, and croſs Auvergne to go to Paris. One ſees him in leſs than two years ſucceſſively in the Cambreſis, in Haynault, Holland, Picardy, and a ſecond time in Paris, at the extremity of Languedoc; then again at Paris, and at Valenciennes; from thence to Bruges, Sluys, in Zealand, and at laſt in his own country.

He accompanied into the Cambreſis the Lord de Coucy to the caſtle of Crevecœur, which the king had juſt given to him. He relates to him all he had ſeen, and learns from him the different particulars of the negociations between France and England.

After having ſtaid fifteen days in his own country, he paſſed a month in Holland with the Count de Blois, entertaining him with the hiſtory of his travels. He then goes to Lelinghen to learn the details of the negociation for peace, which were carried on at that place. He is preſent at the

magnificent entry which Isabella de Beviere makes into Paris. The exactness with which he describes the ceremonies observed between the Pope and Charles the Sixth, at Avignon, seems to prove he was an eye-witness of their meeting: this is the more probable, because it is certain that Charles the Sixth went from Avignon to Toulouse to receive the homage of the Count de Foix; when Froissart was present, and heard their conversation.

Nothing of novelty passed as one sees but Froissart wished to be a spectator of; feasts, tournaments, conferences for peace, interviews for princes, their entries, nothing escaped his curiosity. It appears, that at the beginning of the year 1390 he returned to his own country, and that he was solely occupied in the continuation of his history, and in compleating it, from the intelligence he had amassed from all parts with so much labour and fatigue. However, what he had learnt relative to the war in Spain did not satisfy him; he felt a scruple at only having heard one side; that is to say, the Gascons and Spaniards, who had been attached to the King of Castille. It was the duty of an exact and judicious historian to know also what the Portuguese had to say on this subject; and, on the information he had, that numbers of that nation were to be found at Bruges, he went thither.

Fortune served him beyond his hopes; and the enthusiasm with which he speaks of it, paints the ardour with which he was desirous of a perfect knowledge of facts. On his arrival he learnt that a Portugueze knight, "a valiant and wise man, and of the council of the King of Portugal," whose name was Juan Fernando Portelet, had lately come to Middleburgh, in Zealand.

Portelet, who was on his road to Prussia to join in the war against the infidels, had been present in all the wars of Portugal. Froissart immediately sets out, in company with a Portugueze, a friend of the knight; goes to Sluys, embarks, and arrives at Middleburgh, where his fellow-traveller presents him to Portelet.

This knight, "gracious, amiable, and easy of access," relates to him, during the six days they passed together, every thing that had been done in Portugal and Spain, from the death of King Ferdinand until his departure from Portugal. Froissart equally pleased with the recitals of Portelet, as with his politeness, took leave of him, and returned home; where, having arranged all the information he had acquired in his various travels, he composed a new book, which makes the third of his history.

The passage from whence these particulars are taken adds, that Froissart, on quitting Zealand, and before his return to his own country, went once more to Rome. Although in this instance the printed copies are conformable to the manuscripts, this journey, of which no other mention is made, seems to me quite improbable. Denys Sauvage assures us, in a marginal note, that, instead of Rome, one should read Bruges, Sluys, or Valenciennes: it is much more natural to read Damme, a

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port in the neighbourhood of Sluys, where one has ſeen that the hiſtorian embarked.

One cannot ſay how long Froiſſart remained in Haynault; one only knows that he was again in Paris 1392, at the time when the Conſtable de Cliſſon was aſſaſſinated by Peter de Craon; and at Abbeville towards the end of that ſame year, or at the beginning of the next, during the conferences which were held there by the plenipotentiaries from France and England, when they at laſt eſtabliſhed a truce for four years.

From the year 1378, Froiſſart had obtained from Pope Clement the Seventh the reverſion of a canonſhip at Lille. One ſees in the collection of his poetry, which was completed in 1393, and in a preface, which is to be met with in ſeveral manuſcripts at the beginning of the fourth volume of his hiſtory, compoſed about this time, that he titled himſelf Canon of Lille; but. Clement the Seventh dying in 1394, he gave up his expectations of the reverſion, and began to qualify himſelf canon and treaſurer of the collegial church of Chimay, which he probably owed to the friendſhip of Count de Blois, who reſpected him much; the lordſhip of Chimay being part of the inheritance which the count had fallen in to him in 1381, by the death of John de Chantillon, Count de Blois, the laſt of his brothers.

It was twenty-ſeven years ſince Froiſſart had left England; when, taking the advantage of a truce between the French and Engliſh, he returned thither in 1395, furniſhed with letters of recommendation to the king, and his uncles. From Dover, where he diſembarked, he went to Canterbury, made his offering at the ſhrine of Thomas à Becket; and, from reſpect of the memory of the Prince of Wales, to whom he was perfectly well known, he viſited his magnificent mauſoleum. He ſaw there the young King Richard, who had arrived to return thanks to God for the ſucceſs of his laſt campaign in Ireland; but, in ſpite of the good intentions of the Lord Percy, high ſteward of England, who had promiſed to procure him an audience of the king, he could not be preſented; and was obliged to follow this prince to the different places he viſited, until he came to Leeds caſtle.

This time was not loſt on our hiſtorian; the Engliſh were ſtill full of their expedition to Ireland, and he got them to tell him both their own exploits, and the marvellous things they had ſeen there. Being yet at Leeds caſtle, he preſented to the Duke of York his letters from the Count d'Hainault, and the Count d'Oſtrevant. "Maſter John," ſaid the duke to him, "keep near to our perſon, and to my people; we will ſhew you all love and kindneſs; we are bounden ſo to do, from affection to former times, and to our lady mother, to whom you were attached; we well remember thoſe times." He afterwards introduced him into the king's chamber, who received him with every diſtinguiſhed mark of good-will. Richard took the letters he had been charged with, and, having read them, ſaid, "that ſince he had been of the houſehold of his grandfather, and of the queen, his grandmother, he muſt be ſtill of the houſehold of England."

Froiſſart, however, had not yet been able to preſent to the king the romance of Meliador, which he had brought with him; and Percy adviſed him to wait a more favourable opportunity. Two important objects occupied the mind of Richard; one was his intended marriage with Iſabella of France; the other, the oppoſition of the people of Aquitain to the donation which he had made of this province to his uncle the Duke of York. The prelates and barons had been ſummoned to Eltham, to deliberate on theſe two affairs; and Froiſſart had followed the court. He wrote down regularly all the news of the day, which he had heard in his converſations with the different Engliſh lords; and Richard de Servy, who was of the king's cabinet council, entruſted him, in confidence with every reſolution they had determined upon, begging him only to keep them ſecret until they ſhould be publicly divulged.

At laſt, on the Sunday which followed the holding of this council, the Duke of York, Richard de Serry, and Thomas de Percy, finding the king but little occupied, mentioned to him the romance which Froiſſart had brought with him. The prince aſked to ſee it; and the hiſtorian ſays, "he ſaw it in his chamber, for I had it always with me, and placed it upon his bed. He then opened and looked into it, and was greatly pleaſed; indeed, he ought to have been pleaſed, for it was illuminated, and the writing much ornamented; it was, beſides, bound in crimſon velvet, with ten ſilver-gilt nails, with a golden roſe, in the midſt of two claſps gilt, richly worked with gold roſe-trees. Then," continues Froiſſart, "the king enquired what ſubject it treated of; and I told him, of love. He was delighted with this anſwer, and looked into different parts of the book, and read therein; for he read and ſpoke French perfectly well. He then ordered one of his knights, named Sir Richard Credon, to carry it to his cabinet, and he ſeemed much obliged to me for it."

Henry Caſtede, an Engliſh eſquire, who had been preſent at this converſation, and who knew beſides that Froiſſart was writing his hiſtory, coming up to him enquired if he had been informed of the details of the conqueſt which the king had juſt made in Ireland. Froiſſart pretended to be ignorant of them, in order to engage the eſquire in converſation, who took pleaſure in recounting them to him.

Every thing the hiſtorian heard; among the reſt, the repaſt which the king of England gave in Ireland to the four kings, after having conquered them, excited in him very great regret, for not having come to England a year ſooner, as he was preparing to do, when the news of the death of queen Anne of Luxembourg, Richard's firſt wife, made him alter his intentions: he would not have failed to have gone to Ireland, to have ſeen every thing himſelf; for he was much intereſted in collecting the minuteſt circumſtances of this expedition, in order to entertain "his Lords" the duke of Bavaria and his ſon, who had on Frizeland ſimilar pretenſions to thoſe of the king of England on Ireland.

After three months reſidence in England, Froiſſart took his leave

of the king. This prince, whom he had followed in his different excurſions near London, ordered him to be given, as a mark of his affection, 100 nobles in a goblet of ſilver, gilt, weighing two marcs.

The melancholy end of Richard, which happened in 1399, is related at the end of the fourth volume of Froiſſart's hiſtory, who acquits himſelf moſt gratefully to this prince by the affecting manner with which he laments his misfortunes. At the ſame time he remarks, that in this event he ſaw the accompliſhment of a prediction which had been made on Richard, when he was born at Bourdeaux; and alſo of a prophecy in the romance of Brutus, which pointed out the prince who would dethrone him.

The death of Guy Count de Blois happened ſoon after Froiſſart's return home; he mentions it in his Chronicle under the year 1397. He was then ſixty years of age, and muſt have lived at leaſt four years more, for he relates ſome events of the year 1400. If one was to believe Bodin, and La Poplinier, he would have lived to 1420; but theſe two writers have probably been deceived by theſe words, which begin the laſt chapter of his hiſtory: "*En l'an de grace mil quartre cent ung moins ;*" inſtead of reading "*ung*" as it is written in ſeveral manuſcripts, and in the black letter editions, they muſt have read "*vingt.*"

Another paſſage in Froiſſart may alſo have given riſe to a belief that he lived to about the middle of the fifteenth century. In ſpeaking of the baniſhment of Count de Harcourt, who perſuaded the Engliſh to make a deſcent in Normandy, he ſays, that the melancholy effects of this invaſion, were viſible for more than an hundred years after. Theſe terms muſt not be taken literally; the author who wrote rather as foreſeeing thoſe evils to come which he dreaded, than as being a witneſs of theſe fatal effects.

It is not, however, poſſible to decide in what year he died; it only appears that it was in the month of October, ſince his "*obit*" is indicated in that month in the Obituary of the collegial church of St. Monegunda, at Chimay. According to an old tradition of the country, he was interred in the chapel of St. Anne, in the collegial church; and, indeed, it ſeems very probable that he ſhould end his days in his own chapter.

Memoirs of Angelus Politianus; *from Memoirs, &c. by the* Rev. W. Parr Greſwell.

ANGELUS POLITIANUS was born July 14, 1454, at *Monte Pulciano* in Tuſcany; and from the name of this town, in Latin, Mons Politianus, he derived the ſurname of Politianus. His father was a Doctor of the civil law. His name, according to M. Baillet, was Benedictus de Cinis, or de Ambroginis; for he conſiders the former as a corruption of the latter.

Politian, who gave early proofs of an extraordinary genius, had the advantage of Chriſtophoro Landino's inſtructions in the Latin language. His preceptors in the Greek, were Andronicus of Theſſalonica, and Joannes Argyropylus. Fortunate in the endowments of nature, and not leſs ſo in the exterior circumſtance

ſtance which brought to light the rich reſources of his intellectual powers, and exhibited them to the greateſt advantage, his abilities, at a very early period of his life, attracted the notice of Lorenzo and Giuliano de Medici. An Italian poem, the production of his juvenile pen, in which he celebrated an equeſtrian ſpectacle or *Gioſtra*, wherein the latter bore away the prize, greatly contributed to eſtabliſh his reputation. He was thenceforward honoured with the peculiar patronage of the Medicean family; and among the perſons remarkable for genius and learning, whom the munificence of Lorenzo attracted to Florence, Politian was ſeen to ſhine as a ſtar of the firſt magnitude.

Having undertaken to teach publicly the Greek and Latin languages at Florence, the celebrity of his name occaſioned pupils of the firſt diſtinction to reſort to him from all parts of Europe. Lorenzo de Medici confided to him the education of his own children: and in this honourable employment he paſſed the greater part of his life, favoured with the peculiar friendſhip of his patron, and the ſociety and correſpondence of men of letters.

Among the more intimate aſſociates of Politian, was Joannes Picus of Mirandula, to whom are aſcribed the literary qualifications and premature attainments of another Crichton. Between theſe eminent ſcholars there was a ſecret attachment, and a friendly communication of ſtudies.

The platonic philoſopher, Marcilius Ficinus, completed this literary triumvirate. Politian acknowledges the advantages he had received from the converſation of theſe eminent men; "*diu catechumenos in philoſophia veſter fum.*" A friendly diſtribution of ſtudies was afterwards made among them. To Picus, were aſſigned theological ſubjects; to Ficinus, his beloved Plato; while Politian undertook publicly to explain the writings of Ariſtotle.

To the kindneſs of Lorenzo, he had been indebted for his education; the ſame kindneſs had early procured him the citizenſhip of Florence; placed him in eaſy and affluent circumſtances; probably conferred upon him the ſecular priory of the college of *S. Giovanni*, which he held, and on his entrance into clerical orders, appointed him a canon of the cathedral of Florence. He generally reſided under the ſame roof with his patron: and was intruſted with the care of his manuſcripts, which he aſſiſted in collecting; and the arrangement of his extenſive library. Lorenzo took a peculiar pleaſure in his ſociety, and honoured him with his unreſerved friendſhip.

The writings of Politian furniſh us with the moſt pleaſing and ſatisfactory evidence, reſpecting the confidence to which he was admitted by his illuſtrious benefactor. From them, alſo, much accurate information may be obtained, with regard to the temper and character of the one, and the other, in ſcenes, and on occaſions, when the human diſpoſition diſplays itſelf in its native colours, untrammeled by forms, and unreſtrained by diſguiſe.

He ſeems to have increaſed in favour with his patron, in proportion to the numerous teſtimonies of

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eſteem and admiration which he received from his learned contemporaries.

The munificence of Lorenzo to learned men, and his own devotedneſs to letters, have been juſtly celebrated; and Politian does not omit, on proper occaſions, to pay him the tribute of praiſe he ſo well deſerved. He ſpeaks of him as almoſt the only perſon of influence who, "amidſt the extreme darkneſs of the age, had dared to hope for light." He highly extols his acuteneſs in diſputation, his accuracy of diſcrimination, his wit and eloquence, knowledge of hiſtory, and general acquaintance with the ſciences; in none of which he was inferior to the moſt accompliſhed men of thoſe times.

Of the ſtate of learning in general, in the early part and middle of the fifteenth century, Hermolaus Barbarus gives his opinion in theſe terms: "*Literis et bonis artibus herculè ſuccurrendum eſt: ruinoſis et nutantibus brevique caſuris niſi per ſolertiſſimos homines ope ſummâ proſpiciatur.*" Politian in his reply, wiſhes only for ten ſuch coadjutors as Hermolaus, and declares he ſhould not then deſpair of vindicating Grecian and Latin literature from their preſent ſtate of degradation and barbariſm.

It was however at this period, that the arts and ſciences began gradually to revive and flouriſh: philoſophy, "to be freed," to uſe the expreſſion of Antiquarius, "from the duſt of barbariſm," and criticiſm to aſſume a manly and rational appearance. The more immediate cauſes which brought about theſe deſirable events, were, the arrival of the illuſtrious Grecian exiles in Italy; the diſcovery of ancient manuſcripts; eſtabliſhment of public libraries, and ſeminaries of education; and eſpecially the invention of printing. No branch of ſcience was cultivated with greater ardour than claſſical literature: under the peculiar patronage of Lorenzo, and of ſome of the chiefs of the other ſtates in Italy, who imitated his liberality, eminent ſcholars engaged with incredible ardour and diligence in collating manuſcripts, and aſcertaining the genuine text of Greek and Latin authors; explaining their obſcurities, illuſtrating them with commentaries, tranſlating them into various languages, and imitating their beauties.

The "*Miſcellanea*" of Politian firſt publiſhed at Florence, A. D. 1489, were every where received with the greateſt applauſe. They were compared by the learned to the "*Noctes Atticæ*" of Aulus Gellius. In conſequence of the publication of them, he received letters from all parts, full of kindneſs and congratulation. "*Nec plures Iaſoni et Cadmo, ſatu dentium nati ſunt hoſtes,*" (ſays the author himſelf) "*quam mihi ſatu Miſcellaneorum nati amici.*"

Politian's Latin verſion of *Herodian*, is univerſally allowed to be a maſterly performance: and perhaps no other tranſlation of any Greek author has been ſo much, and ſo generally admired. Some critics have declared, that if the Greek of Herodian could have been ſuppreſſed this work might have paſſed among the learned for the claſſical and finiſhed production of ſome original pen of antiquity. Yet probably Politian, like other authors, was ſometimes led to eſtimate the value of his works by the labour beſtowed upon them; which may account for the ſlight

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terms in which he ſpeaks of this tranſlation.

This celebrated verſion is inſcribed by Politian to Pope Innocent the eighth. The epiſtle directory may be found *inter ep. Polit.* and is prefixed to moſt of the ancient editions of this work. Politian did not neglect to expreſs his thanks to Innocent, he extols his bounty, and infers that ſuch a diſpoſition to encourage literature, on the part of his Holineſs, cannot fail to revive the ſpirit of men of learning, and excite their diligence: and he promiſes to redouble his own efforts to produce ſomething more worthy of ſo exalted a patron, nor was he wanting in the improvement of ſuch occaſions as preſentend themſelves of ſtrengthening his intereſts at Rome, as may be diſcovered from his letters to ſeveral of the Cardinals and Biſhops; the main object of which was to engage their good offices with the Pontiff in his behalf, as opportunities might occur.

The *Greek Epigrams* of Politian were written for the moſt part, when he was very young. He writes to one of his friends, to conſult him on the propriety of publiſhing them, obſerving, "that many flatter him it will conduce to the glory, not only of his country, but of the age itſelf, for a native of Italy to be the occaſion of interrupting the long ſlumbers of the Grecian Muſe; no poem in that language having appeared for ſix hundred years, that deſerved to be read." From the addreſs to the reader, however, prefixed to the *Greek Epigrams*, in the volume of Politian's works, they appear to have been publiſhed after the death of the author, from the original manuſcript, by Zenobius Acciajolus, who acknowledges he did not conſider them as "*judicio auctoris ad æternitatem probata;*" and ſome of them might have been ſuppreſſed, probably without injury to the literary, and certainly with advantage to the moral reputation of the author.

Of his poetical tranſlation of *Homer*, which he is ſuppoſed to have compleated, but of which no part is at preſent known to remain, Politian makes lively mention: *Ep. Jac. Cardinali Papienſi;* but it was then probably in an unfiniſhed ſtate. "*Homerum vero noſtrum, ſeminudum, quidem adhuc atque involucrem, ardentibus judicii tui radiis adverſum ſtatuimus: perinde atque aquilam ferunt implumes pullos, et nuper calido ex ovo prolatos, orienti ſoli objicere. Quod ſi ille interpidus ad tuum radium non conniventi pupillâ ſuffiget intuitum, referemus eum in nidum et ut legitimum fœtum educabimus. Si vero oculorum acies offenſa perſtringetur, veluti alienum ac nothum exponemus.*"

Of the other Latin poems of Politian, the "*Manto,*" "*Ruſticus,*" and probably the "*Ambra,*" were occaſional, and intended for public recitation, and appear to have been publiſhed at the inſtance of ſome of his pupils. Making mention of the firſt of theſe he terms it "*carmen inconditum, inemendatum*; compoſed for a particular ſolemnity, and formed like thoſe inſects which are termed *ephemeral*, merely for a ſingle day's exiſtence." Perhaps his moſt laboured production is the "*Nutricia,*" which ſeems to be the poem ſent by him to *Matthias* king of *Hungary*, as a ſpecimen of his talents. He terms it

"*poema*

"*poema multâ limâ cruciatum, quod laudes poeticæ, quod hiſtoriam continet omnium fere vatum;*" and promiſes a diffuſe commentary upon it, which will manifeſt the extenſive and various reading required in order to its compoſition; and ſhew the pains and ſtudy it coſt him. "*Quare,*" he proceeds, "*ne, quæſo, numeret Angeli Politiani carmina lector, ſed ponderet.*"

The labours of Politian on the pandects of Juſtinian, his collations and collections of claſſic authors, and the leſs voluminous pieces that are contained in his works, are laſting monuments of his erudition and induſtry. But his confidence in his own powers ſeems to have been unbounded, and his mind full of ambition, and inflamed with an ardent thirſt for literary glory. "I have ever been actuated," ſays he, "perhaps without juſt grounds; but I have ever been actuated by a deſire of producing ſomething that may immortalize me. Riches, preferments, power, and pleaſure, are trifles in my eſtimation, compared with a name and reputation, which ſhall ſurvive to the lateſt poſterity."

Far therefore from reſting ſatisfied with what he had already atchieved in the *arena* of literature, he conſiders his paſt works merely as preludes to others of greater magnitude. The letters he addreſſed to *Matteo Corvini*, King of Hungary; and *Don Juan*, King of Portugal; may be adduced as teſtimonies of the truth of this remark.

His letter to the King of Portugal is compoſed of ſimilar materials: praiſe of that monarch, and a diſplay of his own powers. He requeſts to be appointed his hiſtoriographer, and to be favoured with a tranſcript of the annals of his reign, compoſed in any language, and without regard to accuracy of ſtyle, to ſerve merely as a baſis for his own intended work. On this, he promiſes to erect ſuch a ſuperſtructure, as ſhall be able to withſtand the viciſſitudes of fortune, and the waſte of ages. The offer of Politian was accepted, and the Portugueſe monarch, in his anſwer, engages to furniſh him with the requiſite documents as ſoon as poſſible.

Politian could not, however, eſcape the cenſures of perverſe or invidious critics. By ſome he was accuſed of plagiariſm. Others, while they were reſtrained to acknowledge his erudition, found fault with his ſtyle; and termed him a "mere *ſolderer* of obſolete words." To the latter charge, Politian anſwers in general, "I have never ventured to introduce into my compoſitions any terms"—

"Cinctutis non exaudita Cethegis:"

"Nor do I follow any but the beſt authorities. But I am not one of thoſe who would ſuffer the Latin language to ſink, in a great meaſure, into oblivion, through a ſilly fear of employing any word, or form of expreſſion, which has not hitherto been in general uſe." To Bartholomæus Scala in particular he replies—"*Si quæ cuique obvia ſint, ea tantum noſter ſermo recipiat: nullâ magis quam tabellionum linguâ utemur:*" alluding ſarcaſtically to Scala's office of ſecretary to the republic.

The inquiſitive reader will be much gratified with the peruſal of the

the original letters of these learned disputants, and not less with those of a more friendly description, which passed between Politian and *Paulus Cortesius*. Politian, on this occasion, expressed his dislike of servile imitation, and asserts his own claim to the merit of originality in terms to the following effect: "I hear you approve of no style of composition, the language and periods of which are not perfectly Ciceronian: *(nisi qui lineamenta Ciceronis effingat.)* For my own part I find the countenance of a bull, or a lion, infinitely less contemptible than that of an ape; though the latter has more resemblance of the human species. Even of those authors who rank highest for eloquence, each has a style peculiar to himself, as Seneca remarks. Quintilian indulges a very just pleasantry at the expence of certain persons, who fancied themselves nearly related to Cicero, because they had contrived to round a period with the words, "*esse videatur.*" You know how Horace exclaims against the servile herd of imitators. In my estimation, they resemble parrots, or daws, that are taught to articulate words of which they know not the meaning. The compositions of such persons are without animation or energy, and display neither feeling nor genius; they are replete with dulness and insipidity; as void of meaning, as they are destitute of true taste. "Your style is not that of Cicero," it may be said.—"Perhaps not, nor am I Cicero:—but I apprehend my style is my own."

That Politian had occasionally ecclesiastical duties of an active nature to discharge appears from his own account. He accuses himself of a natural propensity to indolence. He also laments the misapplication of much of his time which he was compelled to bestow on trifles, and in satisfying the petty requests of the impertinent and obtrusive. "Does any want a motto for the hilt of his sword, or a posy for a ring, a memento for his bed-chamber, or a device for his silver vessels, or even his earthen ware? All run to Politian: so that there is scarcely a wall which I have not, like a snail, besmeared with the effusions of my brain. One teazes me for catches and glees for a bacchanalian party; another for a grave discourse, adapted to some particular solemnity; a third, wants a lamentable ditty for a serenade; and a fourth, a licentious ballad for a carnival. This fool tells me he loves perplexities, which I sit like a fool to hear. Another wishes for a symbol, which, while it is perfectly intelligible to his mistress, may serve only to perplex the curiosity of others. I pass by the unseasonable garrulity of pedants; the impertinences of *poetasters*, who are in the constant habit of admiring their own productions. These are the plague I am daily compelled to endure besides the interruptions I meet with in my walks abroad from the lower class of the inhabitants of this city, and its vicinity, who drag me through the streets, on their concerns, *like an ox by the nose.*"

If we may credit Politian's account of himself, it at least evinces good nature and urbanity of temper on his part—ill according with those stories, which charge him with

with a peevishness of disposition, that corresponded with his personal deformities. The internal evidence of his letters tends to prove, that he was naturally inclined to facetiousness and pleasantry; and capable of malignant irascibility only when his literary talents and reputation were called in question. A vein of humour pervades the greater part of his epistolary correspondence; and it seems improbable that he should chuse to assume a character, in his familiar writings, which his personal behaviour did not in some measure support.

Still more serious charges have been alleged against the purity of his morals: but these are for the most part allowed to rest on the very questionable authority of *Paulus Jovius*, of whom, it is said, that prejudice, resentment, or interest generally guided his pen. Politian has found able advocates in *Pierius Valerianus*, *Barthius*, and *M. Roscoe*. It must be acknowledged that the youthful muse of Politian did not always adhere to the strictness of decorum: a fault too common amongst the poetical writers of his age. A few of his Greek epigrams, as well as of his Latin verses, are very exceptionable. In one of his letters to Picus of Mirandula, he says, "*Audio te versiculos amatorios quos olim scripseras combussisse veritum fortasse ne vel tuo jam homini, vel aliorum moribus officerent.*" It had been well if not only Politian, but *Pontanus Sannazarius*, and others, had, by similar sacrifices, testified an equal solicitude for their own characters, and the morals of posterity.

The only probable account of the death of this distinguished scholar is, that it was prematurely occasioned by his grief for the misfortunes of the Medicean family, from whom he had received so many favours; and with whose prosperity and happiness his own were so intimately connected. This event took place September 24, 1494, in the forty-first year of his age.

Adventure of M. de Grenville de Forval *with a Princess of Madagascar*; *from* Devaux's *History of Mauritius*.

IF it were consistent with the objects of this work, it would be a delightful circumstance to dwell on the virtues and extraordinary qualities of this family. I must however confine myself to one of them, M. de Grenville de Forval, the second son of M. de Granville. Some events relative to him are so connected with the manners of these islands, and so remarkable in themselves, that they will at the same time heighten the interest, as well as add to the information of this work.

In these islands there is not a single example of a deformed or crooked shape, which must arise from the natural and unrestrained mode of education which prevails there. To these advantages, Forval united a martial air, blended with a slight appearance of severity, and an approved courage, to the most noble and generous sentiments that are found in the human breast.

The want of slaves in our colonies renders expeditions necessary in order to procure them. Vessels, therefore,

fore, are equipped for the coaſt of Africa and Madagaſcar; and a certain body of troops were ſent with them to favour or ſupport the objects of theſe voyages.

Forval was ordered to command a detachment on a ſervice of this nature on the coaſt of Madagaſcar, and being arrived on the eaſtern ſide of it, he diſembarked his people, and encamped them on the ſmall iſland of St. Mary, called by the natives Ibrahim, which is ſeparated only from the principal iſland by a very narrow ſtrait. Here the communications took place between the perſons engaged in this expedition, and one of the petty princes of Madagaſcar, relative to the objects of the voyage.

Forval, however, was ſo entirely convinced of the good diſpoſition of the people with whom he treated, that he yielded to the friendly ſolicitations of the king to remain among them, and accordingly ordered ſome tents and a ſmall number of ſoldiers to remove from the little iſland to the oppoſite coaſt. The king, who was called Adrin Baba, loaded him with careſſes; having ſhewed him his herd of cattle, demanded, in the pride of his heart, if the King of France was ſo great as him?

Forval, therefore, conſidered himſelf as in a perfect ſtate of ſecurity; and having entered into his tent, in order to paſs the night, he received an unexpected viſit from a moſt beautiful woman, a native of the iſland, who, after a ſhort compliment of apology for her intruſion, expreſſed her concern that ſo fine a white man as himſelf ſhould be maſſacred.

Forval, who was aſtoniſhed at the viſit, could not help taking notice of the danger which ſeemed to have produced it. The ſooty lady, who appeared to intereſt herſelf ſo much in his welfare, was the daughter of a king, and known by the title of Princeſs Betſy. On being queſtioned as to the cauſe of this viſit, ſhe aſked him in her turn, if he would wiſh to ſacrifice her life to ſave his own. "By no means," exclaimed Forval: "then," replied ſhe, "I will inform you of a plot formed againſt your life, if you will promiſe to take me with you, and make me your wife. I will ſacrifice for you the throne of my father, which is my inheritance; I will abandon my country, my friends, my cuſtoms; and that liberty which is ſo dear to me. My relations, who will conſider me as diſhonoured, will deteſt me; and if you leave me to their vengeance, I ſhall be reduced to ſlavery, which, to me, would be a thouſand times worſe than death. Promiſe to grant what I have demanded; ſwear that your ſoldiers ſhall do no injury to my relations, and I will reveal what it is of the utmoſt importance for you to know?" Forval immediately engaged to grant her requeſt if the intelligence ſhe announced proved to be of the importance ſhe had attached to it.

"Well then," ſaid ſhe, "at break of day my father will come here under the pretext of a friendly viſit; and if he breaks a ſtick, which he will hold in his hand, that will be the ſignal of thy death: his guard will then enter with their hatchets, and will kill thee,

thee, and all thy people will be maſſacred with thee!"

Forval immediately conducted her to a place of ſafety. Nevertheleſs he was determined to wait till the morning, and aſcertain the truth of her information.

The princeſs had alſo added, that the ſignal the king would give for his attendants to retire, would be to throw his hat towards them.

He accordingly ordered his ſoldiers to remain under arms during the night, and to keep within their tents. As for himſelf he got his arms in readineſs, placed a couple of piſtols under the covering of his table, and doſed by the ſide of it with his hands on the piſtols.

At length the king arrived, and ſoon after, having broke his ſtick, the guard was advancing to the front of the tent; but the king, terrified at the piſtol which Forval held to his throat, caſt his hat towards his attendants, who immediately departed. The ſmall party of ſoldiers which Forval had with him, were now drawn up in order of battle. All the negroes had diſappeared; the king alone remained as a priſoner; nor was he enlarged, till the princeſs was embarked with all the equipage, and Forval felt himſelf happy in departing from this perfidious coaſt. Nor was he ungrateful: he ſolemnly eſpouſed the Princeſs Betſy, in ſpite of all the remonſtrances of his friends, and he lives happily with her. Her colour was certainly diſpleaſing to the white people, and her education did not qualify her to be a companion to ſuch a man as her huſband; but her figure was fine, her air noble, and all her actions partook of the dignity of one who was born to command.

She was a real Amazon, and the dreſs ſhe choſe was that which has ſince received a ſimilar name. She never walked out but ſhe was followed by a ſlave, and armed with a ſmall fowling piece, which ſhe knew how to employ with great dexterity, and would defend herſelf with equal courage if ſhe were attacked. She was nimble as a deer, though ſtately in her demeanour; but with her huſband as gentle and ſubmiſſive as the moſt affectionate of his ſlaves. She behaved to her inferiors with equal dignity and kindneſs; and ſhe never went to the moſt diſtant part of the iſland, to pay viſits to her family, but on foot; ſhe nevertheleſs adopted the elegancies of behaviour with great facility, and her ſociety is very pleaſant, and full of vivacity.

Some years after her marriage, the Princeſs Betſy, for ſhe was ſeldom called Madame de Forval, gave her huſband a new proof of her affection.

Her father at length died, the kingdom deſcended to her, and her people, who were ardently attached to the blood of their kings, anxiouſly wiſhed to ſee her on the throne of her anceſtors. As ſoon as ſhe was informed of this event, ſhe requeſted permiſſion of her huſband to viſit her country.

Though ſuch an unexpected requeſt aſtoniſhed Forval, he did not heſitate to comply with it; and as ſhe did not unfold the reaſon of ſuch a deſire on her part, he felt his pride mortified at her conduct, though he kept his chagrin to his

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own bosom, of which it was a painful inmate.

The first sentiments of Forval respecting his princess had been instigated by honour and gratitude; but her demeanour towards him, her conduct towards others, and her personal charms, in which her colour was forgotten, had awakened in his heart the most faithful and tender affection.

The Queen Betsy, however, departed for her kingdom as soon as she had received the permission of her own sovereign; while Forval was totally unable to reconcile the step she had taken to her former sentiments, and past conduct. He accordingly waited with the utmost impatience for the return of the vessel which had taken her away; when, to his great astonishment, his faithful wife returned in it, with an hundred and fifty slaves which she had brought him. "You had the generosity," she cried, on throwing herself into his arms, "to marry me, in opposition to the wishes of your friends, and the prejudices of your country, when I had nothing to offer you but my person, whose charms, whatever they might have been considered in my own country, were calculated rather to disgust, than to please you. You will therefore add another proof of your kindness by assuring me of your pardon for having raised a single doubt in your mind respecting the affection and duty you so entirely deserve from me: but it was my wish to avoid informing you of the project I had conceived on my father's death, till it was executed. It was not the little kingdom which that event transferred to me, nor even the largest empire, that would separate me from you; my sole design, in the step I have just taken, was to make you an offer of a small number of my subjects, which is the only part of my inheritance that I can bestow. I have, at the same time, complied with the wishes of my people in resigning my little sovereignty to the most worthy of my relations."

Such a scene may be more easily conceived than described. Thus Forval found his wife worthy of all his affection, and the present she made him is a sort of fortune in this country.

History of a Princess of Russia at Madagascar; from Devaux's *History of Mauritius.*

THE Baron Grant, in his Letter X. and XI. written in the year 1750 and 1751, describes in a very interesting manner the scenes of domestic life in that country; but we shall content ourselves with extracting one of the principal facts mentioned in the first of these two letters, and in the secret memoirs of Mr. Duclos, concerning the curious history of the Princess Wolfenbuttel, who passed some years at the Isle of France and Bourbon, during the residence of Baron Grant there.

"Charlotte Christina Sophia de Wolfenbuttel, wife of Czarovitz Alexis, son of Peter the First, Czar of Muscovy, and sister of the Empress of Charles VI. was born the 25th of August, 1694. This princess, though possessed of beauty, grace, and virtue, in a very high degree, became an object of aver-

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ſion to her huſband, a man of a moſt ferocious and ſavage character. He had ſeveral times attempted to poiſon her, when ſhe was ſaved by counteracting medicines.

" At length he one day gave her ſuch a violent kick on her belly, when ſhe was eight months advanced in her pregnancy; that ſhe fell ſenſeleſs on the floor, which was ſoon encrimſoned with her blood. Peter the Firſt was then engaged in one of his journies. His ſon having every reaſon to believe that his unfortunate princeſs would not recover, ſet off immediately for his country houſe.

" The Counteſs of Koniſmarck, mother of Marſhal de Saxe, attended on the princeſs when ſhe was brought to bed of a dead child, and nurſed her with unceaſing care. Being ſenſible, however, if the princeſs recovered, that ſhe would periſh, ſooner or later, from the brutal nature of the Czarovitz, formed a plan to gain over the women belonging to the princeſs to declare that ſhe and the infant were both dead. The Czarovitz accordingly ordered her to be interred without delay and without ceremony. Courtiers were diſpatched to the Czar to inform him of the event, and all the courts of Europe put on mourning for the bundle of ſticks which was interred.

" In the mean time the princeſs, who had been removed to a retired ſpot, recovered her health and ſtrength; when poſſeſſed of ſome jewels with a ſum of money which the Counteſs of Koniſmarck had procured for her, and clothed in the dreſs of common life, ſhe ſet off for Paris, accompanied by an old German domeſtic, who paſſed for her father. She made but a ſhort ſtay there, and having hired a female ſervant, proceeded to a ſea port, and embarked for Louiſiana.

" Her figure attracted the notice of the inhabitants, and an officer of the colony, named D'Auband, who had been in Ruſſia, recollected her.

" It was, however, with ſome difficulty that he could perſuade himſelf of the reality of what he ſaw. Indeed it was ſcarce poſſible to believe that a woman in ſuch a ſituation could be a daughter-in-law of the Czar Peter. However, to aſcertain the truth, he offered his ſervices to the pretended father, and at length formed an intimate friendſhip with him; ſo that they agreed to furniſh an houſe, and live together at their common expence.

" Some time afterwards the Gazettes which arrived in the colony announced the death of the Czarovitz. D'Auband then declared to the princeſs his knowledge of her, and offered to abandon every thing in order to conduct her to Ruſſia.

" But ſhe, finding herſelf infinitely more happy than when ſhe was in the verge of royalty, refuſed to ſacrifice the tranquillity of her obſcure ſituation for all that ambition could offer her. She only exacted a promiſe from D'Auband to maintain the moſt inviolable ſecrecy, as well as conduct himſelf towards her as he had hitherto done.

" He made the moſt ſolemn declaration that he would obey her

commands, and it became his intereſt to be faithful. The beauty, underſtanding, and virtues of the princeſs had made a very deep impreſſion on him, and habitual intercourſe had ſerved to ſtrengthen it. He was amiable and young, and ſhe was not inſenſible to his attentions. They continue however to live in their uſual way, but became every day dearer to each other.

"The old domeſtic, who paſſed for the father of the princeſs, at length died; and ſhe could no longer, according to the rules of decorum, live with D'Auband, as ſhe had hitherto done, under the apparent authority and protection of a parent. In this delicate ſituation D'Auband unfolded to her the diſpoſitions and ſentiments of his heart, and propoſed to add a new veil to her real condition by becoming her huſband. She conſented to his propoſition; and this princeſs, who had been deſtined to wear the crown of Ruſſia, and whoſe ſiſter actually wore that of the German empire, became the wife of a lieutenant of infantry. In the firſt year of her marriage ſhe had a daughter, whom ſhe nurſed and educated herſelf, and inſtructed in the French and German languages.

"They had lived ten years in this happy ſtate of mediocricy, when D'Auband was attacked by the fiſtula; and his wife, alarmed at the danger which generally accompanies the operation neceſſary for the cure of that diſorder, inſiſted that it ſhould be performed at Paris.

"They accordingly ſold their habitation, and embarked in the firſt veſſel that ſailed for France. On their arrival at Paris, D'Auband was attended by the moſt ſkilful ſurgeons; and till his cure was compleated, his wife never quitted him for a moment, nor ſuffered any other perſon to perform the tender offices which were neceſſary in his ſituation: ſhe waited upon him throughout his illneſs with the moſt watchful and patient affection. On his recovery, D'Auband, in order to ſecure her the little fortune which he poſſeſſed, ſolicited from the Eaſt India Company an employment in the Iſle of Bourbon, where he was appointed Major.

"While he was engaged in ſoliciting this buſineſs, his wife ſometimes went to take the air with her daughter in the gardens of the Thuilleries. One day as ſhe was ſitting upon a bench, and talking with her daughter in German, that ſhe might not be underſtood by thoſe who were near her, Marſhal de Saxe paſſed by, and hearing two ladies ſpeak in his own tongue, ſtopped to look at them. The mother lifting up her eyes, and recollecting the marſhal, inſtantly threw them to the ground, when he, ſtill more attracted by her embarraſſment, ſuddenly exclaimed, "Is it poſſible, madam!" She did not however permit him to finiſh the ſentence, but riſing from the ſeat, begged him to accompany her to a more retired part of the garden, where ſhe acknowledged herſelf, and, after having requeſted his entire ſecrecy, invited him to ſee her at her own habitation, when ſhe would inform him of every thing that concerned her.

"On

" On the following day Marſhal de Saxe paid her a viſit, and heard the recital of her adventures, as well as the ſhare which the Counteſs of Koniſmarck, his mother, had in them. She conjured him at the ſame time not to reveal any thing reſpecting her to the king, till a negociation, which her huſband was agitating, was concluded, and which would be compleated in three months. The marſhal ſolemnly promiſed to comply with her requeſt, and paid his viſits to her and her huſband in the moſt ſecret manner.

" The three months being almoſt expired, the marſhal, on calling to ſee her, was informed, that ſhe and her huſband had quitted Paris two days before, and that M. D'Auband had been named to a majority in the Iſle of Bourbon.

" On this information, the marſhal went immediately to Verſailles to give an account to the king of every thing that related to the princeſs; when his majeſty ſent for the miniſter of marine, M. de Machault, and, without aſſigning any reaſon, ordered him to write to the governor of the iſles of Mauritius and Bourbon, to treat M. D'Auband with every poſſible mark of diſtinction; which order was punctually executed, according to the report of Baron Grant, who had been a long time in her ſociety; and remarks, as an extraordinary circumſtance, that he had ſeen the princeſs pregnant when ſhe was upwards of fifty, about the year 1745. The king alſo wrote to the Queen of Hungary, with whom he was then at war, to inform her of the fortune and ſituation of her aunt. The queen accompanied her letter of thanks to the king with one to the princeſs, in which ſhe invited her to come and reſide with her; but on condition that ſhe would quit her huſband and daughter, for whom the king engaged to make a ſuitable proviſion. The princeſs did not heſitate a moment to refuſe theſe conditions, and remained with her huſband till the year 1747, when he died.

" Being a widow, and without children, ſhe returned to Paris, and took up her abode at the Hotel de Peru. Her deſign was to return to a convent, but the Queen of Hungary offered to fix her at Bruſſels, with a penſion of twenty thouſand of florins; but (adds M. Declos) I am altogether ignorant whether ſhe went to reſide there; but this I know, that within theſe ſix years ſhe was at Vitry, where ſhe lived in a very recluſe manner, with no more than three ſervants, one of whom was a negro. She was then called Madame de Moldack; but I know not who M. de Moldack was, and when ſhe married him; ſhe is now a widow: I ſaw her as ſhe was taking a walk in the year 1768.

Account of the Dutch Peaſants at the Cape of Good Hope. From Barrow's *Travels in* Africa.

A True Dutch peaſant, or boor, as he ſtyles himſelf, has not the ſmalleſt idea of what an Engliſh farmer means by the word comfort. Placed in a country where not only the neceſſaries, but almoſt every luxury of life might, by induſtry, be procured, he has

the enjoyment of none of them. Though he has cattle in abundance he makes very little uſe of milk or of butter. In the midſt of a ſoil and climate moſt favourable for the cultivation of the vine, he drinks no wine. He makes uſe of few or no vegetables nor roots. Three times a day his table is loaded with maſſes of mutton, ſwimming in the greaſe of the ſheep's tail. His houſe is either open to the roof, or covered only with rough poles and turf, affording a favourable ſhelter for ſcorpions and ſpiders; and the earthy floors are covered with duſt and dirt, and ſwarm with inſects, particularly with a ſpecies of the *terines*, which, though not ſo deſtructive as ſome others of this genus, is nevertheleſs a very troubleſome and diſagreeable animal. His apartments, if he happens to have more than one, which is not always the caſe among the grazing farmers, are nearly deſtitute of furniture. A great cheſt that contains all his moveables, and two ſmaller ones, that are fitted to his waggon, are the moſt ſtriking articles. The bottoms of his chairs conſiſt of thongs cut from a bullock's hide. The windows are without glaſs, or if there ſhould happen to be any remains of this article, it is ſo patched and daubed as nearly to exclude the light it was intended to admit. The boor notwithſtanding has his enjoyments: he is abſolute maſter of a domain of ſeveral miles in extent, and he lords it over a few miſerable ſlaves or hottentots without controul. His pipe ſcarcely ever quits his mouth from the moment he riſes till he retires to reſt, except to give him time to ſwallow his *ſopie*, or a glaſs of ſtrong ardent ſpirit, to eat his meals, and to take his nap after dinner. Unwilling to work, and unable to think, with a mind diſengaged from every ſort of care and reflection, indulging to exceſs in the gratification of every ſenſual appetite, the African peaſant grows to an unwieldy ſize, and is carried off the ſtage by the firſt inflammatory diſeaſe that attacks him.

The cultivators of the ground, who inhabit the nearer diſtricts to the town, though ſomething better than the breeders of cattle, live, but in a very uncomfortable manner, in the midſt of profuſion. They have little or no ſociety with each other, and every one ſeems to live ſolely for himſelf. Though removed from each other to the diſtance of ſeveral miles, and enjoying the benefit of many thouſand acres of land under the rate of a farthing an acre; it is yet a ſingular fact, that ſcarcely any two neighbours are found to be on good terms with each other, but are embroiled perpetually in quarrels and diſputes about the extent of their farms, or the privilege of a ſpring or water-courſe. One great cauſe of their endleſs diſputes is the abſurd manner of eſtimating diſtance by time. The quantity of land in a government farm, according to the eſtabliſhed cuſtom of the colony, muſt be one hour's walk acroſs it. If one farmer is ſuppoſed to have put down his *baaken*, or ſtake, or land-mark, a little too near that of his neighbour, the *Feldwagt-meeſter*, or peace officer of the diviſion, is called in, by the latter, to pace the diſtance, for which he gets three dollars. If the Feldwagt-meeſter ſhould happen to regulate

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his pace to the ſatisfaction of both parties, the affair is ſettled; but as this is not always the caſe, the next ſtep is for the diſcontented party to apply for a commiſſion, conſiſting of the landroot, two members of the council, the ſecretary of the diſtrict, and a meſſenger. Theſe gentlemen ſhare fifteen dollars a-day as long as they are out upon the commiſſion to determine how far a man ought to walk in an hour.

The dangerous and difficult roads in every part of the colony, but particularly the kloefs or paſſes of the mountains, and the ſtill more perilous fords of the river, ſhew how very little ſenſe is entertained by the peaſantry of public benefits or public conveniences. Each gets over a difficulty as well as he can, and no more is thought about it till it again occurs. An inſtance appeared of this in croſſing the Breede river oppoſite to Brandt valley, which is done by means of a ſmall flat bottomed tub, about ſix feet by three. In this machine foot paſſengers haul themſelves over by a rope fixed to two poſts, one on each ſide of the river. When a horſe is to croſs, the ſaddle is taken off, the rider gets into the tub, and drags the animal after him. But when a waggon is to be tranſported, it muſt firſt be unladen, and the baggage carried over in the veſſel: the carriage then made faſt by one end to this floating machine, and the other is buoyed up by a caſk, and in this manner it is dragged over. Thus is half a day conſumed in paſſing a ſmall river of thirty or forty yards at the moſt in width, when a few planks, properly put together, would enable them to carry over any ſort of carriage, cattle, or horſes, with ſafety and convenience, in five minutes.

The women of the African peaſantry paſs a life of the moſt liſtleſs inactivity. The miſtreſs of the family, with her coffee-pot conſtantly boiling before her on a ſmall table, ſeems fixed to her chair like a piece of furniture. This good lady, born in the wilds of Africa, and educated among ſlaves and hottentots, has little idea of what in a ſtate of ſociety conſtitutes female delicacy. She makes no ſcruple of having her legs and feet waſhed in warm water by a ſlave before ſtrangers; an operation that is regularly performed every evening. If the motive of ſuch a cuſtom were that of cleanlineſs, the practice of it would deſerve praiſe; but to ſee the tub with the ſame water paſſed round through all the branches of the family, according to ſeniority, is apt to create ideas of a very different nature. Moſt of them go conſtantly without ſtockings and ſhoes, even when the thermometer is down to the freezing point. They generally, however, make uſe of ſmall ſtoves to place their feet on. The young girls ſit with their hands before them as liſtleſs as their mothers *. Luckily, perhaps, for them, the paucity of ideas prevents time from hanging heavy on their hands. The hiſtory of a day is that of their

* Moſt of them in the diſtant diſtricts can neither read nor write, ſo that they have no mental reſources whatſoever.

whole lives. They hear or ſpeak of nothing but that ſuch a-one is going to the city, or to church, or to be married, or that the Bosjeſmans have ſtolen the cattle of ſuch a one, or the locuſts eaten the corn. The young people have no meetings at fixed periods, as in moſt country places, for mirth and recreation. No fairs, no dancing, no muſic, nor amuſement of any ſort. To this cold phlegmatic temper and inactive way of living may perhaps be owing the prolific tendency of all the African peaſantry. Six or ſeven children in a family are conſidered as very few; from a dozen to twenty are not uncommon, and moſt of them marry very young, ſo that the population of the colony is rapidly increaſing. Several, however, of the children die in their infancy from ſwellings in the throat, and from eruptions of the ſame kind they are ſubject to in the Cape. Very few inſtances of longevity occur. The manner of life they lead is perhaps leſs favourable for a prolonged exiſtence than the nature of the climate. The diſeaſes of which they generally die in the country are bilious and putrid fevers and dropſies.

The men are in general much above the middle ſize, very tall and ſtout, but ill made, looſly put together, aukward, and inactive. Very few have thoſe open ingenuous countenances that among the peaſantry of many parts of Europe ſpeak their ſimplicity and innocence. The deſcendants of French families are now ſo intermarried with thoſe of the original ſettlers, that no diſtinction, except the names, remains. And it is a remarkable fact that not a word of the French language is ſpoken or underſtood by the peaſantry, though there be many ſtill living whoſe parents were both of that nation. Neither is a French book of any kind to be ſeen in their houſes. It would ſeem as if the perſecuted refugees had ſtudied to conceal from their children their unfortunate hiſtory, and their country's diſgraceful conduct.

The means of education, it is true, muſt be very difficult to be had among a people ſo widely ſcattered over a vaſt extent of country as the peaſantry are in the colony of the Cape. Some have a perſon in the houſe whom they call the ſchool-maſter. This is generally a man who has ſerved out his time in the ranks. His employment, in this new ſituation, is not only to inſtruct the children to read, to write, to ſing pſalms, and to get by heart a few occaſional prayers, but he muſt alſo make himſelf ſerviceable in other reſpects. At one place that we paſſed the poor ſchool-maſter was driving the plough, whilſt a hottentot had the more honourable poſt of holding and directing it. The children of thoſe who cannot either obtain, or afford to employ, ſuch a perſon, can neither read nor write; and the whole of their education conſiſts in learning to ſhoot well, to crack and uſe with dexterity an enormous large whip, and to drive a waggon drawn by bullocks.

A book of any kind is rarely ſeen in any of the farmers houſes, except the Bible and *William Sluiter's Geſangen*, or ſongs out of the Bible, done into verſe by the Sternhold and Hopkins of Holland. They affect to be very religious, and carry at leaſt the devotion of

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religion fully as far as the moſt zealous bigots. They never ſit down to table without a long grace before meat pronounced with an audible voice by the youngeſt of the family; and every morning before day-light one of William Sluiter's Geſangen is drawled out in full chorus by an aſſemblage of the whole family. In their attendance at church they are ſcrupulouſly exact, though the performance of this duty coſts many of them a journey of ſeveral days. Thoſe who live at the diſtance of a fortnight or three weeks from the neareſt church generally go with their families once a year.

Rude and uncultivated as are their minds, there is one virtue in which they eminently excel,—hoſpitality to ſtrangers. A countryman, a foreigner, a relation, a friend, are all equally welcome to whatſoever the houſe will afford. A Dutch farmer never paſſes a houſe on the road without alighting, except indeed his next neighbour's, with whom it is ten to one he is at variance. It is not enough to enquire after the health of the family in paſſing: even on the road if two peaſants ſhould meet they inſtantly diſmount to ſhake hands, whether ſtrangers or friends. When a traveller arrives at a habitation, he alights from his horſe, enters the houſe, ſhakes hands with the men, kiſſes the women, and ſits down without farther ceremony. When the table is ſerved he takes his place among the family without waiting for an invitation. This is never given on the ſuppoſition that a traveller in a country ſo thinly inhabited muſt always have an appetite for ſomething. Accordingly, "What will you make uſe of?" is generally the firſt queſtion. If there be a bed in the houſe it is given to the ſtranger; if none, which is frequently the caſe among the graziers of the diſtant diſtrict of Graaff Reynet, he muſt take his chance for a form or bench, or heap of ſheep ſkins, among the reſt of the family. In the morning, after a ſolid breakfaſt, he takes his *ſopie*, or glaſs of brandy, orders his ſlave or hottentot to ſaddle the horſes, ſhakes hands with the men, and kiſſes the women: *he* wiſhes them health, and *they* wiſh him a good journey. In this manner a traveller might paſs through the whole country.

If the œconomy of the African farmer's houſe be ill managed, that of his land is equally bad. The graziers indeed, in many places, are not at the trouble of ſowing any grain, but exchange with others their cattle for as much as may be neceſſary for the family conſumption. But even thoſe who have corn farms near the Cape ſeem to have no kind of management. They turn over a piece of ground with a huge miſ-ſhapen plough, that requires eight or ten horſes, or a dozen oxen, to drag it along: the ſeed is ſown in the broad-caſt way, at the rate of about a buſhel and a half to an acre; a rude harrow is juſt paſſed over it, and they reap from ten to fifteen for one. No manure comes upon the ground except a ſprinkling for barley. In low ſituations near rivulets, where the water can be brought upon the ground, they reap from thirty to forty to one. Water, in fact, is every thing in Southern Africa. Not like the Chineſe, whoſe great

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art of agriculture conſiſts in ſuiting the nature and habit of the plant to that of the ſoil, which he alſo artificially prepares, the Dutch peaſant at the Cape is ſatisfied if he can command only a ſupply of water. He beſtows no kind of labour on the ground but that of throwing in the ſeed; the reſt is left to chance, and the effects of an excellent climate. The time of ſeeding is in the months of May and June; and of harveſt, from November to January. The grain is trodden out by horſes on circular floors in the open air, and the ſtraw is left to rot or to be ſcattered about by the winds.

NATURAL

NATURAL HISTORY.

On the Giants Causeway *in* Ireland. *From the* Natural Hiſtory of Volcanoes, *by the* Abbé Ordinairè.

IT has been diſcuſſed, but never yet decided, whether there have been volcanoes in Ireland. There does not ſeem to be any other grounds for the affirmative than the exiſtence of the Giants Cauſeway. The common people, ſtruck with the regularity of that immenſe object, judged it to be the work of men; and on account of the extraordinary ſtrength it muſt have required, they ſuppoſe thoſe men to have been giants. But why ſhould we be aſtoniſhed to find Nature regular in great as well as in ſmall objects? Conſequently, in this cauſeway, as well as in the grains of the various ſalts, and in all the other ſmall chryſtals? Allow this, and there is no farther occaſion to have recourſe, on this ſubject, either to the ſkill of man, or to a race ſuperior to the preſent ſpecies.

This famous cauſeway is in the county of Antrim. It is a collection of columns regularly diſpoſed, each adapted to thoſe that are round it, ſo as to leave no vacancy in the whole. It extends viſibly without interruption about fourteen Engliſh miles, part on land and part in the ſea, where the end of it is by no means aſcertained, for it ſinks by degrees the farther it is traced under water.

The regularity is not confined to the compoſition of the general pile, but deſcends to the formation of each column. The ſubſtance is throughout of the ſame nature, and is a ſpecies of marble of an iron-grey colour, with which the ancients were acquainted under the name of Baſaltes. This ſubſtance, in its weight, durability, and colour, is very much like lava dug from the bottom of a quarry; which has induced many men to give the name of Baſaltes to the currents of lava: a denomination I am not inclined to adopt, becauſe not only the Baſaltes, eſpecially that of the Giants Cauſeway, is ſo compact that the eye perceives no vacuity in its ſubſtance, whereas, lava is evidently porous; but there is ſtill a much more eſſential difference between that and lava; for Baſaltes has no mixture of any metal, and lava, on the contrary, particularly that at the bottom, is always amalgamated. The denomination, nevertheleſs, ſeems generally admitted, with a diſtinction that has been introduced, of jointed, cryſtalized, or priſmatic

Baſaltes.

Baſaltes, and of not jointed or common baſaltes. Of courſe the lava muſt be of the latter kind.

The Giants Cauſeway is all of jointed baſaltes; that is to ſay, 1ſt. That each column in it preſents ſeparately a regular ſolid body of three, four, five, and even ſo many as nine faces, but the figures moſt uſual are, the pentagonal, hexagonal, and heptagonal. The common height of the columns is forty feet above the ground; the depth below has not been enquired into, and the diameters are from a foot to two feet and a half. 2dly. That each column is compoſed of diſtinct pieces, the ſhape and dimenſions of which are always equal and exactly fit the hollow, in the pieces adapted to receive the lengthened and rounded extremity of the piece which joins into it. Each of theſe pieces is nearly a foot, ſo that in general the height may be known from the number of pieces. 3dly, That immediately next to a pillar in which the convex part is above the concave, one is frequently found that has all its joints directly the reverſe, that is to ſay, the concave parts are on the contrary above the convex. Theſe particulars are given in a diſcourſe on cryſtallization, by Dr. Alexander Eaton, in the memoirs of the Literary and Philoſophical Society of Mancheſter.

The regularity of this admirable ſtructure goes even farther. There is a point where, in a ſinking of the height, fifty of theſe columns appear diſpoſed in ſuch a manner that the higheſt, which is forty feet high, and has forty-four joints, ſtands in the centre, and the reſt to the right and left of it, ſlope off gradually till they meet the line on each ſide; from which appearance, that part has been called *the organ pipes*.

There are other peculiarities in this cauſeway, which ſome may think intereſting, but I have confined myſelf to what ſeems to me ſufficient to give an idea of it. Two fine prints were publiſhed by Mr. Drury, preſenting different views of the Giants Cauſeway. Productions of a ſimilar kind are found in Merionethſhire, and in ſome of the Hebrides or Weſtern Iſles. Sir Joſeph Banks conjectures that the ſmall iſland of Staffa, one of the Hebrides, thirty leagues north of the Giants Cauſeway, is a maſs of baſaltic priſms. They are to be found in many other places, but no where on ſo large a ſcale as in the county of Antrim.

The learned have endeavoured to trace the manner in which Nature proceeded in this aſtoniſhing work. Some have aſcribed it to the action of water, others to that of fire; which verifies the ſaying of the wiſe man, "That the Creator had ſo concealed his means in the formation of the world, that they will remain for ever a ſubject of diſpute among men."

In the warmth of the diſcuſſions on the origin of the jointed baſaltes, the naturaliſts divided themſelves into *Neptunians* and *Vulcanians*. They who judge it to be produced by water, rely chiefly on the formation of rock cryſtals by an effect of the tranſudation of the liquid through certain kinds of ſtone; in which manner, for inſtance, the fineſt cryſtals known in the world, are created and regularly figured, by the myſterious operations of Nature, at the bottom of

vaſt

vaſt caverns, near Antongil Bay, to the north-eaſt of the iſland of Madagaſcar.

The Abbé Rochon, who has been at the place, ſays that their enormous maſſes almoſt approach upon the fabulous. We are informed by M. de Kerguelen, in his account of the Marine of France, publiſhed in 1796, that ſome of them are white, and ſome of roſe colour. Their ſides are all perfectly regular. But allowing that theſe productions are ſimilar in the exterior configuration with the jointed Baſaltes, it muſt be allowed alſo, that in every thing elſe they have ſo many, and ſuch eſſential differences, that each is diſtinct from the other, and conſtitutes a different ſpecies; and that, conſequently, nothing can be concluded of the generation of the one, from the generation of the other. Let me obſerve, by the way, that it is near the places where theſe magnificent rock cryſtals are formed, that the valuable tree called the Finguiere is to be found, the milky juices of which congealed, produces the ſingular ſubſtance which we are acquainted with by the name of elaſtic gum.

The *Vulcanians*, far from aſcribing the formation of jointed Baſaltes to the tranquillity of tranſuding water, affirm on the contrary, that it has been generated in the turbulent crucible of volcanoes: that it is no more than a ſpecies of lava, there impregnated with ſalts and minerals, of properties fitted to give a figure to the maſs, ſuch as it appears either internally or externally when the heat goes off; that is to ſay, when the ſhape is fixed by the paſſing away of the fire, as we ſee all ſalts cryſtalize, each in its way, by the evaporation of the water. But here the *Vulcanians* differ among themſelves, ſome holding that a coaleſcence of water was neceſſary to produce the effect, and that conſequently it was not till after the fall of the inflammable matter to the bottom of the ſea, that this kind of lava was generated; and others maintaining that, conſidering the nature of this lava, the action of the air was enough to effect its cryſtallization.

Although the mention of the different opinions of naturaliſts, on the origin of Baſaltes, is ſuitable to the ſubject of this treatiſe, it is not neceſſary that I ſhould enter into the diſcuſſion of theſe two oppoſite ſyſtems; from which I therefore abſtain, confeſſing at the ſame time that it would be a taſk to which I do not think myſelf equal.

Farther, all the *Vulcanians* agree, that no volcano now produces jointed lava. An obſervation which is the more ſtriking, as we are obliged to allow them that this particular kind of ſubſtance is vaſtly more abundant near burning volcanoes, or thoſe acknowledged to have been ſo, than any where elſe. And for this reaſon the *Vulcanian* philoſophers have aſſerted, that where Baſaltes is found, it may be conſidered as a ſufficient proof of volcanoes having exiſted there.

However unwilling I am to adduce facts on this ſubject, which I can ſupport only by my own authority, I ſhall here mention a phenomenon which ſeems favourable to the hypotheſis of the *Vulcanians*, but I will not preſume to give an opinion on ſo doubtful a point. Near a place called Coteuge, about four miles and a half from

from the town of Beſſe, mentioned before, there is a mountain, which ſeems to be entirely formed of a prodigious maſs of jointed Baſaltes. It ſtands oppoſite to another mountain evidently a volcanic one, in the ruins of which is a curioſity, found alſo in ſeveral of the extinguiſhed volcanoes of Sicily; there are numerous appartments of very antique appearance dug within the mountain, on the ſide that fronts the ſouth, where it is perfectly perpendicular. It is not poſſible to go up to them without the aſſiſtance of long ropes; but in ſome parts there are winding ſtairs cut within the burnt rock, which lead from one ſtory to another. The places where the inhabitants ſlept, are to be ſeen, and troughs, which were probably for their goats. Theſe apartments, and all the adjacent country, are remarkably curious. But to return to the baſaltic mountain, although it is ſeparated from the volcanic one, only by a vale fifty paces wide, through which runs a conſiderable ſtream; it has certainly never been burning. A quantity of matter ejected from the neighbouring volcano is found at the foot of it, and here and there on the ſides, but it has no marks of a fire having appertained to itſelf. The earth and ſand upon it, which in ſeveral places cover its baſaltic columns, are in every reſpect of the nature of common earths and ſands. The columns are of a white grey colour, they bear no ſigns of fire, and the grain of them is intirely different from that of lava, particularly the lava of the neighbouring volcano, of which a great abundance has been emitted. They all here lie horizontally, as they do in ſome beds found near Ætna. They are commonly of the heptagon form, and almoſt all of them are a foot and a half in diameter. One would imagine them ſhaped with a chiſel. The ſides of this mountain, which looks towards the volcano, and the foot of which is bathed by the ſtream, being very ſteep, the aſtoniſhing maſs of columns is there ſeen very diſtinctly. It is alſo on this aſcent, which is very difficult to climb, that quantities of it are ſeen which have rolled down the ſteep from their original places.

As there are men of great authority who eſpouſe the opinion of Baſaltes being the production of fire, it was incumbent upon me to ſtate the grounds on which they go in placing Ireland among the countries that have had volcanoes. I ſhall make but one reflection, in which the reader has probably anticipated me, and that is, that this ſtrange and aſtoniſhing work of nature ſeems exhibited purpoſely to mock and defy all ſyſtems.

Account of the Volcano in the Iſle of Bourbon. *From* Devaux's *Hiſtory of* Mauritius.

THIS volcano, though its eruptions are frequent, has not occaſioned any injury to the iſland ſince it has been inhabited. The coloniſts have very wiſely kept at a diſtance from this gulph, whoſe vicinity is very much to be dreaded, according to the deſcription given of it by M. de Commerſon, a very learned naturaliſt.

M. de Cremont, at that time intendant of the iſle of Bourbon, not only gave M. de Commerſon all the aſſiſtance in his power, in order

order to facilitate his approach to the mouth of the volcano, and to examine its productions, but accompanied him in his researches.

The approaches to the volcano of the isle of Bourbon are very difficult; the country is entirely burnt up for six miles round it, and very few of the inhabitants are acquainted with the way by which its summit is to be attained. Seven days are requisite to perform that journey. Heaps of cinders, lava, and vitrified earth, with rifts and precipices, render all access not only laborious but dangerous. The time must be very favourable, and without the appearance of a cloud, to allow of a visit to the crater, as a few drops of rain would be sufficient to provoke an eruption, when the imprudence of approaching it would cost the rash adventurer his life.

The volcanic productions are very various; and sometimes there are found at a great distance from the mountain, certain glassy filaments, of an exceeding fineness resembling hair. This kind of lava is not very common.

The volcano is situated almost at the summit of an hollow and detruncated mountain, whose base falling down with a gentle inclination, rests upon a bed of calcined earth, at the distance of a league from the sea. Though the matter it contains is continually boiling, it never rises so high as to proceed from the crater. In the moment of an eruption, the lava is seen taking its course down the side of the mountain, in such a manner as to offer the appearance of a fiery cascade. The light, which is diffused to a great distance, as well on sea as land, is equal to that of the moon in its full splendour. According to the tradition of the country, it was this natural Pharos, that attracted the curiosity of the first Europeans who visited these coasts.

The environs of the volcano are covered with sal ammoniac, sulphur, allum, and pumice stone. It is a remarkable circumstance, and very different from other volcanoes, that though its eruptions are frequent, they are never accompanied with earthquakes. The security of the inhabitants, therefore, is not engaged by the vicinity of such a phœnomenon, as is known to be the case in every country afflicted by them, nor has it been observed that water is at any time thrown forth from this volcano, or has any warm mineral spring been discovered in this island.

In the month of June, 1787, this volcano was in a very remarkable state of eruption; the summit of the mountain was covered with thick vapours, of a black colour, which issued as clouds of a spiral form from the mouth of the ancient crater. On the 24th the lava ran down as far as the sea; nine days after it had begun to flow, it extended in certain places to thirty fathom in breadth, and in others to forty. The liquid matter continued to run during a month, in great abundance, and formed a fiery current to the very sea, of about sixty fathom in breadth, and from ten to sixteen feet deep. The waves of the sea smoaked at the distance of thirty fathom from the place where the lava precipitated itself into the waters, assuming a yellowish green colour, and forming a broad line, to the leeward, of the same hue.

This

This current running parallel to another of a former period, which conſiſts alſo of ſeveral beds of melted matter, forms a projection whoſe baſe was volcaniſed ſand, mixed with a kind of ferruginous foam. Eleven days after the lava had reached the ſea, a ſolid cruſt was formed on its ſurface which was ſufficiently ſtrong to admit of being aſcended to about fifteen paces from the place whence it iſſued. Indeed one might venture to walk without danger on the torrent of burning lava if due precautions were taken. In the level parts it ſoon grows cool, and becomes hard as thick ice, while, through the crevices, the liquid matter might be ſeen flowing on without interruption. When, however, it meets with any obſtacle, it forces its way through the external cruſt, and covers it with a new bed of boiling lava. On the 1ſt of Auguſt the lava ceaſed to flow, but it diffuſed a conſiderable quantity of ſmoke, and appeared at the bottom to be red hot for ſome time afterwards. It was believed that another crater was diſcovered at about a league from St. Denis, the capital of the iſland; clouds of ſmoke and a very ſtrong heat iſſued from a ravine, which it was impracticable to approach during the ſpace of a month. At the end however of that period it appears, that this heat, and the ſmoke that accompanied it, iſſued from a cavern that was the hiding place of ſome Maroon negroes. A fire having been lighted in this place, either on purpoſe or by accident, was maintained by a large quantity of leaves, ſtalks, and other combuſtible materials, which were very ſlow in conſuming, becauſe the cavern admitted but a ſmall portion of air. The remains of birds neſts, which were found there, clearly proved that the cavern had not always been expoſed to a ſimilar degree of heat; and this circumſtance, ſtrengthened by other obſervations, quieted the alarms that this novel appearance had excited.

The Iſle of France, which is in the vicinity of the Iſle of Bourbon, is conſidered as a country which has been expoſed to the violent convulſions of nature. It abounds in caverns, precipices, waterfalls, ſubterraneous paſſages, iron mines, calcined ſtones, vitrifications, burnt ſand, and pyrites, which are general indications of ancient volcanoes; but, on account of their antiquity, it is not poſſible at this time to determine their ſituation. The moſt lofty mountains in this iſland have not more than five hundred fathom of elevation, while, in the Iſle of Bourbon, there are peaks which riſe to upwards of fifteen hundred fathom. The two iſlands, which are more than thirty-five leagues diſtance from each other, were, without doubt, formerly united, but have been divided by ſome violent effort of nature: there is indeed every reaſon to believe that they are ſtill connected, though the ſubjoining parts are covered by the ſea, and that ſome ſubterraneous paſſage forms a communication between them.

The earthquake which happened in the Iſle of France on the 4th of Auguſt, 1786, appeared to favour this conjecture. On that day, at thirty-five minutes paſt ſix in the morning, a calm ſucceeded to a ſtrong eaſt and eaſt-ſouth-eaſt wind, which had prevailed during four days;

days; a ſubterraneous noiſe, that terminated by a ſudden exploſion, like the diſcharge of a cannon, was heard in the ſouth-eaſt quarter, and at the ſame moment two violent ſhocks were felt, the one vertical, and the other horizontal: the barometer on this occaſion did not indicate the leaſt change in the atmoſphere, and an eaſt-ſouth-eaſt breeze commenced within a quarter of an hour, and continued till eleven the following night. This ſtrange phœnomenon was not accompanied with any deſtructive circumſtance in the Iſle of France, but it appeared that at the ſame moment the volcano in the Iſle of Bourbon had poured forth a greater quantity of lava than it had done on the preceding days.

It is reaſonable therefore to ſuppoſe, that the combuſtible matter in the Iſle of France had fermented till it took fire, and having met with a reſiſtance ſuperior to its own force, occaſioned the ſhocks which have been mentioned; when, being impelled in every direction, it found a paſſage by a ſubterraneous gallery to the Iſle of Bourbon, and not meeting with any reſiſtance, iſſued from the crater of the volcano.

Account of the Diſcovery of Silver in Herland Copper Mine. By the Rev. Malachi Hitchins. *Communicated by the Right Hon. Sir* Joſeph Banks, Bart. K. B. P. R. S. *From the Philoſophical Tranſactions.*

HERLAND Mine is ſituated in the pariſh of Gwinear, about ſeven miles N. E. of St. Michael's Mount, on the ſouthern coaſt of Cornwall; and two miles and a half from the mouth of river Hayle, on the northern coaſt of the ſame county: it is contiguous to Prince George Mine.

It commences in a valley on the weſt, and paſſes through a hill, which is firſt of ſteep and then of moderate aſcent, for upwards of half a mile eaſtward; when the principal copper lodes, which follow this direction, meet with a large croſs lode, by which, and by other croſs courſes and flookans, which interſect them in their fartheſt progreſs, they are repeatedly heaved, and ſo diſordered by theſe heaves, in their form and poſition, and ſo changed by them, in reſpect to their compoſition, as hardly to be recognized.

The ſtrata of the diſtrict in which this takes place, conſiſt of the common metalliferous ſort of argillaceous ſlate, called *killas*.

The copper lodes of this diſtrict are remarkable for the ſhortneſs of their continuity; for, whereas other lodes may be traced to an indefinite extent in the ſame line of direction, theſe, on the contrary, are obſerved to taper away gradually, and terminate, to all appearance, at a ſhort diſtance, completely and irrecoverably.

This mine was worked about twenty years ago, when it was ſunk to the depth of one hundred fathoms from the ſurface. It was again ſet to work about eight years ſince; has now four fire-engines and two ſtream-whims on it, and is ſunk to a depth of one hundred and fifty-five fathoms below the ſurface, or, as the miners call it, from *graſs*.

It is in this latter period of its hiſtory, that a diſcovery has been

made of a conſiderable quantity of ſilver ore in a particular part of the mine, the ſingularity of which diſcovery, in this country, has much excited the curioſity of the public.

For, although the numerous veins of lead in Cornwall are richly impregnated with ſilver, and occaſionally yield ſmall quantities of ſilver ores, and even ſpecimens of native ſilver, yet hitherto no inſtance had been known of their yielding this precious metal in ſuch abundance; nor had any circumſtances, in the natural hiſtory of the mineral veins of this conntry, bore any analogy to thoſe which accompanied the preſent diſcovery.

Theſe circumſtances, therefore, having been examined with more attention than uſual, ſhall be ſtated with as much preciſion as it is poſſible to obtain from the report of thoſe practical miners only who have hitherto inſpected them.

The facts which deſerve to be firſt noticed are, the confined and inſulated poſition of the maſs of ſilver ore, its great depth from the ſurface of the mine, and its contiguity to a copper lode.

The lode in which it occurs is one of thoſe croſs courſes, as they are here called, which interſect and derange the copper lodes, and conſequently are of a more recent formation.

Lodes in this direction are uſually filled with quartz, but frequently produce galena; and ſometimes, inſtead of galena, ſulphurated antimony. They appear here to conform to the ſame laws, except in the particular inſtance now to be deſcribed, which forms, indeed, a very remarkable exception.

No ores of ſilver were obſervable in this lode until at the depth of one hundred and ten fathoms from the ſurface, or eighty below the adit or level, and at the farther depth of thirty-two fathoms they diſappeared.

They have been diſcovered only in the neighbourhood of one of the interſected copper lodes, extending no where above twelve feet from this lode on the north, or about thirty-two feet from it on the ſouth, and acquiring this their greateſt extent at the deepeſt level; for the uſual dimenſions of the ſilver ore are not more than ſix feet in the former ſituation, and twelve feet in the latter.

It is remarkable, that at the point of contact or interſection, the contents of the ſilver lode are ſo poor as to be ſcarcely worth ſaving; and thoſe of the copper lode are much leſs productive of copper than at a little diſtance from this point. Moreover, that the copper lode, in the vicinity of the interſection, ſeems to have been influenced by the ſame cauſes of improvement and declenſion as the croſs lode; being richer or poorer in copper, as the latter was, at a correſpondent level, in ſilver.

The richeſt maſs of ſilver ore was found at the depth of two fathoms above the level at which it diſappears.

After this brief account of the moſt ſtriking facts, it may be proper to enter into a more particular deſcription of the two lodes which appear, by their interſection, to have generated this body of extraneous matter.

The copper lode bears nearly eaſt and weſt by the compaſs; the croſs

croſs lode nearly north and ſouth, or at right angles to it.

The former is about two feet broad on an average, and it dips or underlies ſouth one foot in a fathom. The breadth of the latter is about two feet and a half on an average, and its underlie is eaſt about eight inches in a fathom.

The heave of the copper lode is about eighteen or twenty inches to the right, in the language of the Corniſh miner; the expreſſion being ſo far appropriate and convenient, as it refers to the uſual ſituation of the obſerver in the heaved lode.

The copper lode is filled with layers of ore and ſtony matter, the latter of which is here called *Caple*; but the ore is uſually found contiguous to the walls of the lode.

The contents of the croſs lode are more ſingular in reſpect to their local poſition, and more various. Only the eaſtern ſide of it produces ſilver ore, the breadth of which is in general about ſix or eight inches, although in ſome places it is greater. The other part of the lode is chiefly compoſed of quartz, intermixed with iron, manganeſe, and wolpam, together with a ſmall portion of cobalt and antimony.

The ſilver ore, ſtrictly ſpeaking, is a mixture of galena, native biſmuth, grey cobalt ore, vitreous ſilver ore, and native ſilver, which, in reſpect to their proportions, follow the order in which they are here enumerated, the galena being the moſt prevalent. The native ſilver, of which ſpecimens of the greateſt beauty have been reſerved for the cabinets of the curious, is found chiefly in a capillary form in the natural cavities of the lode.

About one hundred and eighty tons of this ore have been raiſed. The miners continue to ſink near the ſame point of interſection, and ſeem confident that both lodes will ſoon become richer, becauſe ſimilar inſtances of declenſion and recovery have frequently occurred in the copper lodes of this mine, and becauſe the two lodes appear to have a reciprocal influence on each other.

Unfortunately, however, the extent of this ſpeculation is limited by the great depth of the preſent workings; for forty-five fathoms have been ſunk ſince the firſt diſcovery of the ſilver, and twenty or twenty-five fathoms more are as much as can be ſunk in this mine with its preſent mechanical powers of drawing the water; at which level, viz. one hundred and eighty fathoms from the ſurface, it would be ſomewhat deeper than any mine in Cornwall, and about one hundred and thirty fathoms below the level of the ſea at low water mark.

The croſs lodes in this mine produce no ſilver, moſt of them being ſlookans, or lodes, which are eſſentially different from the argentiferous croſs lode in the nature of their conſtituent maſs. There is one, however, in the eaſtern part of the mine, which, from its reſemblance to that, is thought likely to produce ſilver, whenever it ſhall be explored to the ſame depth at its point of interſection; although theſe hopes may probably be fallacious, for the argentiferous lode interſects five other copper lodes, viz. two on the north, and three on the ſouth ſide, without producing any ſilver.

Obſervations on the Sugar Ants in the Iſland of Grenada; *from* Bryan Edwards's *Hiſtory of the* Weſt Indies, vol. iii.

THE Sugar Ants, ſo called from their ruinous effects on ſugar cane, are ſuppoſed to have firſt made their appearance in Grenada, about the year 1770, on a ſugar plantation at Petit Havre, a bay five or ſix miles from the town of St. George, the capital, conveniently ſituated for ſmuggling from Martinico: it was therefore concluded they were brought from thence in ſome veſſel employed in that trade, which is very probable, as colonies of them in like manner were afterwards propagated in different parts of the iſland by droghers or veſſels employed in carrying ſtores, &c. from one part of the iſland to another.

From thence they continued to extend themſelves on all ſides for ſeveral years, deſtroying in ſucceſſion every ſugar plantation between St. George's and St. John's, a ſpace of about twelve miles. At the ſame time colonies of them began to be obſerved in different parts of the iſland, particularly at Duqueſne on the north, and Calavini on the ſouth ſide of it.

All attempts of the planters to put a ſtop to the ravages of theſe inſects having been found ineffectua, it well became the legiſlature to offer great public rewards to any perſon who ſhould diſcover a practicable method of deſtroying them, ſo as to permit the cultivation of the ſugar cane as formerly. Accordingly an act of aſſembly was paſſed, by which ſuch diſcoverer was entitled to twenty thouſand pounds, to be paid from the public treaſury of the iſland.

Many were the candidates on this occaſion, but very far were any of them from having any juſt claim; nevertheleſs, conſiderable ſums of money were granted in conſideration of trouble and expences in making experiments, &c.

In Grenada there had always been ſeveral ſpecies of ants, differing in ſize, colour, &c. which however were perfectly innocent with reſpect to the ſugar cane. The ants in queſtion, on the contrary, were not only highly injurious to it, but to ſeveral ſorts of trees, ſuch as the lime, lemon, orange, &c.

Theſe ants are of the middle ſize, of a ſlender make, of a dark red colour, and remarkable for the quickneſs of their motions, but their greateſt peculiarities are, their taſte when applied to the tongue, the immenſity of their number, and their choice of places for their neſts.

All the other ſpecies of ants in Grenada have a bitter muſky taſte. Theſe, on the contrary, are acid in the higheſt degree, and when a number of them were rubbed together between the palms of the hands they emitted a ſtrong vitriolic ſulphureous ſmell; ſo much ſo, that, when this experiment was made, a gentleman conceived that it might be owing to this quality that theſe inſects were ſo unfriendly to vegetation.

This criterion to diſtinguiſh them was infallible, and known to every one.

Their numbers were incredible. I have ſeen the roads coloured by them for miles together, and ſo

crowded were they in many places, that the print of the horſes feet would appear for a moment or two, until filled up by the ſurrounding multitude. This is no exaggeration. All the other ſpecies of ants, although numerous, were circumſcribed, and confined to a ſmall ſpot, in proportion to the ſpace occupied by the cane ants, as a mole hill to a mountain.

The common black ants of that country had their neſts about the foundation of houſes, or old walls; others in hollow trees, and a large ſpecies in the paſtures, deſcending by a ſmall aperture under ground. The ſugar ants, I believe, univerſally conſtructed their neſts among the roots of particular plants and trees, ſuch as the ſugar cane, lime, lemon, and orange trees, &c.

The deſtruction of theſe ants was attempted chiefly two ways, by poiſon, and application of fire.

For the firſt purpoſe arſenic and corroſive ſublimate mixed with animal ſubſtances, ſuch as ſalt fiſh, herrings, crabs, and other ſhell fiſh, &c. were uſed, which was greedily devoured by them. Myriads of them were thus deſtroyed, and the more ſo, as it was obſerved by a magnifying glaſs, and indeed (though not ſo diſtinctly) by the naked eye, that corroſive ſublimate had the effect of rendering them ſo outrageous that they deſtroyed each other, and that effect was produced even by coming into contact with it. But it is clear, and it was found, that theſe poiſons could not be laid in ſufficient quantities over ſo large a track of land as to give the hundred thouſandth part of them a taſte.

The uſe of fire afforded a greater probability of ſucceſs, for (from whatever cauſe) it was obſerved, that if wood, burnt to the ſtate of charcoal, without flame, and immediately taken from the fire, was laid in their way, they crowded to it in ſuch amazing numbers as ſoon to extinguiſh it, although with the deſtruction of thouſands of them in effecting it. This part of their hiſtory appears ſcarcely credible; but, on making the experiment myſelf, I found it literally true. I laid fire, as above deſcribed, where there appeared but very few ants, and in the courſe of a few minutes thouſands were ſeen crowding to it, and upon it, till it was perfectly covered by their dead bodies. Holes were therefore dug at proper diſtances in a cane piece, and fire made in each hole. Prodigious quantities periſhed in this way; for thoſe fires, when extinguiſhed, appeared in the ſhape of mole hills, from the numbers of their dead bodies heaped on them. Nevertheleſs the ants ſoon appeared again as numerous as ever. This may be accounted for, not only from their amazing fecundity, but that probably none of the breeding ants or young brood ſuffered from the experiment.

For the ſame reaſon, the momentary general application of fire by burning the cane traſh (or ſtraw of the cane) as it lay on the ground, proved as little effectual; for although, perhaps, multitudes of ants might have been deſtroyed, yet in general they would eſcape by retiring to their neſts under cover out of its reach, and the breeding ants with their young progeny muſt have remained unhurt.

This calamity, which reſiſted ſo long the efforts of the planters, was at length removed by another; which, however ruinous to the other iſlands in the Weſt-Indies, and in other reſpects, was to Grenada a very great bleſſing; namely, the hurricane in 1780, without which it is probable the cultivation of the ſugar cane in the moſt valuable parts of that iſland muſt have in a great meaſure been thrown aſide, at leaſt for ſome years. How this hurricane produced this effect has been conſidered rather as a matter of wonder and ſurprize than attempted to be explained. By attending to the following obſervations, the difficulty, I believe, will be removed.

Theſe ants make their neſts or cells for the reception of their eggs only under or among the roots of ſuch trees or plants as are not only capable of protecting them from heavy rains, but are at the ſame time ſo firm in the ground as to afford a ſecure baſis to ſupport them againſt any injury occaſioned by the agitation of the uſual winds. This double qualification the ſugar cane poſſeſſes in a very great degree, for a ſtool of canes (which is the aſſemblage of its numerous roots) where the ſtems begin to ſhoot out, is almoſt impenetrable to rain, and is alſo, from the amazing numbers and extenſion of the roots, firmly fixed to the ground. Thus when every other part of the field is drenched with rain, the ground under theſe ſtools will be found quite dry, as I and every other planter muſt have obſerved when digging out the ſtools in a cane piece, to prepare for replanting. And when canes are lodged or laid down by the uſual winds, or fall down by their own luxuriancy, the ſtools commonly remain in the ground; hence, in ordinary weather, the neſts of theſe ants are in a ſtate of perfect ſecurity.

The lime, lemon, orange, and ſome other trees, afford theſe inſects the ſame advantages from the great number and quality of their roots, which are firmly fixed to the earth, and are very large; beſides which, their tops are ſo very thick and umbrageous as to prevent even a very heavy rain from reaching the ground underneath.

On the contrary, theſe ants' neſts are never found at the roots of trees or plants incapable of affording the above protection; ſuch for inſtance as the coffee tree: it is indeed ſufficiently firm in the ground, but it has only one large tap root, which goes ſtraight downwards; and its lateral roots are ſo ſmall as to afford no ſhelter againſt rain. So again, the roots of the cotton ſhrub run too near the ſurface of the earth to prevent the acceſs of rain, and are neither ſufficiently permanent, nor firm enough to reſiſt the agitation by the uſual winds. The ſame obſervation will be found true with reſpect to cocoas, plantains, maize, tobacco, indigo, and many other ſpecies of trees and plants.

Trees or plants of the firſt deſcription always ſuffer more or leſs in lands infeſted with theſe ants, whereas thoſe of the latter never do. Hence we may fairly conclude, that the miſchief done by theſe inſects is occaſioned only by their lodging and making their neſts about the roots of particular trees or plants. Thus the roots of the ſugar canes are ſome how or

other

other ſo much injured by them as to be incapable of performing their office of ſupplying due nouriſhment to the plants, which therefore become ſickly and ſtinted, and conſequently do not afford juices fit for making ſugar in either tolerable quantity or quality.

That theſe ants do not feed on any part of the canes or trees affected ſeems very clear, for no loſs of ſubſtance in either the one or the other has ever been obſerved, nor have they ever been ſeen carrying off vegetable ſubſtances of any ſort.

On the contrary, there is the greateſt preſumption that theſe ants are carnivorous, and feed entirely on animal ſubſtances; for if a dead inſect, or animal food of any ſort, was laid in their way it was immediately carried off. It was found almoſt impoſſible to preſerve cold victuals from them. The largeſt carcaſſes, as ſoon as they began to become putrid, ſo as that they could ſeparate the parts, ſoon diſappeared. Negroes with ſores had difficulty to keep the ants from the edges of them. They deſtroyed all other vermin, rats in particular, of which they cleared every plantation they came upon, which they probably effected by attacking their young. It was found that poultry, or other ſmall ſtock, could be raiſed with the greateſt difficulty; and the eyes, noſe, and other emunctories of the bodies of dying or dead animals were inſtantly covered with theſe ants.

From what has been ſaid it appears, that a dry ſituation, ſo as to exclude the ordinary rains from their neſts or cells, appropriated for the reception of their eggs or young brood, is abſolutely neceſſary; but that theſe ſituations, however well calculated for uſual weather, could not afford this protection from rain during the hurricane may be eaſily conceived.

When by the violence of the tempeſt heavy pieces of artillery were removed from their places, and houſes and ſugar works levelled with the ground; there can be no doubt that trees, and every thing growing above ground, muſt have greatly ſuffered. This was the caſe, great numbers of trees and plants (which commonly reſiſt the ordinary winds) were torn out by the roots. The canes were univerſally either lodged or twiſted about as if by a whirlwind, or torn out of the ground altogether. In the latter caſe, the breeding ants, with their progeny, muſt have been expoſed to inevitable deſtruction from the deluge of rain which fell at the ſame time. The number of canes, however, thus torn out of the ground could not have been adequate to the ſudden diminution of the ſugar ants; but it is eaſy to conceive that the roots of canes, which remained on the ground, and the earth about them, were ſo agitated and ſhaken, and at the ſame time the ants' neſts were ſo broken open or injured by the violence of the wind as to admit the torrents of rain accompanying it. I apprehend, therefore, that the principal deſtruction of theſe ants muſt have been thus effected.

It muſt not however be denied, that though nature for a time may permit a particular ſpecies of animal to become ſo diſproportionably numerous as to endanger ſome other parts of her works, ſhe herſelf will

in due time put a check upon the too great increaſe, and that is often done by an increaſe of ſome other animal inimical to the former deſtroyers. In the preſent caſe, however, nothing of that ſort appeared; therefore, when a plain natural cauſe, obvious to our ſenſes, occurred, by which we can account for the amazing and ſudden decreaſe of thoſe ruinous inſects, it is unneceſſary to recur to other poſſible cauſes too minute for our inveſtigation.

All I have ſaid on this ſubject would certainly be of little or no conſequence did it not lead to the true method of cultivating the ſugar cane on lands infeſted with thoſe deſtructive inſects, in which point of view, however, it becomes important.

If then the above doctrine be juſt, it follows that the whole of our attention muſt be turned to the deſtruction of the neſts of theſe ants, and conſequently the breeding ants, with their eggs or young brood.

In order to effect this, all trees and fences, under the roots of which theſe ants commonly take their reſidence, ſhould firſt be grubbed out; particularly lime or lemon fences, which are very common in Grenada, and which generally ſuffered from the ants before the canes appeared in the leaſt injured; after which the canes ſhould be ſtumped out with care, and the ſtools burnt as ſoon as poſſible, together with the field traſh, (or the dried leaves and tops of the canes,) and in order to prevent the ants from making their eſcape to new quarters. The beſt way of doing this, I apprehend, will be to gather the field traſh together in conſiderable heaps, and to throw the ſtools as ſoon as dug out of the ground into them, and immediately apply fire. By this means multitudes muſt be deſtroyed, for the field traſh when dry burns with great rapidity. The land ſhould then be ploughed or hoe-ploughed twice (but at leaſt once) in the wetteſt ſeaſon of the year, in order to admit the rains, before it is hoed for planting the cane; by theſe means theſe inſects, I apprehend, will be ſo much reduced in number as at leaſt to ſecure a good plant cane.

But it is the cuſtom in moſt of the Weſt-India iſlands to permit the canes to ratoon; that is, after the canes have been once cut down for the purpoſe of making ſugar, they are ſuffered to grow up again without replanting; and this generally for three or four years, but ſometimes for ten, fifteen, or twenty. In this mode of culture the ſtools become larger every year, ſo as to grow out of the ground to a conſiderable height, and by that means afford more and more ſhelter to the ants' neſts; therefore, for two or three ſucceſſive crops, the canes ſhould be replanted yearly, ſo as not only to afford as little cover as poſſible for the ants' neſts, but continually to diſturb ſuch ants as may have eſcaped in the buſineſs of propagating their ſpecies.

That conſiderable expence and labour will attend putting this method into execution there is no doubt. An expenſive cure, however, is better than none; but from the general principles of agriculture, I am of opinion that the planter will be amply repaid for his trouble by the goodneſs of his

crops,

crops, in conſequence of the ſuperior tilth the land will receive in the propoſed method.

An anatomical Deſcription of a Male Rhinoceros. By Mr. H. Leigh Thomas, *Surgeon. Communicated by* George Fordyce, M. D. F. R. S. *From the Philoſophical Tranſactions.*

OUR knowledge of this animal has hitherto been extremely limited, both with regard to its natural hiſtory, and alſo its internal ſtructure. A paper by James Parſons, M. D. giving a very accurate deſcription of a young rhinoceros, was read before the Royal Society in June, 1743; but, as the doctor does not attempt to deſcribe more of it than the external figure and coverings, (which are delineated,) we may preſume that he never had any opportunity of examining the internal parts: his account, however, as far as it goes, is in every reſpect correct; I ſhall not, therefore, take up the time of this learned Society by a uſeleſs recapitulation, but proceed to deſcribe ſuch appearances as have not yet been noticed.

The ſubject of the following obſervations was brought from the Eaſt Indies to England, where it was intended he ſhould remain until a favourable opportunity ſhould offer of ſending him to Vienna. During the paſſage from India he appeared to enjoy a good ſtate of health, which continued uninterrupted until a few days before his death, at which time he was attacked with difficulty of breathing, and died before he had attained his third year. In the courſe of this time he had become perfectly docile and tame, but never, by actions or otherwiſe, expreſſed the ſmalleſt regard or affection for his keeper, or for any of the people who occaſionally fed him; neither was he eaſily irritated, but preſerved on all occaſions the moſt perfect indifference and ſtupidity. He was fed chiefly upon hay and oats, alſo potatoes, and other freſh vegetables; his conſumption of which was prodigious, exceeding that of two or three working horſes. It would appear that this animal had not arrived to near its full growth: he was ſcarcely ſo high as a two year old heifer; but the bulk of his body, by meaſurement, conſiderably exceeded the length. The horn, which is affixed to the upper lip of the adult rhinoceros, was here juſt beginning to ſprout. The hoofs were divided in three obtuſe parts: the ſoles of the feet were well defended by a large maſs of elaſtic matter, covered by a ſtrong horn-like ſubſtance.

It will not be neceſſary to give a minute detail of the anatomy of this animal; it is only requiſite to remark appearances which are peculiar to it, and ſuch as are not commonly met with in other quadrupeds: in general the ſtructure may be ſaid to correſpond to that of the horſe; the peculiarities, however, ſhall be briefly noticed.

The ſkin, it is well known, is extremely hard and tuberculated; though ſmoother, and eaſily cut through by a common knife, on the under parts of the body: a conſiderable degree of ſliding motion was obſervable between it and the

the ſurface underneath; this aroſe from the great quantity of looſe cellular membrane, depoſited between them, for the purpoſe of allowing the hard ſkin a power of accommodating itſelf to the body when in a recumbent poſition. I could not obſerve any fibres correſponding to the panniculus carnoſus, generally found in quadrupeds; indeed this muſcle would have been uſeleſs here, for, from the ſtructure of the ſkin, the animal could not be ſenſible to the bites of inſects; nor could ſo weak a power act upon a ſubſtance ſo ſtrong and inelaſtic. The abdominal muſcles were exceedingly ſtrong, and well marked: the tendinous faſciæ were much thicker than I had ever obſerved in any other animal, obviouſly to give a ſufficient ſupport to the great weight of the viſcera. The inciſor teeth were only four in number, two ſituated in each jaw; theſe are placed a conſiderable diſtance from each other: beſides them, I obſerved in the head of another rhinoceros, five years old, and where the ſoft parts had been removed, two ſmaller teeth, placed one on each ſide thoſe of the lower jaw; theſe were not pointed. There were only eight of the molares in each jaw: this number, of courſe, would be increaſed, as the growth of the maxillary bones advanced; their form may be conſidered as peculiar, and has been already noticed by Mr. Home in the Philoſophical Tranſactions for 1799, Tab. XXI. The inſide of the mouth preſented nothing unuſual; the membranes covering it were not thicker than thoſe found in other graminivorous animals. The pharynx and œſophagus were large and capacious. The ſtomach, with the whole of the alimentary canal, was, in external appearance, very ſimilar to that of the horſe, only that the cœcum was conſiderably larger, which variety accounts for the great ſize of the abdomen already noticed. The ſtomach, upon its inſide, was in every part covered by a ſecreting ſurface; whereas, in the horſe it is partly cuticular. The ſmall inteſtines were extremely ſhort, but the ſurface upon the inſide was conſiderably extended by the internal coat being thrown into proceſſes of an oblong form; theſe, after the meſenteric veſſels were injected, put on a beautiful villous appearance: it would appear that they anſwer the ſame purpoſe as the valvulæ conniventes in the human ſubject; they differ only in the mode of arrangement, and are unlike what I have ever obſerved in any other animal.

The liver was of a dark black colour, very ſoft, giving as little reſiſtance to preſſure as the human ſpleen generally does: it was divided into ſeveral lobes. The gall bladder was wanting. The ſpleen and pancreas were very ſimilar to thoſe of the ox. The kidnies were large, and conſiderably flattened: they were lobulated, but their lobes did not appear ſo diſtinct as thoſe of the ſame gland belonging to the bear; probably, as the animal advances in life, this appearance may be altogether loſt, as takes place in the human body, and a variety of other animals. Upon throwing ſome ſize, coloured with vermillion, into the emulent artery, I was ſurprized to perceive

perceive the coloured matter eſcape by the ureter, without any conſiderable preſſure of the piſton: this circumſtance induced me to inſert the pipe into the excretory duct of the other kidney, when the injection eſcaped, with the ſame eaſe, by both artery and vein. I ſhould not have noticed theſe circumſtances, which have occaſionally occurred to me when injecting the human kidnies, and alſo thoſe of other animals; but, in theſe inſtances, the great facility with which the injection paſſed ſurprized me, and at the ſame time proved, in a remarkable manner, the ſimple ſtructure of this gland. The organs of generation had not arrived to maturity: the teſtes were ſmall, and ſituated without the abdomen; the vaſa deferentia did not allow quickſilver to paſs along them; and, upon the whole, it was evident the teſtes never had ſecreted. The veſiculæ ſeminales were cellular, and in ſhape and ſtructure like thoſe in the human ſubject: they contained only a ſmall quantity of a ropy fluid. Upon throwing ſome coloured wax into the corpora cavernoſa of the penis, the extremity became expanded, with the meatus urinarius placed in the centre; this expanſion was not ſo conſiderable, as is obſerved in the horſe; about three inches below a ſecond enlargement took place, though not ſo compleat and perfect as the firſt. The penis was curved in its form, with the convex ſide towards the body, which proves that this animal muſt be a retro-coient; indeed his general ſtructure might have ſuggeſted this idea, had not theſe parts been particularly attended to. The contents of the thorax preſented nothing worthy of remark. The lungs every where adhered to the inſide of the thorax, and were in a high ſtate of inflammation; which latter circumſtance was probably the cauſe of the animal's death.

Whilſt the animal was living, the eyes always appeared dull and watery; the upper and under palpebræ were ſcarcely ever obſerved to come together; the palpebra tertia was frequently carried over the cornea, and correſponded in ſhape and ſtructure to that of the ox. The muſcles of the eye-ball were exactly ſimilar to thoſe of other graminivorous animals: the globe of the eye was not larger than that of the ſheep, and the cornea was much ſmaller. Upon cutting through the ſclerotic coat it was found ſomewhat harder and thicker than what is obſerved in the ſheep; and, upon endeavouring to ſeparate it from the choroid, I found an uncommon reſiſtance at the poſterior part of the eye; though in other parts the adheſion between the coats appeared leſs than what takes place in the human body. This unuſual connection naturally directed my attention more particularly towards it, when I readily diſcovered four proceſſes, ariſing by diſtinct tendons from the internal and poſterior portion of the ſclerotica, and at equal diſtances from the optic nerve. Theſe proceſſes paſſed forward between the coats, gradually becoming broader, and being inſenſibly loſt in, and forming a part of, the choroid, at the broadeſt diameter of the eye; the connection between the coats around the outer circle of the cornea was the ſame

as

as is obſerved in the eye of other animals. The proceſſes had a muſcular appearance, the fibres running forward in a radiated direction; they were detached from the coats with the greateſt facility, except at their origins and inſertions, where it required conſiderable force to tear them from the ſclerotica; and, at their terminations, they became ſo intimately connected with the choroid, as to form only one ſubſtance. On neither of their ſurfaces was there any thing ſimilar to the nigrum pigmentum; the pigment was confined to the inſide of the choroid coat, without any ſtructure ſimilar to the tapetum lucidum. The ciliary proceſſes were affixed to the cryſtalline lens; they were extremely ſhort, and indiſtinct, not having that beautiful arrangement commonly ſeen in the eye of other quadrupeds. The iris was circular, and of a dark brown colour. The cryſtalline lens was ſomewhat remarkable with reſpect to its form being nearly ſpherical; this was very ſtrongly marked when compared with the lenſes of ſeveral other animals; the anterior ſurface was a little flattened.

The peculiarities already obſerved in the ſtructure of the eye in different animals are very numerous, but I do not know that the variety above ſtated has hitherto been noticed by any one; the ſtructure of the proceſſes, as far as the ſight can determine, appears to be muſcular; and, what more particularly tends to confirm this notion, is the very diſtinct tendons connecting them with the ſclerotic coat. It is well known that the iris, and alſo other parts of the body, poſſeſs to a great degree the power of contraction, without our being able to demonſtrate muſcular fibres; allowing therefore theſe proceſſes to have the common properties of muſcles, we ſhall be better enabled to form ſome idea of their uſes.

It is related by naturaliſts that the rhinoceros does not enjoy a very quick ſight, and that he can only diſtinguiſh objects which are placed immediately before him. This notion moſt probably has ariſen from the apparent dullneſs of his eyes, and the great difficulty he muſt meet with in turning the head from ſide to ſide, encaſed as the neck is by its ſtrong unyielding coverings. I conclude, however, that if we ſhould ever become acquainted with the natural habits of this animal, his viſion will be found to be as perfect as that of any other of the ſame claſs. In the muſcles I have already remarked that there is no difference, of courſe the eye-ball with thoſe powers muſt enjoy the common motions. With reſpect to his ability for ſeeing near objects, it is not probable that nature ſhould have denied to this creature a faculty which has been granted to every other, viz. a power of minutely examining their food before it is taken into the ſtomach; now, as his eyes are placed nearer the mouth than in any other quadruped we are yet acquainted with, it is but reaſonable to ſuppoſe that his powers for accommodating viſion to very near objects muſt be equal if not ſuperior to theirs. In the eaſy and natural ſtate of the eye it is probably ſo adjuſted as to view with perſpicuity very near objects,

requiring

requiring ſome change to adapt it for diſtinguiſhing diſtant ones. This change moſt likely is effected by the four proceſſes acting conjointly: at their terminations they completely encircle the eye at its broadeſt diameter; therefore, upon their contracting, the axis of viſion will be ſhortened, and the retina brought nearer to the cryſtalline lens; conſequently the eye will be better fitted for ſeeing objects at a diſtance. In birds there is placed at the poſterior part of the eye a muſcular proceſs, called by Haller pecten avium, by others marſupium: this anſwers the ſame purpoſes as theſe proceſſes, the arrangement of its fibres only differing. In the chameleon, and alſo in many fiſhes, a ſimilar ſtructure is found calculated to produce the ſame effects; and probably ſomething of the ſame nature may be ſeen in the eyes of many other animals which has hitherto eſcaped obſervation.

Account of the Bat of Madagaſcar; *from the Hiſtory of* Mauritius, *by the Viſcount* Devaux.

WE ſhall now mention an animal of a very ſingular nature, which M. de Buffon calls the great Bat of Madagaſcar.

It is about a foot in length from its poſterior extremity to its beak, and its wings ſtretch to about four feet; it has large canine teeth, conſiſting of four in the upper and as many in the lower jaw; its muzzle is black and ſharp, its ears large and bare, its talons are hooked, large and compreſſed; it has no tail. Theſe Bats are of different colours, ſome of a bright red, others brown, and ſome are almoſt black. They reſemble a common Bat in their interior conformation, the ſhape of their wings, and the manner of ſpreading them when they fly. When theſe animals repoſe they cling to the tops of the higheſt trees, and hang with their heads downwards. At other times they fix themſelves upon animals, and even upon man himſelf. They feed indifferently on fruit, fleſh, and inſects. They are ſo fond of the juice of the palm tree, that they ſometimes intoxicate themſelves with it ſo as to fall to the ground. Their horrid ſhrieks are heard, during the night, in the foreſts at the diſtance of two miles, but they retire at the approach of day. Nothing is ſafe from the ravages of theſe deſtructive creatures; they equally deſtroy the wild and domeſtic birds whenever they have an opportunity, and they will ſometimes attack the human kind by ſeizing and tearing the viſage. It is very probable, as M. de Buffon has obſerved, that the ancients borrowed their ideas of harpies from theſe terrible animals. The Indians conſider them as a palatable article of food, particularly in certain ſeaſons of the year, when they are full of fat; and even ſome of the French people, both in this iſland and the iſle of Bourdon, have brought themſelves, in this particular, to follow the Indian example. The Negroes, however, hold them in the greateſt horror; and no conſideration whatever could induce them to have any other concern with theſe noxious creatures, but to deſtroy them; for which purpoſe they

they employ uncommon dexterity. It has often happened that perſons have been attacked while aſleep, and bled to death by them, as they are powerful and ſubtile blood ſuckers; ſo that it is really dangerous to ſlumber in the open air, or to let them enter into an houſe during the night.

Account of the Dronte; from the ſame Work.

THERE is found alſo in this iſland the Dronte, Raphus (Briſſon, Mochr, Dodo, Edwards,) which is a ſpecies of itſelf, though ſome have ſuppoſed it to belong to that of the oſtrich.

It commonly inhabits the iſland of Mauritius, ſo celebrated for the beautiful ebony wood which it produces. It is a very ſtupid animal: in ſize and figure it is between that of the turkey and the oſtrich; it is taller than the ſwan; its head is long, large, and ſhapeleſs; its feathers riſe to a point on the forehead, and grow round the beak and on the face, in the form of an hood, from whence it has obtained the name of the hooded ſwan; its eyes are black and large; its beak, which is ſtrong, and of a conſiderable ſize and length, is both pointed and hooked, and is of a pale blue colour; the neck is long, flat, and curved; the body is large and round, and covered with grey feathers, which are as ſoft as thoſe of an oſtrich; its wings are ſhort; its legs are thick, long, and of a yellow colour; it has four claws, three before and one behind; it does not fly, and is very ſlow in its progreſs when it walks; the fleſh is covered with fat, and is at the ſame time ſo nutritious, that three or four of theſe birds are ſufficient to glut an hundred people. Stones are generally found in the ſtomach of this animal. Lightneſs and activity, ſays M. Buffon, are attributes to common birds, but the Dronte has no claim to theſe characters; on the contrary, it appears to be expreſsly formed to give an idea of the heavieſt of organized beings.

Size, which in animals generally pre-ſuppoſes ſtrength, in this particular inſtance produces nothing but weight. The oſtrich, the tomjow, and the caſoar, are not more capable of flying than the Dronte, but they are very ſwift of foot; whereas, the Dronte appears to be borne down by its own weight, which it can ſcarce bear along. It anſwers amongſt the birds, ſays M. Buffon, to the ſloth among the quadrupeds. It may be ſaid, indeed, to be compoſed of brute inactive matter, in which the vivifying particles have been omitted: it has wings, but they are too weak and too ſhort to lift it into the air; it has a tail, but it is both diſproportioned, and out of its place. It may be actually taken for a tortoiſe, covered with feathers; and nature, by furniſhing it with theſe uſeleſs ornaments, ſeems as if ſhe wiſhed to add to the embarraſſment of its natural weight, to the awkwardneſs of its motions, to the inactivity of the maſs, and renders its lumpiſhneſs more diſguſting by forcing upon the obſervation that it is a bird.

This bird is no longer found in the iſle of France, nor in thoſe of Bourbon, Rodriguez, and Sechelles.

les. It muſt now be placed among thoſe ſpecies which have exiſted, but have been deſtroyed by the facility with which they were taken. No hope can now be entertained of finding them but on the ſhores of uninhabited iſlands.

Account of a Bird, called the Solitaire; from the ſame Work.

THE moſt remarkable bird in this iſland (Rodriguez) is the Solitaire, ſo called becauſe it is never ſeen in flocks. The plumage of the males is grey intermixed with brown; their feet and beaks reſemble thoſe of a turkey, though the latter is rather more crooked. They have ſcarce any tail, and their hinder part is covered with feathers in ſuch a manner as to give it a round appearance. They are taller than the turkey, and have a ſtreight neck, ſomewhat longer in proportion than that bird when it erects its head. They have a black and a lively eye, but are without creſt or top-knot. They never fly, as their wings are not ſufficiently ſtrong to ſuſtain the weight of their bodies, and they employ them chiefly as the means of attack or defence, or to call to one another. For this latter purpoſe they turn roumd twenty or thirty times with great velocity, when their wings being outſpread the motion produces a noiſe which reſembles that of a keſtril, and may be heard at the diſtance of an hundred yards. The bone of the pinion enlarges at the extremity, and forms, under the feathers, a ſmall round lump like a muſket ball, which, with the beak, forms its principal defence. It is very difficult to catch it in the woods, but in an open place it is eaſily overtaken. From March till September theſe birds are very fat, and when young yield a well flavoured meat. The males ſometimes weigh between forty and fifty pounds.

The hen is a moſt beautiful bird. Some of the females are white, and others brown. They have a kind of band, reſembling what is called a widow's peak, at the top of the bill, which is of a tan colour. They take great care to keep their feathers in a nice ſtate of arrangement, and to clean themſelves with their beak. The feathers that cover the thighs are curled at the end ſo as to have the appearance of ſhells, and as they are very thick produce an agreeable effect. They have two projections on the crop, which are formed of feathers whiter than the reſt, and curiouſly repreſent the boſom of a woman.

Theſe birds walk with ſo much ſtateline's and grace as muſt excite the admiration of all who behold them, and they have often been indebted for their lives to their pleaſing appearance. Though they appear of rather a familiar diſpoſition, when they are left to themſelves, it is impoſſible to domeſticate them. Whenever they are taken they ſhed tears without the leaſt noiſe, and obſtinately refuſe all kinds of food, ſo that they ſoon die from the want of nouriſhment. Their gizzard is always found to contain a brown ſtone of the ſize of an hen's egg, and of a rugged exterior; it is flat on one ſide, and round on the other, and

is very heavy and hard. This ſtone appears to be born with them, as they are found to contain it when quite young; beſides, the channel that paſſes from the ſtomach to the gizzard is much too narrow to afford a paſſage for it. We made uſe of this ſtone in preference to any other to ſharpen our knives.

The bird builds its neſt upon an heap of palm leaves, which it raiſes about a foot and an half from the ground for that purpoſe. It lays but one egg, which is larger than that of a European gooſe. The cock and hen both ſit upon it in their turns, and the time neceſſary for hatching extends to ſeven weeks during the whole period of incubation, and nouriſhing the neſtling, which is not capable of ſupporting itſelf for ſeveral months after its birth, the parent birds do not ſuffer any of their kind to approach them; the hen reſerving to herſelf the right of driving away the intruſive females, and the cock exerciſing his office of guarding the privileged ſpot againſt male intruders, each calling the other, as occaſion requires, to perform the duty aſſigned it.

When the young bird is in a ſtate to maintain itſelf, the parents continue their union. We often remarked, fabulous as it may appear, that, within a few days after the young one has quitted the neſt, a troop of thirty or forty of the old ones brought another of the ſame age to the ſpot, where the former with its parents joined the troop, and they all proceeded to ſome retired place; when the elder birds retired in pairs, and left the two young ones to themſelves. As we frequently followed them on theſe occaſions, I vouch for the truth of this extraordinary circumſtance, which we obſerved with equal ſurpriſe and ſatisfaction.

The Lion. From Barrow's *Travels in* Africa.

WE found encamped on the borders of the ſalt-water lake a farmer and his whole family, conſiſting of ſons and daughters, and grandchildren; of oxen, cows, ſheep, goats, and dogs. He was moving to a new habitation, and, in addition to his live ſtock, carried with him his whole property in two waggons. He adviſed us to make faſt our oxen to the waggons, as two of his horſes had been devoured the preceding night by lions. This powerful and treacherous animal is very common in the thickets about the ſalt pan; treacherous, becauſe it ſeldom makes an open attack, but, like the reſt of the feline genus, lies in ambuſh till it can conveniently ſpring upon its prey. Happy for the peaſantry, the hottentots, and thoſe animals that are the objects of its deſtruction, were its noble and generous nature, that ſo oft has fired the imagination of poets, realized, that his royal paw diſdained to ſtain itſelf in the blood of any ſleeping creature. The lion, in fact, is one of the moſt indolent of all the beaſts of prey, and never gives himſelf the trouble of a purſuit unleſs hard preſſed with hunger. On our arrival at a farmhouſe on the banks of the Zwartkop's river, a lion had juſt been ſhot by a trap-gun; and ſhortly after

after one of the hottentots had brought down a large male buffalo *. The horns at the baſe are each twelve or thirteen inches broad, and are ſeparated only by a narrow channel, which fills up with age, and gives to the animal a forehead completely covered with a rugged maſs of horn as hard as rock. From the baſe they diverge backwards, and are incurved towards the points, which are generally diſtant from each other about three feet; about the height of a common-ſized ox. The African buffalo is at leaſt twice its bulk. The fibres of its muſcles are like ſo many bundles of cords, and they are covered with a hide little inferior in ſtrength and thickneſs to that of the rhinoceros. It is preferred by the peaſantry, to the ſkin of all other animals for cutting into thongs to be uſed as traces and harneſs for their carts and waggons. The fleſh is too coarſe grained to be good, yet the farmers generally ſalt it up as food for their Hottentots. It is curious enough that the teeth of this ſpecies of buffalo ſhould at all times be ſo perfectly looſe in the ſockets as to rattle and ſhake in its head.

The lion frequently meaſures his ſtrength with the buffalo, and always gains the advantage. This, however, he is ſaid to accompliſh by ſtratagem, being afraid to attack him on the open plain. He lies waiting in ambuſh till a convenient opportunity offers for ſpringing upon the buffalo, and fixing his fangs in his throat, then ſtriking his paw into the animal's face, he twiſts round the head and pins him to the ground by the horns, holding him in that ſituation till he expires from loſs of blood. Such a battle would furniſh a grand ſubject for the powers of a maſterly pencil.

If the Dutch have been too indolent to domeſticate the quacha and the zebra, it is leſs a matter of aſtoniſhment that no attempts have been made on the fierce and powerful buffalo. Any other nation, poſſeſſing the Cape for one hundred and fifty years, would certainly have effected it. A male, if taken very young and ſuffered to run among the cattle, would in all probability have intercourſe with the cows; at leaſt the other ſpecies of the bovine tribe, when domeſticated, have been found to mix together without any difficulty. Such a connection would produce a change in the preſent breed of cattle in the colony, and without doubt for the better: a worſe it could not well be than the common long-legged ox of the country.

Account of a Learned Spaniel. *From* Deſpiam's *Select Amuſements.*

A Learned ſpaniel, which maintained philoſophical theſis in Engliſh, French, and Latin, was exhibited about twenty years ago at York. It may readily be conceived that the animal did not ſpeak theſe languages; but he ſeemed, at leaſt, to underſtand them, ſince, if aſked any queſtion

* This animal (the *bos caffer* of the *Syſtema Naturæ*) is the ſtrongeſt and the fierceſt of the bovine genus. Nature ſeems to have deſigned him as a model for producing extraordinary powers.

in them, he always replied by ſigns, either ſhaking his head to expreſs yes or no; or pawing with his foot to indicate numbers or letters, which when joined together formed the required anſwer.

Three circumſtances occurred to excite the aſtoniſhment of the ſpectators, who were attracted in great numbers by the celebrity of this animal. 1ſt, He continued to give pertinent and proper anſwers, even when his maſter retired from the exhibition-room, or deſired all thoſe to retire who were ſuſpected of making ſigns to the dog to indicate the anſwer. 2d, He returned anſwer equally proper when blind-folded, to prevent him from obſerving any ſigns. 3d, He generally advanced the moſt ſingular paradoxes: At firſt, no perſon in company agreed with him in opinion, yet after a variety of objections, anſwers and replies, he was always allowed in the end to be right.

To prove that the epithet given to this learned animal, was not altogether miſapplied, we ſhall here relate a kind of converſation which took place between the ſpaniel and two or three learned perſons in company.

A ſailor firſt aſked how many arches there were in Weſtminſter Bridge. The ſpaniel replied by drawing his foot over the number fifteen. He was then aſked how many arches there were in the Pontus Euxinus. Here the dog pauſed, as if he had conceived himſelf inſulted by ſuch a queſtion, and as if deſirous of applying the proverb, "a fooliſh queſtion deſerves no anſwer." Being commanded however, by his maſter, to ſatisfy the perſon who had interrogated him, he replied, that the Pontus Euxinus had no arches, and he expreſſed this very clearly by placing his foot on a cypher. The ſailor then ſaid that the preceding year he had made a very happy voyage in ſix weeks from the Pontus Euxinus to London Bridge. The ſpaniel, finding nothing very wonderful in ſuch a voyage, placed his foot on different letters, forming a very laconic anſwer, which ſignified, when explained by his maſter, that ſome navigators had made a voyage of 600 leagues in half a day. "That is impoſſible," ſaid the ſailor, "no air balloon has ever yet been able to traverſe ſuch a ſpace in ſo ſhort a time." "I do not ſay," returned the ſpaniel, by the help of his interpreter, "that an air balloon was employed for that purpoſe: I ſpeak of a voyage by ſea."

The ſailor then ſaid, "that by ſea it was ſtill more impoſſible, becauſe as the faſteſt ſailing veſſel went at the rate of no more than about five leagues per hour, it could never make a voyage of 600 leagues in half a day.

The animal perſiſted in maintaining its aſſertion, and the ſailor was going to lay a conſiderable bet, when the ſpaniel and his maſter added, that they had performed this voyage in a country where they kindled fire with ice.

"If you are deſirous of ſhewing your erudition," replied the ſailor, "do not, I beg of you, utter ſo many abſurdities." The maſter of the ſpaniel then addreſſing the animal, ſaid, "tell us, my friend, is it not true that a fire can be kindled with a piece of ice, if

it be cut into the form of a lens, ſo as to collect the ſun's rays into a focus, and to project them on a ſmall heap of gunpowder?" The animal, which was blindfolded, nodded with his head, to ſay yes; as if he had fully comprehended the queſtion propoſed to him.

"The dog, on this point, is right," ſaid the ſailor, "but it does not prove, that a journey of 600 leagues can be performed in half a day." "Why not," replied the dog, by the mouth of his maſter, "if it be in a country where, in half a day, there are 360 hours?" "In what climate?" ſaid the ſailor, much ſurpriſed, and beginning to perceive the truth of his reply. The ſpaniel mentioned the Frigid Zone. "In that zone," ſaid his maſter, "the days indeed are of different lengths, from twenty-four hours to ſix months. If Captain Cook," added he, "when he ſailed beyond the polar circle, had followed a parallel, where the day was only a month long, he might, in half a day conſiſting of 360 hours, have traverſed the ſpace of 600 leagues." The ſailor being deſirous to diſcuſs the ſpaniel and his maſter, in his turn, aſked them if they knew a place where the ſun and moon might riſe at the ſame hour, and even at the ſame inſtant, when theſe two luminaries are in oppoſition, that is to ſay, at full moon? The animal and his maſter replied that it was at the pole; adding, that in the ſame place the ſun was always on the meridian, becauſe every point of the horizon was ſouth to the inhabitants, if any, at the pole.

A lawyer, who was preſent, diſputed a long time againſt the ſpaniel, becauſe the latter pretended that a man who died at noon, might ſometimes be the heir of another who died the ſame day at half an hour after twelve. Though various laws were quoted from the Digeſta and the Juſtiniana code, which declare that the heir muſt ſurvive the teſtator; the ſpaniel proved that the aſſertion was perfectly agreeable to theſe laws; becauſe the perſon who died at noon might, in certain circumſtances, have ſurvived him who died at half after twelve; this would be the caſe if the firſt died at London, and the other at Vienna.

A third perſon propoſed the following problem. "A country woman having gone to market to ſell her chickens, met with a cook, who bought the half of what ſhe had, and the half of one more, without killing any of them. She then ſold to a ſecond cook the half of thoſe remaining, and half a chicken more, alſo without killing any, and afterwards the half of the remainder and half a chicken more to a third cook, ſtill without killing any. By theſe means the country woman ſold all her chickens, how many had ſhe?"

The ſpaniel replied that ſhe had ſeven; that the firſt purchaſer took four, that is to ſay, three and a half plus one half, without killing any; that the ſecond had taken two, that is to ſay, one and a half plus a half; and in the laſt place, that the third had taken one, that is to ſay, one half plus a half.

It now remains for us to explain, how the animal, without any viſible ſign being made to him, could

return anſwers to the queſtions propoſed to him. The reader muſt know, that the letters and figures were placed on ſo many pieces of card arranged in a circular manner round the animal; that he moved round the circle as ſoon as any queſtion was propoſed, and that levers concealed under the carpet on which he walked, and which were made to move under his feet by means of ropes, indicated to him the exact moment when he ought to ſtop, to place his foot on the neareſt card. He was ſo well habituated to hit the card next to him when he felt the levers move, and to give an affirmative or negative anſwer by the motion of his head, according as his maſter or any confederate altered the tone of his voice, that he never once erred.

USEFUL

USEFUL PROJECTS.

List of Patents for new Inventions granted during the Year 1801.

JOSEPH Wallis, of Measham, Derbyshire, Esq. and Thomas Jewsbury, of the same place, cotton manufacturers, for their new method of making paste, to be used in weaving and sizing of callico, and for pasting paper, &c. Dated January 26, 1801.

John Stevens and Thomas Angell White, both of Plymouth, coal-factors, for their new method of making bricks. Dated January 16.

Benjamin Batley, of Streatham, Surry, merchant, for a farther new method of curing and preserving herrings and sprats, which will also extend to the curing and preserving of other fish. Dated January 23.

George Medhurst, of St. James, Clerkenwell, engineer, for a new invented compound crank for changing a circular motion into a rectilinear one, and *vice versa*, which is applicable to various mechanical purposes. Dated January 27.

John Longman, of Pentonville, organ-builder, for new invented improvements in the construction of barrel-organs, to prevent them from getting out of order; and that another musical instrument or instruments may be internally united or attached thereto, and to play with the same barrel. Dated January 27.

Robert Vaize, of Down-street, Piccadilly, gentleman, for an improvement in the constructing, construction, and application of a gun, by means of removing the touch-hole from the side to the centre of the butt end of the barrel, and forming therefrom a cylindrical communication, &c. Dated January 23.

Thomas Parker, of Broomward, near Glasgow, Esq. and William Telfer, and Alexander Afleck, of Glasgow, mathematical instrument makers, for their improvements in preparing and manufacturing of flax, hemp, silk, and other materials. Dated February 3, 1801.

Robert Young, of the city of Bath, ironmonger, for an improved fire-stove or grate. Dated February 3.

Edmund Cartwright, of St. Mary-le-Bone, clerk, M. A. for improvements in the framing, combining, and organizing the parts and mechanism of steam engines, so as to make them more commodious and portable; and also in the mode of regulating their velocities, and in lessening the waste of power. Dated February 5.

James Power, of St. Edmund's Bury, for a portable oven on a

new or improved conſtruction. Dated February 5.

Joſeph Gaſton Jean Baptiſte, Comte de Thiville, of Piccadilly, for certain new methods of giving an independant moving power to all machines by means of hydraulic engines; and alſo of conſtructing and employing ſeparately ſeveral of their parts, ſuch as wheels, piſtons, and apparatus for reducing friction, upon new principles. Dated February 5.

James Anderſon, of Mounie, Aberdeenſhire, LL. D. for a method of economiſing fuel in the heating of houſes, and for improving the conſtruction of hot-houſes. Dated February 10.

James Weldon, of Lichfield, engineer, for his farther new invented machine or mill for grinding bark, and various other articles, for which he obtained former letters patent in January, 1798; and which machine or mill ſo improved may be applied to ſeveral other uſeful purpoſes. Dated February 10.

William Johnſon, of Bromley, Kent, gent. for a machine, which has the principle of its motion within itſelf, denominated the perpetual motion, or mechanical ſelf-moving power. Dated February 10.

Richard Scott, of Chapel Houſe, Suſſex, lieutenant-colonel in the ſervice of the Eaſt India Company, for a method of preſerving papers and other property from being injured by fire. Dated February 10.

Marc Iſambeard Brumel, of Bedford-ſtreet, gent. for a machine for cutting one or more mortices, forming the ſides of and cutting the pin-hole of the ſhells of blocks, &c. Dated February 10.

William Wilde, of Weſt Leake, Nottinghamſhire, farmer and grazier, for improved machinery or apparatus to be attached or connected to harrows, whereby thoſe implements of huſbandry will execute their work to much greater advantage than by any mode hitherto practiſed. February 17.

William Leſter, of Cotton End, Northamptonſhire, patent harrow and chaff engine manufacturer, for his farther improvements upon an engine or machine for cutting hay and ſtraw into chaff, for which he obtained former letters patent. Dated February 17.

Matthias Koops, of James-ſtreet, Weſtminſter, gent. for a method of manufacturing paper from ſtraw, hay, thiſtles, waſte and refuſe of hemp and flour, and different kinds of wood and bark. Dated February 17.

John Bennock, of Liverpool, merchant, for a method or machine for making nails, bolts, rods, watch ſprings, clock ſprings, and metal plates. Dated February 17.

Thomas James Plucknett, of Deptford, gent. for improvements in capſtans and windlaſſes for ſhips and other purpoſes. Dated February 26.

Robert Gibſon, of the Adelphi, wharfinger, for a windlaſs upon an improved conſtruction, which may be applied to ſhips and other uſeful purpoſes. Dated February 26.

Ann Young, of St. James's-ſquare, Edinburgh, for an apparatus, conſiſting of an oblong ſquare box, which, when opened, preſents two faces or tables, and of various dice, pins, counters, &c.

&c. contained within the ſame, by means of which ſix different games may be played; which, beſides being amuſing and intereſting, and ſuch as children of eight years old may be taught to play, are, at the ſame time, an improving exerciſe upon, and ſerve to render familiar, and to impreſs upon the memory, the fundamental principles of the ſcience of muſic, particularly all the keys or modulations, major or minor, both with the common and uncommon ſignatures, muſical interval chords, diſchords with their revolutions, and the moſt uſeful rules of thorough baſe. Dated March 16.

G. T. Lenz, of Homerton, Middleſex, tanner, for a method of conſtructing tan-pits for tanning hides and ſkins, and for ſtriking hides by machinery. Dated March 27.

John Gamble, of Leiceſter-ſquare, for a machine for making paper in ſingle ſheets, without ſeam or joinings, from one to twelve feet and upwards wide, and from one to forty-five feet and upwards in length. Dated April 20.

Thomas Binns, of Great Barlow-ſtreet, Middleſex, for a method of manufacturing candles of ſpermaceti, tallow, or any other ſolid inflammable ſubſtance. Dated April 23.

Thomas Wright, of Mark-lane, broker, for an improved method of making hand-ſtone corn-mills for the purpoſe of grinding wheat and other grain into flour. Dated April 25.

William Bicknell, of St. George's, Hanover-ſquare, hoſier, for a method of covering felt for the making caps and helmets, and for various other uſeful purpoſes. Dated April 28.

Rudolph Akerman, of the Strand, printſeller, and Peter James Cutteau, of Bucklerſbury, merchant, for an improved method of rendering all ſorts of woollen cloths, cotton, linen, ſilk hats, paper, and other manufactures and ſubſtances perfectly water-proof, and ſo as to be uſed on all occaſions where a power of repelling rain, wet, or moiſture may be required. Dated April 28.

George Waring, of Buntingford, Herts, for a method of making ſoap of a peculiar quality. Dated April 28.

Richard Wilcox, of Briſtol, engineer, for improving upon the fire or ſteam engine and furnace. Dated April 30.

William Wilſon, of Edinburgh, ſmith, for an improved plan of making, adjuſting, and ſtamping ſcale weights. Dated April 30.

Henry Tickle, of Manſel-ſtreet, Whitechapel, brewer, for an apparatus or refrigerator for more ſpeedily and effectually cooling the worts and other fermented, fermentable, or other liquors; or melted or diſſolved animal or vegetable ſubſtances, manufactured, made, or uſed by or in the proceſſes of brewers, diſtillers, vinegar-makers, ſoap-makers, ſugar-refiners, chemiſts, or other manufacturers of articles of a ſimilar nature, or uſing ſimilar proceſſes. Dated May 2.

John Edwards, of Chelſea, gent. for new invented collars for horſes on an improved conſtruction. Dated May 2.

William Pritchard, of Shrewſbury, hatter, and Thomas Willmore,

more, of Birmingham, japanner, for an article for the uſe of hats, ſoldiers caps, helmets, &c. Dated May 2.

Barker Chiſney, of London, gent. for an improved method of preparing and laying diamond and other ſlates in covering houſes and other buildings, and for preparing ſlates for other purpoſes. Dated May 2.

Joſeph Chirm, of Birmingham, pump-maker, for a machine, on an improved conſtruction, for the purpoſe of boring timber for water-pipes, and other purpoſes. Dated May 12.

Edward Walker, of Rathbone-place, vintner, for a portable ſtove or kitchen for the purpoſe of dreſſing and cooking victuals. Dated May 12.

William Haſe, of Saxthorpe, Norfolk, engineer, for a ſteam-engine, on an improved conſtruction, by which a conſiderable ſaving will be made in the conſumption of coals. Dated May 14.

Sebaſtian Erard, of Great Marlborough-ſtreet, muſical-inſtrument-maker, for improvements in the conſtruction of harps and pianofortes. Dated May 16.

Walter Inglis, of Chelmsford, ſadler, for a method of forming and making a ſaddle upon a new and improved conſtruction. Dated May 21.

James Glazebrook, of Coalbrook Dale, engineer, for his further improvements upon the method of working and giving power to machinery by means of the properties of airs; which methods were originally invented by him, and for which he obtained former letters patent. Dated May 21.

Thomas Bagnall, of Worſley, Lancaſhire, gent. for a mill or machine to chop bark, and grind, and riddle, and pound it; to beam or work green hides and ſkins out of the maſtering or drench, and make them ready and fitting for the ouſe or bark liquor; to beam ſheep-ſkins, and other ſkins for the ſkinners' uſe, and for ſecuring or taking the bloom off or from tanned leather when in the currying ſtate. Dated May 21.

Thomas Wakefield, of Northwich, Cheſhire, Eſq. for a new method of refining ſugar. Dated June 2.

Thomas Winter, of Shacklewell, Middleſex, gent. for a new manufacture for covering the floors of rooms; for covering and packing goods and merchandizes, and fit to be uſed for various other purpoſes. Dated June 2.

Thomas Howard, late of Manchester, Lancaſhire, but now of Leeds, Yorkſhire, ſoap boiler, for a new method of making a Britiſh barilla and pot-aſh, and of obtaining a greater quantity of alkali than hitherto diſcovered. Dated June 2.

Joſiah Longmore, of Birmingham, Warwickſhire, gun-lock-maker, for a patten or clog. Dated June 2.

Thomas Robert Gueſt, of Portſmouth, Hants, artiſt, for boxes of a new and improved conſtruction, of various forms and ſizes, to contain certain new and improved materials, and other neceſſary articles for drawing and painting; likewiſe an entire new and improved method of arranging, on ſcientific principles, the colours to be contained in the ſaid boxes. Which arrangement will be of the greateſt utility to officers of the army, and engineers, for reconnoitering ſketches or plans; to the

navy

navy for ſignal cards, as well as to profeſſional men, and private perſons. Dated June 2.

Timothy Lane, of Lincoln's-inn-fields, Middleſex, late of Alderſgate-ſtreet, London, apothecary, for meaſuring-glaſſes for compounding medicines. Dated June 5.

Egerton Smith, of Liverpool, Lancaſhire, ſtationer, and Thomas Todd, of Liverpool aforeſaid, organ-builder, for a method of turning and keeping in tune muſical and ſtring inſtruments in general. Dated June 5.

William Chapman, of Newcaſtle-upon-Tyne, gent. for the application of certain ſubſtances, either ſeparately or combined, as a preſervative of cordage. Dated June 5.

Thomas Bartlett, of Boſton, in the ſtate of Maſſachuſetts, in North America, but at preſent reſiding in Threadneedle-ſtreet, London, for improvements in the conſtruction of elaſtic truſſes for ruptures. Dated June 18.

William Sellers, of Piccadilly, Middleſex, gent. for a new improved apparatus of machinery for the purpoſe of diminiſhing friction, and communicating a direct rotary motion from one wheel to another by means of cranks, which he calls alternate relieving cranks, applicable to wind or water drainage mills, or thoſe for raiſing water for irrigation, and various other uſeful purpoſes. Dated June 18.

G. T. Lenz, of Homerton, Middleſex, tanner, for a method of conſtructing tan-pits for the tanning of hides and ſkins, and for ſtriking hides by machinery. Second patent, dated June 18.

John Spencer, of Duffield, Derbyſhire, nail-maſter, for a new method of making horſe-ſhoe nails. Dated June 20.

John Aloyſius Senefelder, of Gould-ſquare, London, gent. for a new method and proceſs of performing the various branches of the art of printing on paper, linen, cotton, woollen, and other articles. Dated June 20.

William Bolton, Eſq. captain in the royal navy, for a rudder, and the means of preſerving the ſame. Dated June 23.

Thomas Witherby, of Enfield, Middleſex, gent. for a pump, and method of working machinery. Dated June 23.

Samuel Holemberg, of Silver-ſtreet, Bridgewater-ſquare, London, goldſmith, for locks and faſtenings for general uſes on a new and improved conſtruction. Dated June 24.

George Stratton, of Blackfriars-road, Surrey, ironmonger, for improvements in machines for cooking, and fire-places. Dated June 26.

Anthony Bowden, of Mellor, Derbyſhire, cotton carder and rover, for an engine or machine for batting or beating and cleaning cotton. Dated July 1.

James Manley, of the townſhip of Welron, in the pariſh of Great Budworth, in the county palatine of Cheſter, for improvements in the manufacturing of ſalt. Dated July 1.

George Medhurſt, of Pentonville, Middleſex, mathematical-inſtrument-maker, for improvements in certain machines for waſhing and wringing of linen, woollen, wool, cotton, ſilk, velvet, or any other commodity that requires waſhing, cleanſing, or ſcouring. Dated July 10.

John

John Wilkes, of Sheffield, Yorkſhire, gunſmith, for a method of making ſelf-acting cylindrical ſpring ſnuffers upon a new conſtruction, which cut off, confine, and extinguiſh the ſnuff at one motion. Dated July 10.

Charles, Earl Stanhope, for a new method of burning chalk, marble, and lime-ſtone into lime. Dated July 20.

William Hoard, of Deptford, Kent, ſhip-chandler, for an improved portable machine for manufacturing ropes and cordage, of any length, in a ſhort ſpace of ground, particularly adapted for ſhipping. Dated July 20.

Archibald, Earl of Dundonald, for a new method or methods of preparing a ſubſtitute or ſubſtitutes for gum-ſenegal, and other gums, extenſively employed in certain branches of manufacture. Dated July 31.

Mark Brocone, late of New Town, Ireland, but now of Cooper's-court, Tower-hill, London, Eſq. for an inſtrument or engine, poſſeſſing a power to work engines or machines, whether on water or land, or for other purpoſes to which the ſame can be applied. Dated July 31.

Matthew Murray, of Holbeck, in the pariſh of Leeds, Yorkſhire, engineer, for an improved method of conſtructing the air-pump, and ſundry other parts belonging to a ſteam-engine, by which a conſiderable ſaving will be made in the conſumption of fuel, and an increaſed power obtained. Dated Auguſt 11.

William Fitzgerald, of Gray's-inn, Middleſex, Eſq. for a mathematical inſtrument, to be called, "The Marine Level," the properties of which are to ſhew every deviation from the horizontal plane of ſhips and veſſels, and which is alſo applicable to various purpoſes in ſurveying, levelling, and aſcertaining vertical and perpendicular ſituations. Dated Auguſt 11.

Benjamin Hawkins, late of Saratoga, in the State of New York, in the United States of America, but now of Red Lion-ſtreet, Clerkenwell, Middleſex, merchant, for a new floating mill or engine, to be worked by tides and currents of water for grinding all ſorts of grain, and various other purpoſes. Dated Auguſt 20.

Lionel Lukin, the younger, of Conham Houſe, Glouceſterſhire, Eſq. for a new method of giving power to machinery by the application of air and water. Dated Auguſt 20.

William Parkes, of Newington Butts, Surrey, profeſſor of philoſophy, for a perpetual power that will give motion to all kinds of machinery, mills, engines, carriages, ſhips of war, mercantile and other veſſels, lighters, crafts, and boats of every deſcription. Dated Auguſt 20.

John Theodore Koſter, late of Liſbon, but now reſiding in St. Andrew's-court, Holborn, Middleſex, merchant, for a new method of building carriages. Dated Auguſt 31.

James Whitby, of Collumpton, Devonſhire, George Bodley, of the city of Exeter, iron-founder, and John Davis, of Collumpton aforeſaid, for a mill for grinding bark. Dated September 3.

Thomas Germain, of the pariſh of St. George's, Bloomſbury, Middleſex, gent. for a method of greatly eaſing the labour, and leſſening the

the number of horſes in the draft of coaches, carts, waggons, drays, and all land carriages whatſoever. Dated September 12.

Thomas Jotham, of Bradford, Wiltſhire, clothier, for a machine for raiſing the wool pile or fibres on woollen, cotton, or other piece goods, preparatory to ſhearing, and for dreſſing or dubbing cloths, either wet or dry, otherwiſe than by green cards and pickards. Dated September 15.

Zachariah Barratt, of Gealing, Nottinghamſhire, cabinet-maker, for a method of grinding corn, or other grain, by a new invented mill or machine, either moveable or immoveable, and intended to be worked by water, wind, horſes, hand, or otherwiſe. Dated September 18.

James Tremeere, of Lamb's Conduit-paſſage, Middleſex, carpenter, for a method of working barges and other veſſels. Dated October 5.

William Bullock, of Portland-ſtreet, Soho, Middleſex, cabinet-maker, for a faſtening to be applied to ſaſhes or dining-tables. Dated October 8.

Samuel Miller, of Cleveland-ſtreet, St. Pancras, Middleſex, engraver, for a machine or proceſs for manufacturing materials for the better ſecuring walls and roofs of houſes from lateral preſſure, and the inclemency of the weather, by which proceſs the buildings will be built of better materials, and rendered more durable. Dated October 13.

William Symington, of Kinnard, Sterlingſhire, engineer, for a mode of conſtructing ſteam-engines, and applying their power to the purpoſe of producing a rotary and other motions without the interpoſition of a lever or beam. Dated October 14.

Thomas Fryer, of Raſtrick, near Halifax, Yorkſhire, for a method of manufacturing and finiſhing goods from cotton, cotton and woollen, cotton and ſilk, cotton and linen, or cotton and mohair, in ſuch manner as to make the ſame appear as if covered with ermine or fur, and in imitation thereof. Dated October 30.

Richard Brayſhay, of Liverpool, Lancaſhire, gent. and William M'Mahon, of the ſame place, gent. for a machine for the purpoſe of gaining an increaſed ſpeed and power to all mechanical operations by land and water. Dated October 30.

John Walker, of Tufton-ſtreet, in the pariſh of St. John's, Weſtminſter, Middleſex, accoutrement-maker, and Godfrey Alphy, of the ſame place, painter, for a method of making and manufacturing mens' hats and caps, and rendering them perfectly water-proof; as alſo all kinds of leather, cotton, linen, ſilk, ſtuffs, paſteboard, and other manufactures and ſubſtances, for the purpoſe of being worked up into ſhoes, boots, womens' hats and bonnets, and other wearing apparel, and to be uſed on all occaſions where a power of repelling wet or moiſture may be required. Dated November 3.

William Jackſon, of Eaſingwould, Yorkſhire, gent. for a machine or drill to be fixed to a plough beam for drilling or ſowing turnips. Dated November 3.

David Stewart, of Woodlands, in the pariſh of Greenwich, Kent, gardener, for a method of ventilating dwelling houſes, theatres, hoſpitals,

pitals, and other buildings; and alſo of ventilating, heating, and conſtructing every kind of buildings for forwarding or preſerving trees, plants, ſhrubs, flowers, fruits, roots, and vegetables, on an improved principle; thereby reducing the conſumption of fuel, ſimplifying the mode of management, and rendering more certain the production of fruit and flowers. Dated November 3.

Francis Brewin, of Bermondſey, Surrey, tanner, for a new improved manner of tanning. Dated November 3.

John Conrad Becker, of Prince's-ſtreet, Soho, Middleſex, muſical-inſtrument-maker, for improvements in muſical inſtruments, chiefly applicable to harps and piano-fortes. Dated November 7.

Antonius Bemetzrieder, of Chelſea, Middleſex, maſter of arts, and Robert Scott, John Scott, and Alexander Scott, of Margaret-ſtreet, Cavendiſh-ſquare, Middleſex, muſical-inſtrument-makers, for a method of making piano-fortes entirely new, both in principle, conſtruction, and ſhape. Dated November 10.

Archibald Thompſon, of Three King's-court, Lombard-ſtreet, in the city of London, engineer, for machinery for the purpoſe of ſpinning rope yarn on ſail-cloth yarn, and for laying or making ropes and other cordage. Dated November 10.

Stephen Hooper, of Walworth, in the pariſh of St. Mary, Newington, Surrey, gent. for machines or machinery for the purpoſe of cleanſing harbours, rivers, &c. Dated November 10.

William Robinſon, of Eſſex-ſtreet, in the pariſh of St. Clement Danes, Middleſex, peruke-maker, for a method of making perukes and ſcalps. Dated November 10.

John Stevenſon, of Mancheſter, Lancaſhire, tobacconiſt, for a method of ſtoving and drying tobacco, and the preparation of ſnuffs. Dated November 10.

Robert Dickenſon, of Long Acre, Middleſex, gent. for improvements in the conſtruction of, and additions to, the ſaddles, harneſs, and other gear, neceſſary or uſeful for the employ of horſes, and other animals. Dated November 10.

Iſaac Sandford, late of Hartford, in North America, gent. but at preſent reſiding in the pariſh of St. Pancras, Middleſex, for a machine for cropping or ſhearing of woollen, cotton, linen, ſilk, and all other cloths made with nap, that require to be cropped or ſheared. Dated November 14.

Cheſter Gould, of Red Lion-ſtreet, Clerkenwell, Middleſex, merchant, for an apparatus or artificial horizon, to be attached to, and uſed with, the quadrant or ſextant, for the purpoſe of taking the altitudes of celeſtial and other objects, either on land or water, without the aſſiſtance of the natural horizon. Dated November 17.

Joſeph Bramah, of Pimlico, Middleſex, engineer, for improvements in the conſtruction of ſteam-engines and boilers, and for the purpoſe of generating ſteam and other purpoſes. Dated November 28.

George Hall, of the Strand, Middleſex, goldſmith, for a method of making elaſtic faſtenings for ſhoes, &c. Dated November 28.

Edward Riley, of the lordſhip of Mylon, in the county of the town

town of Kingſton-upon-Hull, organ-builder, and piano-forte-maker, for moveable keys for piano-fortes, organs, and other inſtruments. Dated November 28.

Naphtali Hart, of Pimlico, Middleſex, gent. for an inſtrument or goniometer, which will meaſure or lay down angles to minutes from the ſmalleſt radiuſes to any extent, draw circles to any radius, draw and meaſure all kinds of right-lined figures made uſe of in geometry, trigonometry, and navigation, with an accuracy and diſpatch hitherto not known, which inſtrument he calls the "Harteſian Goniometer," and a clamp applicable thereto, and to other uſeful purpoſes, and alſo a new ſuſpenſor and orbicular caſter applicable to maritime and other purpoſes. Dated December 3.

James Boaz, manufacturer in Glaſgow, for a new and improved method of communicating thoughts, information, and intelligence, to and from different places, at a diſtance from each other, by means of ſigns, by lights, and otherwiſe. Dated December 3.

Lawrence Collin, of King-ſtreet, Portman-ſquare, St. Mary-le-bone, Middleſex, and James Butters, of Wigmore-ſtreet, Cavendiſh-ſquare, in the ſame pariſh, turner, for a machine for ſaving perſons, though ignorant of the art of ſwimming, from drowning, which they propoſe to call a "Collinette." Dated December 3.

Charles Grierſon, of New Bond-ſtreet, in the pariſh of St. George, Hanover-ſquare, Middleſex, gun-maker, for a breech and lock for ſingle and double barrel guns, piſtols, and other fire-arms, on a new and improved principle. Dated December 19.

On the uſe of Steam as a Vehicle for conveying Heat from one Place to another. By Count Rumford. *From the Journals of the Royal Inſtitution of* Great Britain.

MORE than fifty years ago Colonel William Cook, in a paper preſented by him to the Royal Society, and publiſhed in their Tranſactions, made a propoſal for warming rooms by means of metallic tubes filled with ſteam, and communicating with a boiler, ſituated out of the room; which propoſal was accompanied by an engraving, which ſhowed, in a manner perfectly clear and diſtinct, how this might be effected. Since that time this ſcheme has frequently been put in practice with ſucceſs both in this country, and on the continent. Many attempts have likewiſe been made, at different periods, to heat liquids by means of ſteam introduced into them, but moſt of theſe have failed; and, indeed, until it was known that fluids are non-conductors of heat, and conſequently the heat cannot be made to *deſcend* in them, (which is a recent diſcovery) theſe attempts could hardly ſucceed; for, in order to their being ſucceſsful, it is abſolutely neceſſary that the tube which conveys the hot ſteam ſhould open into the loweſt part of the veſſel which contains the liquid to be heated, or on a level with its bottom; but as long as the erroneous opinion obtained, that heat could paſs in fluids *in all directions*, there did

not

not appear to be any reaſon for placing the opening of the ſteam tube *at the bottom of the veſſel*, while many were at hand which pointed out other places as being more convenient for it.

But to ſucceed in heating liquids by ſteam, it is neceſſary not only that the ſteam ſhould enter the liquid at the bottom of the veſſel which contains it, but alſo that it ſhould enter it *coming from above*. The ſteam tube ſhould be in a vertical poſition, and the ſteam ſhould *deſcend* through it previous to its entering the veſſel, and mixing with the liquid which it is to heat, otherwiſe this liquid will be in danger of being forced back by this opening into the ſteam boiler; for the hot ſteam being ſuddenly condenſed, on coming into contact with the cold liquid, a vacuum will neceſſarily be formed in the end of the tube, into which vacuum the liquid in the veſſel, preſſed by the whole weight of the incumbent atmoſphere, will ruſh with great force, and with a loud noiſe; but if this tube be placed in a vertical poſition, and if it be made to riſe to the height of ſix or ſeven feet, the liquid which is thus forced into its lower end will not have time to riſe to that height before it will be met by ſteam, and obliged to return back into the veſſel. There will be no difficulty in arranging the apparatus in ſuch a manner as effectually to prevent the liquid to be heated from being forced backwards into the ſteam boiler; and, when this is done, and ſome other neceſſary precautions to prevent accidents are taken, ſteam may be employed with great advantage for heating liquids; and for keeping them hot, in a variety of caſes, in which fire, applied immediately to the bottoms of the containing veſſels, is now uſed.

In dying for inſtance, and in brewing, and in the proceſſes of many other arts and manufactures, the adoption of this method of applying heat would be attended not only with a great ſaving of labour, and of fuel, but alſo of a conſiderable ſaving of expence in the purchaſe and repairs of boilers, and of other expenſive machinery: for when ſteam is uſed inſtead of fire for heating their contents, boilers may be made extremely thin and light; and, as they may be eaſily ſupported and ſtrengthened by hoops and braces of iron, and other cheap materials, they will coſt but little, and ſeldom ſtand in need of repairs. To theſe advantages we may add others of ſtill greater importance: boilers intended to be heated in this manner may, without the ſmalleſt difficulty, be placed in any part of a room, at any diſtance from the fire, and in ſituations in which they may be approached freely on every ſide. They may moreover eaſily be ſo ſurrounded with wood, or with other cheap ſubſtances, which, from warm covering, as moſt completely to confine the heat within them, and prevent its eſcape. The tubes by which the ſteam is brought from the principal boiler, (which tubes may conveniently be ſuſpended juſt below the ceiling of the room) may, in like manner, be covered, ſo as moſt entirely to prevent all loſs of heat by the ſurfaces of them, and this to whatever diſtances they may be made to extend.

In ſuſpending theſe ſteam tubes, care muſt, however, be taken to lay

lay them in a ſituation *not perfectly horizontal* under the ceiling, but to incline them at a ſmall angle, making them riſe gradually from their junction with the top of a large vertical ſteam tube, connecting them with the ſteam boiler, quite to their fartheſt extremities; for, when theſe tubes are ſo placed, it is evident that all the water formed in them, in conſequence of the condenſation of the ſteam in its paſſage through them, will run backwards, and fall into the boiler, inſtead of accumulating in them, and obſtructing the paſſage of the ſteam, which it would not fail to do were there any conſiderable bends or wavings upwards and downwards in theſe tubes, or of running forward, and deſcending with the ſteam into the veſſels containing the liquids to be heated, which would happen if theſe tubes inclined downwards, inſtead of inclining upwards, as they recede from the boiler.

In order that clear and diſtinct ideas may be formed of the various parts of this apparatus, even without figures, I ſhall diſtinguiſh each part by a ſpecific name: the veſſel in which water is boiled in order to generate ſteam, and which in its conſtruction may be made to reſemble the boiler of a ſteam engine, I ſhall call the *ſteam boiler:* the vertical tube, which, riſing up from the top of the boiler, conveys the ſteam into the tubes, (nearly horizontal) which are ſuſpended from the ceiling of the room, I ſhall call the *prime conductor:* to the horizontal tubes I ſhall give the name of *horizontal conductors*, or ſimply *conductors of ſteam;* and to the (ſmaller) tubes, which, deſcending perpendicular from theſe *horizontal conductors*, convey the ſteam to the liquid which are to be heated, I ſhall, excluſively, appropriate the appellation of *ſteam tubes*.

The veſſels in which the liquids are put that are to be heated I ſhall call the containing veſſels. Theſe veſſels may be made of any form, and, in many caſes, they may, without any inconvenience, be conſtructed of wood, or of other cheap materials, inſtead of being made of coſtly metals, by which means a very heavy expence may be avoided.

Each *ſteam tube* muſt deſcend perpendicularly from the *horizontal conductor*, with which it is connected to the level of the bottom of the *containing veſſel* to which it belongs; and, moreover, muſt be furniſhed with a good braſs cock, perfectly ſteam tight, which may beſt be placed at the height of about ſix feet above the level of the floor of the room.

This *ſteam tube* either may deſcend *within the veſſel* to which it belongs, or *on the outſide of it*, as ſhall be found moſt convenient. If it comes down on the outſide of the veſſel it muſt enter it at its bottom by a ſhort horizontal bend, and its junction with the bottom of the veſſel muſt be well ſecured to prevent leakage. If it comes down into the veſſel, or the inſide of it, it muſt deſcend to the bottom of it, or at leaſt to within a very few inches of the bottom of it, otherwiſe the liquid in the veſſel will not be uniformly and equally heated.

When the ſteam tube is brought down on the inſide of the containing veſſel, it may either come down perpendicularly, and without

out touching the ſides of it, or it may come down on one ſide of the veſſel, and in contact with it.

When ſeveral ſteam tubes, belonging to different containing veſſels, are connected with one and the ſame horizontal ſteam conductor, the upper end of each of theſe tubes, inſtead of being ſimply attached by ſoldering to the under ſide of the conductor, muſt enter at leaſt one inch within the cavity of it; otherwiſe the water reſulting from a condenſation of a part of the ſteam in the conductor, by the cold air which ſurrounds it, inſtead of finding its way back into the ſteam boiler will deſcend through the ſteam tubes, and mix with the liquids in the veſſels below; but when the open ends of theſe tubes project upwards within the ſteam conductor, though it be but to a ſmall height above the level of its under ſide, it is evident that this accident cannot happen.

It is not neceſſary to obſerve here, that in order that the ends of the ſteam tubes may project within the *horizontal conductor*, the diameters of the former muſt be conſiderably leſs than the diameter of the latter.

To prevent the loſs of heat ariſing from the cooling of the different tubes through which the ſteam muſt paſs in coming from the boiler, all thoſe tubes ſhould be well defended from the cold air of the atmoſphere by means of warm covering; but this may be eaſily done, and at a very trifling expence. The horizontal conductors may be incloſed within ſquare wooden tubes, and ſurrounded on every ſide by charcoal duſt, fine ſawduſt, or even by wool; and the ſteam tubes, and prime conductor, may be ſurrounded, firſt by three or four coatings of ſtrong paper, firmly attached to them by paſte or glue, and covered with a coating of varniſh, and then by a covering of thick coarſe cloth. It will likewiſe be adviſeable to cover the horizontal conductors with ſeveral coatings of paper, for if the paper be put on to them while it is wet with the paſte or glue, and if care be taken to put it on in long ſlips or bands, wound regularly round the tube in a ſpiral line from one end of it to the other, this covering will be uſeful, not only by confining more effectually the heat, but alſo by adding very much to the ſtrength of the tube, and rendering it unneceſſary to employ ſtrong and thick ſheets of metal in the conſtruction of it.

However extraordinary and incredible it may appear, I can aſſert it as a fact, which I have proved by repeated experiments, that if a hollow tube, conſtructed of ſheet copper $\frac{1}{20}$ of an inch in thickneſs, be covered with a coating only twice as thick, or $\frac{1}{10}$ of an inch in thickneſs, formed of layers of ſtrong paper firmly attached to it by good glue, the ſtrength of the tube will be more *than doubled* by this covering. I found by experiments the moſt unexceptionable and deciſive, of which I intend at ſome future period to give to the public a full and detailed account, that the ſtrength of paper is ſuch, when ſeveral ſheets of it are firmly attached together with glue, that a ſolid cylinder of this ſubſtance, the tranſverſe ſection of which ſhould amount to only one ſuperficial inch, would ſuſtain a weight of 30,000lb. avoirdupois, or above thirteen tons, ſuſpended

ſuſpended to it, without being pulled as under or broken. The ſtrength of hemp is ſtill much greater when it is pulled equally in the direction of the length of its fibres. I found from the reſults of my experiments with this ſubſtance, that a cylinder of the ſize above mentioned, compoſed of the ſtraight fibres of hemp, glued together, would ſuſtain 92,000lb. without being pulled aſunder.

A cylinder, of equal dimenſions, compoſed of the ſtrongeſt iron I could ever meet with, would not ſuſtain more than 66,000lb. weight; and the iron muſt be very good not to be pulled aſunder with a weight equal to 55,000 lb. avoirdupois.

I ſhall not, in this place, enlarge on the many advantages that may be derived from a knowledge of theſe curious facts. I have mentioned them now in order that they may be known to the public; and that ingenious men, who have leiſure for theſe reſearches, may be induced to turn their attention to a ſubject, not only very intereſting, on many accounts, but which promiſes to lead to moſt important improvements in mechanics.

I cannot return from this digreſſion without juſt mentioning one or two reſults of my experimental inveſtigations relative to the force of coheſion or ſtrength of bodies, which certainly are well calculated to excite the curioſity of men of ſcience.

The ſtrength of bodies of different ſizes, *ſimilar in form*, and compoſed of the *ſame ſubſtance*, or the forces by which they reſiſt being pulled aſunder by weights ſuſpended to them, and acting in the direction of their lengths, *are not in the ſimple ratio of the areas of their tranſverſe ſections*, or of their *fractures*, but in a higher ratio, and this ratio is different in different ſubſtances.

The form of a body has a conſiderable influence on its ſtrength, *even when it is pulled in the direction of its length.*

All bodies, even the moſt brittle, appear to be *torn aſunder*, or their particles ſeparated, or fibres broken, *one after the other*; and hence it is evident, that that form muſt be moſt favourable to the ſtrength of any given body, pulled in the direction of its length, which enables the greateſt number of its particles, or longitudinal fibres, to be ſeparated to the greateſt poſſible diſtance—ſhort of that at which the force of coheſion is overcome, before any of them have been forced beyond that limit.

It is more than probable that the apparent ſtrength of different ſubſtances depends much more on the number of their particles that come into action before any of them are forced beyond the limits of the attraction of coheſion, than on any ſpecific difference in the intenſity of that force in thoſe ſubſtances.

But to return to the ſubject more immediately under conſideration. As it is eſſential that the ſteam employed in heating liquids, in the manner before deſcribed, ſhould enter the containing veſſel at or very near its bottom, it is evident that this ſteam muſt be ſufficiently ſtrong or elaſtic to overcome not only the preſſure of the atmoſphere, but alſo the additional preſſure of the ſuperincumbent liquid in the veſſel; the ſteam boiler muſt, therefore, be made ſtrong enough

to confine the ſteam, when its elaſticity is ſo much increaſed by means of additional heat, as to enable it to overcome that reſiſtance. This increaſe of the elaſtic force of the ſteam need not, however, in any caſe, exceed a preſſure of five or ſix pounds upon a ſquare inch of the boiler, or *one third part*, or *one half*, of an atmoſphere.

It is not neceſſary for me to obſerve here, that in this and alſo in all other caſes, where ſteam is uſed as a vehicle for conveying heat from one place to another, it is indiſpenſably neceſſary to provide *ſafety valves* of two kinds; the one for letting a part of the ſteam eſcape, when, on the fire being ſuddenly increaſed, the ſteam becomes ſo ſtrong as to expoſe the boiler to the danger of being burſt by it; the other for admitting air into the boiler, when, in conſequence of the diminution of the heat, the ſteam in the boiler is condenſed, and a vacuum is formed in it; and when, without this valve, there would be danger either of having the ſides of the boiler cruſhed, and forced inwards by the preſſure of the atmoſphere from without, or of having the liquid in the containing veſſels forced upwards into the horizontal ſteam conductors, and from thence into the ſteam boiler. This laſt mentioned accident, however, cannot happen unleſs the cocks in ſome of the ſteam tubes happen to be open. The two valves effectually prevent all accidents.

The reader will, no doubt, be more diſpoſed to pay attention to what has here been advanced on this intereſting ſubject, when he is informed that the propoſed ſcheme has already been executed on a very large ſcale, and with complete ſucceſs; and that the above details are little more than exact deſcriptions of what actually exiſts.

A great mercantile and manufacturing houſe at Leeds, that of Meſſrs. Gott and Company, had the courage, notwithſtanding the mortifying prediction of all their neighbours, and the ridicule with which the ſcheme was attempted to be treated, to erect a *dying-houſe* on a very large ſcale, indeed, on the principles here deſcribed and recommended.

On my viſit to Leeds the laſt ſummer I waited on Mr. Gott, who was then Mayor of the town, and who received me with great politeneſs, and ſhowed me the cloth halls, and other curioſities of the place; but nothing he ſhowed me intereſted me half ſo much as his own truly noble manufactory of ſuperfine woollen cloths. I had ſeen few manufactories ſo extenſive, and none ſo complete in all its parts. It was burnt to the ground the year before I ſaw it, and had juſt been rebuilt on a larger ſcale, and with great improvements in almoſt every one of its details. The reader may eaſily conceive that I felt no ſmall degree of ſatisfaction on going into the dying-houſe to find it fitted up on principles which I had ſome ſhare in bringing into repute, and which Mr. Gott told me he had adopted in conſequence of the information he had acquired in the peruſal of my *ſeventh* eſſay. He aſſured me that the experiment had anſwered, even far beyond his moſt ſanguine expectations; and, as a ſtrong proof of the utility of the plan, he told me that his next door neighbour, who is a dyer by profeſſion,

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and who, at firſt, was ſtrongly prejudiced againſt theſe innovations, has lately adopted them, and is now convinced that they are real improvements. Mr. Gott aſſured me that he had no doubt but that they would be adopted by every dyer in Great Britain in the courſe of a few years.

The dying-houſe of Meſſrs. Gott and Company, which is ſituated on the ground floor of the principal building of the manufactory, is very ſpacious, and contains a great number of coppers of different ſizes; and as theſe veſſels, ſome of which are very large, are diſtributed about promiſcuouſly, and apparently without any order in their arrangements, in two ſpacious rooms, each copper appearing to be inſulated, and to have no connection whatever with the others, all of them together form a ſingular appearance. The rooms are paved with flat ſtones, and the brims of all the coppers, great and ſmall, are placed at the ſame height about three feet above the pavement: ſome of theſe coppers contain upwards of 1800 gallons, and they are all heated by ſteam from one ſteam boiler, which is ſituated in a corner of one of the rooms.

The horizontal tubes, which ſerve to conduct the ſteam from the boiler to the coppers, are ſuſpended juſt below the ceiling of the rooms: they are made ſome of lead, and ſome of caſt iron, and are from four to five inches in diameter; but when I ſaw them they were naked, or without any covering to confine the heat. On my obſerving to Mr. Gott that coverings for them would be uſeful, he told me that it was intended that they ſhould be covered, and that coverings would be provided for them.

The vertical *ſteam tubes*, by which the ſteam paſſes down from the horizontal *ſteam conductors* into the coppers, are all conſtructed of lead, and are from three-fourth of an inch to two inches and a half in diameter, being made larger or ſmaller according to the ſizes of the coppers to which they belong. Theſe ſteam tubes all paſs down on the outſide of their coppers, and enter them horizontally at the level of their bottoms. Each copper is furniſhed with a braſs cock for letting off its contents, and it is filled with water from a ciſtern at a diſtance, which is brought to it by a leaden pipe. The coppers are all ſurrounded by thin circular brick walls, which ſerve not only to ſupport the coppers, but alſo to confine the heat.

The rapidity with which theſe coppers may be heated, by means of ſteam, is truly aſtoniſhing. Mr. Gott aſſured me that one of the largeſt of them, containing upwards of 1800 gallons, when filled with cold water from the ciſtern requires no more than *half an hour* to heat it till it actually boils! By the greateſt fire that could be made under ſuch a copper with coals, it would hardly be poſſible to make it boil in leſs than an hour.

It is eaſy to perceive that the *ſaving of time* which will reſult from the adoption of this new mode of applying heat will be very great, and it is likewiſe evident that it may be increaſed, almoſt without limitation, merely by augmenting the diameter of the ſteam tube; care muſt, however, be taken that

the boiler be ſufficiently large to furniſh the quantities of ſteam required. The *ſaving of fuel* will alſo be very conſiderable. Mr. Gott informed me that, from the beſt calculation he had been able to make, it would amount to nearly two thirds of the quantity formerly expended when each copper was heated by a ſeparate fire.

But theſe ſavings are far from being the only advantages that will be derived from the introduction of theſe improvements in the management of heat: there is one of great importance indeed not yet mentioned, which alone would be ſufficient to recommend the very general adoption of them. As the heat communicated by ſteam can never exceed the mean temperature of boiling water by more than a very few degrees, the ſubſtances expoſed to it can never be injured by it. In many arts and manufactures this circumſtance will be productive of great advantages, but in none will its utility be more apparent than in cookery; and eſpecially in public kitchens, where great quantities of food are prepared in large boilers; for, when the heat is conveyed in this manner, all the labour now employed in ſtirring about the contents of theſe boilers, to prevent the victuals from being ſpoiled by the burning to the bottoms of them, will be unneceſſary; and the loſs of heat occaſioned by this ſtirring prevented; and, inſtead of expenſive coppers, or metallic boilers, which are difficult to be kept clean, and often ſtand in need of repairs, common wooden tubs may, with great advantage, be uſed as culinary veſſels, and their contents may be heated by *portable fire-places* by means of ſteam boilers attached to them.

As theſe portable fire-places, and their ſteam boilers, may, without the ſmalleſt inconvenience, be made of ſuch weight, form, and dimenſions, as to be eaſily tranſported from one place to another by two men, and be carried through a doorway of the common width with this machinery, and the ſteam tubes belonging to it, and a few wooden tubs; a complete public kitchen for ſupplying the poor and others with ſoups, and alſo puddings, vegetables, meat, and all other kinds of food prepared by *boiling*, might be eſtabliſhed in half an hour in any room in which there is a chimney (by which the ſmoke from the portable fire-place can be carried off); and, when the room ſhould be no longer wanted as a kitchen, it might, in a few minutes, be cleared of all this culinary apparatus, and made ready to be uſed for any other purpoſe.

This method of conveying heat is peculiarly well adapted for heating baths; it is likewiſe highly probable that it would be found uſeful in the bleaching buſineſs, and in waſhing linen. It would alſo be very uſeful in all caſes where it is required to keep any liquid at about the boiling point for a long time without making it boil, for the quantity of heat admitted may be very nicely regulated by means of the braſs cock belonging to the ſteam tube. Mr. Gott ſhewed me a boiler in which ſhreds of ſilk were digeſting in order to make glue, which was heated in this manner; and in which the heat was ſo regulated, that, although the liquid never actually boiled, it always appeared

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to be upon the very point of beginning to boil.

This temperature had been found to be beſt calculated for making good glue. Had any other *lower* temperature been found to anſwer better, it might have been kept up with the ſame caſe, and with equal preciſion, by regulating properly the quantity of ſteam admitted.

I need not ſay how much this country is obliged to Mr. Gott, and his worthy colleagues. To the ſpirited exertions of ſuch men, who abound in no other country, we owe one of the proudeſt diſtinctions of our national character; that of being an enlightened and an enterpriſing people.

Account of a new Eudiometer, by Mr. Davy. *From the Journals of the Royal Inſtitution of* Great Britain.

THE dependance of the health and exiſtence of animals upon a peculiar ſtate of the atmoſphere, and the relations of this ſtate to proceſſes connected with the moſt eſſential wants of life, have given intereſt and importance to enquiries concerning the compoſition and proprieties of atmoſpheric air.

The claſſic fluid has been long known to conſiſt chiefly of oxygen and nitrogen mingled together, or in a ſtate of looſe combination, and holding in ſolution water.

A variety of proceſſes have been inſtituted with the view of determining the relative proportions of the two gaſes, but moſt of them have involved ſources of inaccuracy; and lately all, except two (the ſlow combuſtion of phoſphorus, and the action of liquid ſulphurets) have been generally abandoned.

Both phoſphorus and ſolution of ſulphuret of potaſh abſorb the whole of the oxygen of atmoſpheric air at common temperatures, and they do not materially alter the volume, or the properties of the reſidual nitrogen, but their operation is extremely ſlow, and in many caſes it is difficult to aſcertain the period at which the experiment is completed.

I have lately employed as an eudiometrical ſubſtance the ſolution of green muriate, or ſulphate of iron, impregnated with nitrous gas, and I have found that it is, in ſome reſpects, ſuperior to many of the bodies heretofore uſed, as it rapidly condenſes oxygen without acting upon nitrogen, and requires for its application only a very ſimple, and a very portable apparatus.

This fluid is made by tranſmitting nitrous gas through green muriate, or ſulphurate, of iron, diſſolved to ſaturation in water. As the gas is abſorbed the ſolution becomes of a deep olive brown, and when the impregnation is completed it appears opaque, and almoſt black. The proceſs is apparently owing to a ſimple elective attraction; in no caſe is the gas diſcompoſed, and under the exhauſted receiver it aſſumes its claſtic form, leaving the fluid with which it was combined unaltered in its properties.

The inſtruments neceſſary for aſcertaining the compoſition of the atmoſphere, by means of impregnated ſolutions, conſiſts ſimply of a ſmall graduated tube, having its capacity divided into one hundred parts, and greateſt at the open end,

and of a veſſel for containing the fluid.

The tube, after being filled with the air to be examined, is introduced into the ſolution; and, that the action may be more rapid, gently moved from a perpendicular towards an horizontal poſition. Under theſe circumſtances the air is rapidly diminiſhed; and, in conſequence of the dark colour of the fluid, it is eaſy to diſcover the quantity of abſorption; in a few minutes the experiment is completed, and the whole of the oxygen condenſed by the nitrous gas, in the ſolution in the form of nitrous acid.

In all eudiometrical proceſſes with impregnated ſolutions, the period at which the dimunition is at a ſtand, muſt be accurately obſerved, for ſhortly after this period, the volume of the reſidual gas begins to be a little increaſed, and after ſome hours it will often fill a ſpace greater by ſeveral of the hundred parts on the ſcale of the tube, than that which it occupied at the maximum of abſorption.

This circumſtance depends upon the ſlow decompoſition of the nitrous acid (formed during the experiment) by the green oxide of iron, and the conſequent production of a ſmall quantity of aëriform fluid, (chiefly nitrous gas) which having no affinity for the red muriate, or ſulphate, of iron produced, is gradually evolved, and mingled with the reſidual nitrogen.

The impregnated ſolution with green muriate is more rapid in its operation than the ſolution with green ſulphate. In caſes where theſe ſalts cannot be obtained in a ſtate of abſolute purity, the common or mixed ſulphate of iron may be employed. One cubic inch of moderately ſtrong impregnated ſolution is capable of abſorbing five or ſix cubic inches of oxygen, in common proceſſes; but the ſame quantity muſt never be employed for more than one experiment.

A number of comparative experiments, made on the conſtitution of the atmoſphere at the Hot Wells, Briſtol, in July, Auguſt, and September, 1800, with phoſphorus, ſulphurets of alkalies, and impregnated ſolution, demonſtrated the accuracy of the proceſſes in which the laſt ſubſtance was properly employed. The diminutions given by the ſulphurates were indeed always greater by a minute quantity than thoſe produced by phoſphorus and impregnated ſolutions: but the reaſon of this will be obvious to thoſe who have ſtudied the ſubject of Eudiometry. In no inſtance was it found that one hundred parts in volume of air contained more than twenty-one of oxygen; and the variations connected with different winds, and different ſtates of temperature, moiſture, &c. were too ſmall, and too often related to accidental circumſtances, to be accurately noticed.

In analyſing the atmoſphere in different places, by means of impregnated ſolutions, I have never been able to aſcertain any notable difference in the proportions of its conſtituent parts. Air, collected on the ſea, at the mouth of the Severn, on October 3, 1800, which muſt have paſſed over much of the Atlantic, as the wind was blowing ſtrong from the weſt, was found to contain 21 *per cent.* of oxygen in volume, and this was nearly the proportion in air ſent from the coaſt of

of Guinea, to Dr. Beddoes, by two ſurgeons of Liverpool.

If we compare theſe reſults with the reſults gained more than twenty years ago, by Mr. Cavendiſh, from experiments on the compoſition of atmoſpherical air, made at London and Kenſington; conſidering at the ſame time, the reſearches of Berthollet in Egypt and at Paris, and thoſe of Marti in Spain, we ſhall find ſtrong reaſons for concluding, that the atmoſphere, in all places expoſed to the influence of the winds, contains very nearly the ſame proportions of oxygen and nitrogen: a circumſtance of great importance, for, by teaching us that the different degrees of ſalubrity of air do not depend upon differences in the quantities of its principal conſtituent parts, it ought to induce us to inſtitute reſearches concerning the different ſubſtances capable of being diſſolved or ſuſpended in air, which are noxious to the human conſtitution; particularly as an accurate knowledge of their natures and properties would probably enable us, in a great meaſure, to guard againſt, or deſtroy their baneful effects.

On the Ventilation of Hoſpitals. A Communication from Sir George Oneſiphorus Paul, *Bart. to the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, &c. From the Tranſactions of the Society.*

Sir,

I Have been favoured with your letter ſtating the terms of a premium offered by the Society of Arts, &c. for "A Mode of permanently ventilating the apartments in Hoſpitals, Gaols, and other crowded places, ſuperior to any now known or uſed;" and that the Society had done me the honour to direct you to expreſs their wiſh to receive from me communications on this ſubject.

I not only agree with the ſociety, "that the ſubject is important to the health of perſons deſtined to inhabit ſuch places," as are ſpecifically mentioned in the propoſal for the premium; but I alſo believe, that the morbid effects of impure air are felt in all ſituations of life, where education, buſineſs, or ſocial intercourſe, may aggregate mankind.

From obſervations made during a purſuit, which of late years may be ſaid to be habitual to me, I fear I muſt alſo admit that ventilation is improperly performed, by the means now generally employed, where thoſe means act on perſons in a ſickly or convaleſcent ſtate, or accuſtomed to delicate habits of life.

The tranſverſe paſſage of outward air, through a room (which I ſhall term free ventilation) is no *doubtful* mode of obtaining vital air; yet, certainly, if the attendant conſequences render ſuch a mode inadmiſſible (to an efficient degree) in the abodes of ſickneſs or infirmity, the ſociety are juſtified in conſidering the ſubject as open to much further improvement.

Deſiring to be underſtood as not addreſſing the ſociety as a claimant of their premium, I conceive I may aſſiſt them in the purſuit of their laudable purpoſe by ſubmitting to their peruſal ſome practical obſervations on the modes of ventilation hitherto practiſed, and by communicating the outline of a deſign already conceived, and in

a limited degree adopted, for correcting their admitted imperfections.

It may be neceſſary to premiſe that the peculiar enquiry, the reſult of which will be detailed in the following pages, was excited by ſome objections, originating in a moſt reſpectable quarter, and directly againſt a ſyſtem, on which I had heretofore *ſolely* depended, of providing for the ventilation of ſuch public eſtabliſhments as have been placed more particularly under my direction.

It may be inferred from the note annexed to the propoſed premium, that ſimilar objections are entertained by the ſociety, I ſhall therefore, as you requeſt, ſubmit my obſervations, without that delay which would neceſſarily be occaſioned by my modelling them in conformity to the rules you have communicated, and waiting for certificates to accompany them. If there really does not exiſt a doubt as to principle or fact, on a queſtion ſo important, ſhould not that doubt be made the ſubject of a previous ſpecial conſideration, ſo that a point of direction may be given to the mechanical exertions intended to be excited?

Although particular concluſions may be controverted, I may venture to aſſume, as the baſis of all obſervations on this ſubject,

Firſt. That a certain and frequently renewed ſupply of vital air is eſſential to the purpoſes of animal life; and the more regular and uninterrupted that ſupply, the more favourable will it be to health.

Secondly. That where the quantity of atmoſpheric air introduced into an apartment, is leſs than nature has beſtowed in free circulation, her purpoſe is in a degree counteracted; and although the breathing impure air (i. e. air deſpoiled of its natural proportion of vital air) for a ſhort time may not produce an immediate ſenſible effect, an injury may ariſe to the conſtitution, proportionate to the extent of that time. And further, when (as in the ordinary intercourſe of ſociety in London) perſons are in the habit of placing themſelves, during a conſiderable portion of every twenty-four hours, in a ſituation to breathe in this defective atmoſphere, the accumulated conſequences may be ſerious and important,

Thirdly. That in rooms for which currents of freſh air may not be excluded, they may be ſo injudiciouſly directed as to be uſeleſs and injurious. And,

Fourthly. That if, in addition to the conſumption of vital air by the lungs, the perſons of thoſe aſſembled in any apartment ſhould be filthy,—ſhould their cloathing (particularly that made of woollen) have been ſo long worn as to have abſorbed any conſiderable portion of the perſpiration of the body,—or ſhould the apartment itſelf be damp and foul, the vital properties of the air will be contaminated, and although inſtant death may not enſue (which has been known to be a conſequence), the fevers emphatically termed gaol, hoſpital, or ſhip fever, from its uſually originating in theſe places, will be generated with a degree of malignancy proportionate to its cauſes, and, being ſo generated, will become infectious with a like degree of malignancy.

It is about twenty years ſince the deleterious conſequences of inattention to ventilation were ſet forth by Mr. Howard. So ſtrong and ſo general was the conviction of the public mind, not only as to the evil pointed out, but regarding the remedies propoſed by that indefatigable philanthropiſt, that the legiſlature thought fit to adopt the whole of his principles, and to make them the baſis of ſeveral poſitive laws, under the direction of which the greater number of priſons of the kingdom have ſince been re-conſtructed, and the remainder (with few exceptions) altered in conformity to the principle recommended by him, namely, *that of introducing currents of freſh air* INTO *and* THROUGH *every apartment*.

In theſe priſons where attention is alſo paid to perſonal cleanlineſs, I venture to ſay, the gaol fever is unknown, unleſs brought into them by priſoners committed in a ſtate of previous imperfection.

By equal exertions on the like principles, the healthineſs of the ſhips of war has been ſo improved that they are no longer ſources of this deſolating peſtilence.

Regarding hoſpitals, I fear it cannot be proved that a relief ſo complete has been effected. Mr. Howard was not ſparing in his ſtrictures on the management of this important branch of our public inſtitutions; but the improvement he ſuggeſted went no farther than ſimply the introduction of freſh air. The reconciling this advantage with that generally diffuſed warmth, neceſſary in ſick rooms, ſeems to have eſcaped his contemplation.

Of the ſeveral hoſpitals conſtructed ſince his obſervations were made public, moſt have been planned with a view to facilitate the paſſage of outward air through the wards. The directors of old hoſpitals have adopted alterations more or leſs tending to the ſame purpoſe; but all ſeems to have reſted at this point: yet, conſidering the importance of pure air to patients, during the tedious cure of compound fractures, and other accidents or diſeaſes, together with the no leſs important objects of ſecuring them from currents of cold air, it cannot be denied that much ſtill remains to be effected.

In the conſtruction of the larger workhouſes, termed Hundred-houſes, ſimilar principles of ventilation have been attended to with evident ſucceſs, in preſerving the health of the inhabitants; but with reſpect to pariſh workhouſes on the *leſſer* ſcale; ſchool rooms, (both for boys and girls in every rank of life); manufactories; apartments for public lectures; and ladies aſſembly-rooms; theſe, together with the circumſcribed cottages of the poor, remain in a ſtate moſt dangerous to the health from imperfect ventilation. To theſe ſources, and to no other, may be traced the few putrid and contagious diſeaſes which occaſionally ſhow themſelves amongſt us; and which, to the credit of free ventilation, can no longer juſtly be called gaol or ſhip fever.

At a period of demonſtrated ſucceſs of the doctrine recommended by Mr. Howard, and adopted by his diſciples, the valuable eſſays and experiments of Count Rumford appeared before the public; whilſt opening to the world a new and moſt uſeful ſyſtem of domeſtic philoſophy,

loſophy, he has advanced opinions unfavourable to thoſe means by which theſe important effects have been produced.

In theory this ingenious philoſopher and friend of mankind has decidedly negatived the neceſſity and queſtioned the propriety of ventilation, by the admiſſion of currents of air. In the conſtruction of thoſe buildings moſt immediately under his directions he has certainly adopted a practice of a direct oppoſite tendency.

Opinions of ſuch authority could not fail to be reſpected: they muſt at leaſt raiſe a doubt in the mind of the moſt confident advocate of an oppoſite theory.

As the Count's obſervations and practice tended to invalidate a material part of that ſyſtem, in the purſuit of which immenſe ſums had been *confidently* expended in the kingdom, and reſpecting which I bear more than a common ſhare of reſponſibility, I felt myſelf peculiarly called upon to ſcrutinize his objections, and to obviate ſuch as ſhould appear to be denied by experience; but at the ſame time, certainly to abandon whatever ground could not be fairly maintained by a reſult.

As my concluſions on this point diſputed are formed on circumſtantial obſervations made within a priſon and hoſpital immediately under my own eye, and as theſe particular inſtitutions have not unfrequently been reſorted to as examples for imitation, a detailed reaſoning regarding them may ſerve for general application.

The county gaol of Glouceſter is conſtructed on the principles of admitting air to paſs into and through it in ſtrait lines, from one extremity to the other. There is no obſtruction to a freedom of current, other than as the ſtreams of air paſſing through the long paſſages, open at each end, move with the greater velocity, they of neceſſity carry with them the weaker currents, paſſing into and through the cells at right angles.

From the time this priſon was opened in 1791, until the year 1800, about 1300 perſons were committed to it; and, on the average, about one hundred priſoners were conſtantly confined in it. In theſe nine years the number of deaths has been thirteen, and of theſe, four ſunk under the effects of diſeaſe brought into priſon with them. During the laſt year, the priſon has been crowded in an uncommon and improper degree, two hundred and fourteen have been confined; and the average number has been one hundred and ſixty-ſeven. One priſoner only has died (a woman aged ſixty) in the month of October laſt. At the opening the Spring Aſſizes, 1801, (the time of the greateſt numbers) there was not one priſoner ſick, or in the hoſpital ward.

By this ſtatement it appears, that the proportion of deaths is ſo much below the common average in the ordinary ſituations of life, that the healthineſs of this abode may be ſaid to be peculiar; and it is in proof, that, however currents of air may be found injurious to particular conſtitutions, they are not unfavourable to general health.

Every priſoner in this gaol, when not in the infirmary-ward, ſleeps in a room containing from fifty-two to fifty-ſeven feet, of ſuperficial ſpace, built with brick, reſting on an arch, and arched over, ſo that no

air

air can enter it but through the openneſs provided for it. As air is conſtantly paſſing immediately under it, and round it on every ſide, it is neceſſarily dry; it is ventilated by oppoſite openings near the crown of the arch. To that opening which is towards the outward air, there is a ſhutter, which the occupant may cloſe at will, but it is ſo imperfectly fitted, that, when cloſed, a conſiderable portion of air muſt enter by its ſides. The oppoſite opening to the paſſage, the priſoner has no means of cloſing in any degree.

During the ten years theſe rooms have been inhabited there have been three winters, in which the cold has been intenſe. As I had conſiderable apprehenſions of the effects of this ſituation in ſevere weather, I directed the ſurgeon of the gaol to be conſtant in his attention; and particularly in the report of his obſervations during the inclemency of theſe ſeaſons. I alſo made a point frequently to viſit the priſon, and to examine every priſoner, as to the effects apprehended; and, as much to my ſurpriſe as to my ſatisfaction, notwithſtanding the querulous diſpoſition of perſons in their ſituation, I never heard a complaint from old or young, from male or female, ſuffering by cold in the night apartments. And further, it is the decided opinion of the two able phyſicians who have moſt liberally undertaken to ſuperintend the health of the priſon, that no ill conſequences have ariſen from priſoners ſleeping in the ſituation above deſcribed.

I muſt contend, therefore, it is a fact, eſtabliſhed by experience, that in a room containing not more than from 415 to 439 cubical feet of air, in which there is no fire, the body of a perſon ſleeping under a proper allowance of woollen bed cloaths, will ſo far warm the atmoſphere around him, or, to ſpeak more conformable to modern doctrine, ſo little of the heat generated in the body will be carried off by the ſurrounding air, that he will not ſuffer by a current paſſing at a diſtance over him, provided the apartment be ſecured from damp.

On the points, therefore, of warmth and ventilation *combined* it muſt ſurely be allowed (regarding rooms ſo conſtructed) there is no farther *deſideratum*.

Priſoners, on their riſing in the morning, are removed into ſmall working-rooms or wards ſituated on the ground floor. Theſe day apartments are in like manner conſtructed with croſs openings near the ceiling or crown of the arch; but there is alſo in each of them an open fire place. Reſpecting theſe apartments, my obſervations tend to *confirm* Count Rumford's objection to open fires, and his preference to cloſed ſtoves. Nay, farther, I am diſpoſed to admit that openings for free ventilation are incompatible with ſtrong fires in open fire places.

It is certain that in rooms ſo provided, the danger ariſing from impure air is completely guarded againſt; yet this advantage is gained at the riſk of another evil, which, though not ſo important, ſhould, if poſſible, be avoided.

The air which in the ſame room without an open fire-place would paſs inwards by one opening, and outwards by the other, being attracted by the fire to ſupply the conſtant rarefaction in the chimney, paſſes

paſſes inwards from both openings towards the fire place, and the body of a perſon placed near it, being in its current, is expoſed to the danger of partial chill. To this circumſtance, in theſe apartments, I am inclined to attribute the few complaints of a dyſentery or aguiſh tendency, which have occaſionally interrupted the general health of this priſon.

In the hoſpital the ſcene of my obſervations, the morbid effects of foul air in the wards have, until lately, been no otherwiſe relieved than,

Firſt, By introducing currents of freſh air by the windows, with an improved mode of hanging the upper ſaſh, peculiar to this hoſpital, by the effects of which the currents of air admitted is turned upwards to the ceiling, and prevented from deſcending on the patients, whoſe beds are placed under the windows;

Secondly, By piercing holes in the ceiling of the wards, and by means of plaiſtered channels or wood funnels, leading the foul air riſing into them, to the roof.

In warm weather, when the doors of the wards are open, and the fires low, theſe channels or funnels operate with conſiderable effect. Much foul air will by its relative ſpecific lightneſs (not being counteracted by a ſtronger power) aſcend them and eſcape; a further portion will paſs off by the windows opening to the leeward, and ventilation may be duly effected.

But on the contrary, when the doors are ſhut, and ſtrong fires are made, theſe will inevitably attract the currents of air inwards and towards them, from all the opening, and ſhould patients be ſituated in their courſe, the effect cannot fail to be injurious.

Beſides, as the windows are generally cloſed in the night (the moſt important time for ventilation) no other change of air takes place, but what is effected by the open fires, which, whilſt ſupplied immediately from the middle region, are conſtantly conſuming the beſt air of the room.

Hence it appears that free ventilation, or the tranſverſe paſſage of outward air, may be inconſiſtent with the general warmth required in the apartments of the ſick, and that channels for the eſcape of foul air, unaſſiſted by a power more conſtant and deciſive than the relative ſpecific lightneſs of that air, is a mean inefficient to preſerving a healthful reſpiration in the crowded wards of an hoſpital.

As a remedy to theſe apparent defects in the ordinary mode of ventilation, it has been imagined that the draught, or determination of the air to the funnels in the ceiling of the rooms requiring ventilation, is accelerated by the operation of fire, and by cauſing an increaſed degree of rarefaction, at the termination of the funnel, to diſcharge the air riſing to the ceiling, in a degree depending on the correct application of the apparatus and quantity of fuel conſumed.

In all rooms or apartments requiring ventilation, it is preſumed that, (according to the old ſyſtem) channels or funnels are provided for the diſcharge of air aſcending into them. Theſe channels or funnels, ſo provided, ſhould be rendered air-tight, and brought to terminate immediately under the fire intended to work them. The aſh-pit and fire-place ſhould be ſo cloſed by

doors,

doors, as to prevent the fire from drawing the air from the room ſurrounding it. The whole draught or conſumption occaſioned by the fire will then be ſupplied from the further termination of the channel or funnel.

This effect may be applied according to circumſtance either to the ceiling of the room in which the fire is made, to the room below, or to that above it; and draught thus produced may, by a proper apparatus, be increaſed or diminiſhed at will.

In the hoſpital in which I have made the firſt experiment of this deſign, I have cauſed a ſtove to be ſo formed to anſwer the culinary purpoſes of the ward in which it is fixed, and at the ſame time to ventilate the ward beneath it; and no additional expence is created in fuel by the operation.

By a fire made in one of theſe ſtoves, a ward beneath it, containing about 18,000 cubical feet, filled with patients, (and which, in ſpite of all former means, was ever remarkably offenſive) was in a few minutes ſo relieved from contaminated air, as to be ſenſibly felt by all the patients in it, without their perceiving any increaſed current.

The principle of the means of ventilation adopted in this hoſpital may be applied with perfect facility to ſhips.

By carrying the funnel from a cabin or ſhip ſtove of any kind or dimenſion (obſerving only to exclude the admiſſion of ſurrounding air) to the hold or under decks, they may be as completely ventilated as the wards of an infirmary. In ſtormy weather, when the decks of a ſhip muſt of neceſſity be cloſed, the fires would perform a ſervice which could no otherwiſe be attained, whilſt by the nature of the apparatus the fire itſelf would be ſecured from the effects of the wind.

If the ſtove or grate over a lady's drawing-room were properly fitted to this purpoſe, on the evening of her aſſembly it might be ſet in action, and the room beneath cleared of its impure air, without recourſe being had to the openings of windows: the openings in the ceiling might be rendered ornamental.

By applying the ſame principle to German or other cloſed ſtoves, the chief objection to their uſe in crowded rooms would be obviated; and I ſhould then agree with Count Rumford, that in all rooms, where the indulgence of the habit of open fires was not in queſtion, ſuch ſtoves (if conſtructed of earthen materials) would afford a more "genial warmth," and a "due circulation be at the ſame time effected."

So fitted and conſtructed, they would be inconteſtably better than open fires for the wards of hoſpitals, poor-houſes, manufactories, theatres for lectures, ſchool-rooms, and priſons. Reſpecting the laſt mentioned ſtructures, I muſt further obſerve, that if in public kitchens were a ſutler appointed, under due regulations, the preſent neceſſity of open fires for priſoners to cook individually for themſelves would be ſuperſeded much to their advantage.

On the other hand, I muſt alſo obſerve, that if cloſed ſtoves, acting on this principle, were adopted, Count Rumford's objections to the introduction of freſh air would

be obviated with regard to any room in which they ſhould be in action, provided the opening through which it entered was made on a level with the ceiling.

Air entering at this level would, in the abſence of open fires, be acted upon by no other draught than the mouth of the funnel in the ceiling, and could not deſcend in currents to the lower region of the room.

In a room ſo filled with company as to vitiate the air within it, the atmoſpheric air entering, being ſpecifically heavier, would indeed deſcend, and be replaced by the aſcending impure air; but, as it would not deſcend by a ſtronger impulſe than its difference of ſpecific weight, it muſt be ſlow in its motion, and would produce no ſenſible current.

Should the above obſervations and concluſions be thought worthy attention, I ſhall, with great pleaſure, direct models of the improved hoſpital ſaſhes, and of the ſtoves for accelerating ventilation by the action of fire, to be made for the uſe of the Society.

I am,

Your very obedient ſervant,

G. O. PAUL.

Groſvenor-ſtreet,
May 30, 1801.

CHARLES TAYLOR, Eſq.
Secretary to the Society of
Arts, &c. *Adelphi.*

Method of teaching the Deaf and Dumb. By the Abbé de l'Epée.

THE tuition of perſons who are Deaf and Dumb is not a work of ſo much difficulty as is commonly ſuppoſed. We have only to introduce into their minds by the eye what has been introduced into our own by the ear. Theſe are two avenues at all times open, each preſenting a path which leads to the ſame point, provided we deviate neither to the right nor the left, in whichſoever of the two we are engaged.

It is not by the mere pronunciation of words, in any language, that we are taught their ſignification. The words door, window, &c. &c. in our own, might have been repeated to us hundreds of times in vain: we ſhould never have attached an idea to them had not the objects deſignated by theſe names been ſhewn to us at the ſame time. A ſign of the hand or of the eye has been the ſole means by which we learned to unite the idea of theſe objects with the ſounds that ſtruck our ear. Whenever we heard theſe ſounds the ſame idea aroſe in our minds, becauſe we recollected the ſigns made to us when they were pronounced.

Exactly ſimilar muſt be our meaſures with the Deaf and Dumb. Their tuition commences with teaching them a manual alphabet, ſuch as boys at ſchool make uſe of to hold converſation at one end of a form with their companions at the other. The various figures of theſe letters ſtrike forcibly the eye of deaf and dumb perſons, who no more confound them, than we confound the various ſounds that ſtrike our ears.

We next write (I ſay *we*, becauſe in my operations with my deaf and dumb pupils, I frequently have aſſiſtance) in large characters with a white crayon upon a black table, theſe two words, *the door*, and we ſhew them the door. They immediately

immediately apply their manual alphabet five or ſix times to each of the letters compoſing the word *door*, (they ſpell it with their fingers,) and impreſs on their memory the number of letters, and arrangement of them; this done, they efface the words, and taking the crayon themſelves, write it down in characters, no matter whether well or ill formed; afterwards they will write it as often as you ſhew them the ſame object.

It will be the ſame with reſpect to every thing elſe pointed out to them, the name being previouſly written down; which being firſt on the table in large characters, may afterwards be inſcribed in characters of ordinary ſize upon different cards; and theſe being given to them, they amuſe themſelves in examining one another's proficiency, and ridicule thoſe that blunder. Experience has manifeſted that a deaf and dumb perſon poſſeſſing any mental powers will acquire by this method upwards of eighty words in leſs than three days.

Take ſome cards, having ſuitable inſcriptions, and deliver them one by one to your pupil; he will carry his hand ſucceſſively to every part of his body conformably to the name on the card delivered to him. Mix and ſhuffle the cards as you pleaſe, he will make no miſtake; or if you chooſe to write down any of theſe names on the table, you will ſee him, in like manner, diſtinguiſh with his finger every object whoſe name is ſo offered him, and thus clearly prove that he comprehends the meaning of every one.

By this proceſs the pupil will obtain, in a very few days, a knowledge of all the words which expreſs the different parts of our frame, from head to foot, as well as of thoſe that expreſs the various objects which ſurround us, on being properly pointed out to him as you write their names down on the table or on cards put into his hands.

We are not, however, even in this early ſtage, to confine ourſelves to this ſingle ſpecies of inſtruction, amuſing as it is to our pupils. The very firſt or ſecond day we guide their hands to make them write down, or we write down for them ourſelves, the preſent tenſe of the indicative of the verb *to carry*.

Several deaf and dumb pupils being round a table, I place my new ſcholar on my right hand. I put the forefinger of my left hand on the word I, and we explain it by ſigns in this manner: ſhowing myſelf with the forefinger of my right, I give two or three gentle taps on my breaſt. I then lay my left forefinger on the word *carry*, and taking up a large quarto volume I carry it under my arm, in the ſkirts of my gown, on my ſhoulder, on my head, and on my back, walking all the while with the mien of a perſon bearing a load. None of theſe motions eſcape his obſervation.

I return to the table, and, in order to explain the ſecond perſon, I lay my left forefinger on the word *thou*, and carrying my right to my pupil's breaſt, I give him a few gentle taps, making him notice that I look at *him*, and that he is likewiſe to look at me. I next lay my finger on the word *carrieſt*, the ſecond perſon, and having delivered him the quarto volume, I make

make ſigns for him to perform what he has juſt ſeen me perform: he laughs, takes the volume, and executes his commiſſion extremely well.

The third perſon ſingular is next to be explained: I lay my left forefinger upon the word *he*, and, with my right, point to ſome one beſide me, or behind me, making it noticed that I do not look at him (becauſe I ſpeak *of* him, but not to him.) I give him alſo, or cauſe to be given him, without looking at him, the quarto volume: he carries it in the ſeveral ways already deſcribed, and lays it down again on the table. I then draw an horizontal line under the three perſons of the ſingular, becauſe the explication of them is finiſhed.

We proceed to thoſe of the plural. I place my left forefinger on the word *we*, and I carry my right, firſt to myſelf, then to all who are round the table; and laſtly, a ſecond time to myſelf by way of manifeſting that I omit no one, upon which we all take hold of the table, and carry it.

The ſecond perſon plural follows. Laying my left forefinger on the word *you*, with my right I point to the perſon who is next me on my left hand, and to all round the table in ſucceſſion, including him next me on my right; but, inſtead of ſhowing myſelf, I retire a few paces; they then carry the table, and I cauſe it to be noticed, that I am at my eaſe without any burthen.

We are now to come to the third perſon plural. Having returned to the table, I lay my left forefinger upon the word *they*, and with my right I point to all round the table, beginning with him on my left hand, and ſtopping at him on the right of my pupil, whom I then take aſide; we remain at our eaſe while the others hold, and carry the table.

It is unneceſſary to ſay how much our new ſtudent is delighted with this operation. Nevertheleſs we have to obviate a ſmall difficulty. I ſet him to go through all he has ſeen me do with regard to the perſons of the ſingular and plural. He begins, and falls into an error at the outſet, although he cannot be ſaid to be in fault. Having his left forefinger upon I, he carries his right to my breaſt, thinking that my name was I, as he had ſeen me ſeveral times deſignate myſelf by that word.

To correct this miſtake, I immediately deſire five or ſix of thoſe who juſt now made parts of the *we*, the *you*, and the *they* to join us; each of theſe, as ſoon as he is oppoſite the table, points firſt to himſelf, having a finger upon I, next to one whom he looks at, and to whom he turns, having a finger upon *thou*; and laſtly, to a third, whom he does not look at, and to whom he does not turn, having a finger upon *he*: our ſtudent forthwith learns to denominate himſelf I, as other people do, and no further difficulty remains.

Thus, in order that our pupil may loſe no time, we hold a language with him that ſignifies ſomething at the very beginning. He muſt of neceſſity comprehend us, if not as deſtitute of intellect as a horſe, or a mule; and he will henceforward underſtand what he writes when upon the model of the verb

verb *to carry*, he is made to conjugate I *draw*, *thou drawest*, &c. I *drag*, *thou draggest*, &c.

In short, he will understand, in a day or two, every phrase composed of only one of the six persons of the present of a verb transitive with its objective noun, such as these: *I draw the table*, *thou draggest the chair*, *he offers an arm chair*, *you push the door*, *they shut the window*, because all these words express actions of which the signs are caught in an instant, and because the eyes of the spectators testify that these operations are present.

It is yet too early to enter into a detailed explanation of verbs. What we have shown with the present of the indicative of *carry*, is only a sort of anticipation, extremely useful indeed, because it furnishes better means of developing the faculties of deaf and dumb persons, than the customary mode of beginning with the declension; of nouns, substantive, and adjective, and pronouns; and it is besides more amusing to them on account of the number of little phrases they acquire by it, which is a consideration of no small weight in the tuition of persons in their condition, who must be allured to study by the pleasure arising to them in their application. Although we confine ourselves to this prelude, our pupils, partly by the help of the masters and mistresses, with whom they board, partly by their amusements when together, transmit to memory, by little and little, other tenses of this first verb; and thus, without knowing it, lay a valuable foundation, which we shall shortly build upon.

How Deaf and Dumb Persons are instructed in the first Truths of Religion; from the same.

WHEN the difference of soul and body is once clearly ascertained, as in the preceding chapter, and the Deaf and Dumb are become sensible of the superiority and nobleness which thereby distinguish them from brutes, that can neither reason nor think, their souls stand eager to follow wherever we lead the way; they take their flight up to heaven, descend again to earth, and plunge into the abyss with as much promptitude as our own.

They have seen with their own eyes that a house does not build itself, nor a watch construct itself; they have admired this little machine, and have observed, without the least suggestion from others, that the inventor of it must have had a great deal of ingenuity.

But when we show them on an artificial sphere, the periodical motions of the earth, and the planets round the sun, and afterwards let them see the execution of these in miniature in Passemont's scientific machinery, their souls are then expanded and elevated with sentiments of delight and admiration to which all our expressions are inadequate: their surprize soon borders upon extacy when ascending to the fixed stars, we state their distance from the earth, and remoteness from each other.

They now begin to comprehend that a machine so prodigiously immense, containing so many exquisite beauties vying for superiority, can be the effect of infinite power alone. They see and know the

uſe of artiſans' tools in the fabrication of their works: it is unneceſſary to make any obſervations to them concerning the impoſſibility of ſuch tools being employed in the fabrication of the univerſe.

If we write down that he who made all theſe things has no body, nor figure, nor colour, ſo as to come under our ſenſes; ſcarcely do they deign to caſt their eyes over the propoſition, becauſe their own good ſenſe alone tells them that it is impoſſible to conceive eyes, ears, hands, and feet for him. This is what we call being a *pure ſpirit*, whoſe operations are not impeded or retarded as ours are by the heavineſs of our bodies.

It is now time to announce that he whoſe works tranſport them with aſtoniſhment is the God before whom we proſtrate ourſelves, a ſpirit eternal, independant, immoveable, infinite, preſent every where, beholding all things, who can do all things, who has created all things, who governs all things. There is no neceſſity for haſty ſtrides here; if our ſteps are ſlow, our patience is amply compenſated by a view of the gradations of reſpect towards God diſplayed in the hearts of our pupils, which, in general, are in exact proportion to the progreſſion of their knowledge of him.

Let us give a ſpecimen of our mode of proceeding in the explication of the divine attributes.

You have not been in this world always, we ſay to our pupils; you did not exiſt thirty years ago; you came into the world like other infants, whoſe births you hear of daily; your father was before you; your grandfather was his elder; your great grandfather and great great grandfather were elder ſtill; each of them had a beginning in his turn: it was God who formed them in the breaſt of their mothers; it was then only that they began to exiſt: juſt ſo it has been with all the other men who have been born, and have died ſince the beginning of the world. But he who forms all others cannot have been formed by another elder than he, therefore he has had no beginning.

This is not all. Your fathers, grandfathers, great grandfathers, and great great grandfathers are all dead. You alſo will die when God ſo pleaſes. They have had an end in this world; you likewiſe will when you die. Their bodies have been put into the earth when their ſouls ſeparated from them; yours will alſo be put into it when you are dead. But God will not die; he will never have an end: he has always been, and he always will be; this is what we mean by the word *eternal*.

The independence and other perfections of God are explained in the ſame manner, *à magis noto ad minus notum*. We do not aim at philoſophical or theological demonſtration; our deſign is merely to make ourſelves underſtood, and by our ſimplicity we ſucceed.

Hitherto, when the name of God was inſcribed, the pupils lifted up their hand, and pointed to the ſky, a ſign which they acknowledged to be void of meaning to them; but it is neceſſary to be conſcious of having a ſoul, and that the curtain which conceals it from itſelf ſhould be drawn before it can diſcover the indelible ſeal of the divinity imprinted on it by nature. Now, indeed, they comprehend that adoration

adoration and thankſgiving are due to him. What is performed in our temples is no more a mere ſpectacle in their eyes, as it uſed to be; they comprehend that we there aſk, and they join with us in aſking, whatever is moſt neceſſary for the good of our bodies and our ſouls.

How ſpiritual Operations, which are the object of Logic, may be explained to the Deaf and Dumb; from the ſame.

AFTER what has been offered in the two preceding chapters, it will eaſily be admitted that there is no danger of the Deaf and Dumb confounding any of the parts of ſpeech. It is ſufficient for me to give by ſigns to every word its proper ſignification, and they aſſign it of themſelves its proper place; (which by the way is what very many, whoſe education has been deficient, cannot do.) So that nothing is beyond the reach of their capacity which we propoſe to them with clearneſs and method.

To explain to them the ſpiritual operations, which are the chief ſubjects of Logic, I take the following meaſures.

I look attentively at the various rows of my library, and at the buſts and the globes on the top; and I engage my pupil to fix his eyes upon them alſo. Afterwards I ſhut my eyes, and no longer beholding any of theſe objects externally, I trace out however the height, and the width of them, their different ſhapes, and their poſitions. I remark, and preſs upon the obſervation of my pupil, that it is no longer the eyes of my body which perceive them; but that I behold them in another way, as if there were two apertures in the middle of my forehead, through which theſe objects were ſtill pictured in my head, my eyes being ſhut. This I call ſeeing with the eyes of the mind. No deaf and dumb perſons will fail to put this to the proof in themſelves upon the ſpot, and they will all take pleaſure in multiplying and diverſifying exemplifications.

I am at Paris, in my own houſe, giving leſſons; but I tranſport myſelf in imagination to Verſailles, (the place of my nativity), where I once took three of my eldeſt female pupils to ſpend a week. They tranſport themſelves thither in fancy as readily as I do; they never call to mind the ſtay they made there without pleaſing ſenſations.

In idea, I mount the caſtle, and there I trace out, as well as I can, the grand ſtaircaſe, and the outer rooms: the females immediately proceed with the picture, particularly that of the gallery, which overpowered them with admiration to ſuch a degree, that they all three changed colour when they entered it.

We then in idea range the park. They walk from grove to grove, and in their deſcription do not leave out the different water pieces, the ſight of which ſurpriſed them ſtrangely.

I obſerve to them it is not the eyes of their body which now ſee theſe various objects; that their body has not changed places; that it is fronting the table upon which we write; but that theſe objects are preſented by the eyes of the mind as if ſtill actually viſible;

and I then ſay, that the internal painting, which is the ſource of their preſent entertainment, is what we call an idea, or the repreſentation of an object in the mind!

You have juſt now in your mind, I ſay to them, the idea of the Caſtle of Verſailles, the idea of its apartments, of its groves, &c. all theſe things are material and ſenſible; you have ſeen them with your eyes, but that which now repreſents them to you internally we call your imagination.

You have ſeen that it took two hours and an half to tranſport you from Paris to Verſailles, and ſeveral entire days to bring you from Lyons to Paris. Your body cannot travel faſter. But as ſpeedily as you pleaſe your mind is rambling in the gardens of Verſailles, or walking on the banks of the Rhone, while this ſame body is ſeated on a chair, or traverſing the ſtreets of Paris. This we term *thinking*: you *think* of the beauty of Verſailles; you *think* of the river which runs through Lyons.

You ſay within yourſelves, the park of Verſailles is beautiful; this is what we call *judgment*. It contains two ideas; you have the idea of the park, and the idea of beauty; you unite them to each other by an internal *yes*; this is what we call *an affirmative judgment*. On the contrary you ſay, within yourſelves, that the tower at St. Martin's gate is not handſome: here again are two ideas, the idea of the tower, and the idea of handſomeneſs; but you ſeparate them by an internal *no*: this is what we call a *negative judgment*, and when you write down what you have thought within yourſelves, it forms what we call an *affirmative propoſition*, or a *negative propoſition*.

I aſk if you are willing to return to Verſailles, where you appeared to be very much delighted, and reſide there conſtantly. You anſwer me that you ſhould like extremely to do ſo, provided I go and reſide there too. I aſk you why you put in this condition; and you anſwer, that it is becauſe there is nobody at Verſailles who inſtructs the Deaf and Dumb: now this is what we call *reaſoning*. It contains ſeveral ideas, which you compare one with another in this manner: Verſailles is a beautiful place; I am charmed with Verſailles; I ſhould like to live there, but I ſhould find no inſtruction at Verſailles for the Deaf and Dumb: I am fonder of inſtruction than the beauty of Verſailles; therefore I do not wiſh to live there unleſs he who inſtructs us live there too.

Thought and love we tell our pupils are not the ſame thing. You often think of things which you do not love; which, on the contrary, you hate; you think of idleneſs, diſobedience, gluttony, when you obſerve them in ſome young perſons, and yet you love none of them; that which thinks within us is called our *mind*, that which loves is called our *heart*, and the union of the two is called our *ſoul*.

The idea of a ſoul, which thinks and reaſons, preſents itſelf to our mind without form, and without colour; we call this idea a ſimple *conception*.

Thus you have a body and a ſoul; a body which eats, drinks, ſleeps, moves, and reſts; a ſoul which thinks, judges, and reaſons. Your ſoul cannot eat nor drink, &c.

&c. Your body cannot think, nor judge, nor reaſon.

Theſe operations, as our readers perceive, are in truth perfectly ſimple; and the Deaf and Dumb ſeize them with equal facility and avidity.

Memoir on the Method of preparing pyrometrical Earth of Wedgwood, by Citizen Gazeran; *from the Annales de Chimie.*

MR. WEDGWOOD, a member of the Royal Society in London, made known to the public, in the year 1782, a pyrometer of his invention, which conſiſted of a braſs ſcale, divided into two hundred and forty equal parts, and ſerving to meaſure the different degrees of contraction, which cylinders, compoſed of different kinds of earth, experienced when expoſed to the heat of furnaces.

This inſtrument is the only one hitherto known, whereby we are enabled to determine and compare the higheſt degrees of temperature. Its great utility will be apparent when we conſider how much it was now to be wiſhed, that, in deſcribing experiments in chemiſtry, and the arts, the degree of temperature employed might always be ſpecified; but as Wedgwood has not acquainted us with the compoſition of his pyrometers, I thought it would be of advantage to the ſciences and arts to endeavour to diſcover the proceſs which he employs in manufacturing them.

I ſhall not enter upon a detail of the inveſtigation, and the analyſes of the different earths, which I inſtitute prior to the principal operations of which I am about to give an account. I begin with obſerving, that I was obliged to reject all kinds of earth which contained, at the ſame time, alumine and ſilex, with magneſia, lime, and more than one hundredth part of oxyd of iron.

After having made various mixtures with alumine and pure ſilex, and argil with rock cryſtal, or white ſand well tritulated, I found (conformably to Vauquelin's Analyſis of the Pyrometers of Wedgwood) that twenty-five parts of alumine, ſixty-five parts of pure ſilex, with one hundred parts of water, gave proportions which ought to ſerve as baſes for the compoſitions, which I propoſed to make with a view to produce from the argils of France (which contain alumine in the proportion of thirty to forty in eight hundred) pyrometers equal in powers to thoſe of Wedgwood.

The minute and long-continued inveſtigation which I have beſtowed on this ſubject, from a wiſh to examine it under a great variety of relations, has even led me to the knowledge of ſome facts, which would be of the greateſt utility towards enabling us to produce porcelains and other earthen-ware at a price far below that of commerce; but this enquiry I propoſe to reſume at a future period; I now return to my ſubject.

Of all the different kinds of argil with which I have attempted to compoſe pyrometers, I have found the white, which contains the largeſt proportion of alumine, to be the beſt adapted for the purpoſe; that which I uſed contained, in one hundred parts,

Alumine - -	34,09
Silex - -	41,11
Water - -	19,25
Lime - -	2,30
Oxyd of iron - -	0,75
Loſs - -	0,55
	100,00

Of this argil I took one hundred and fifty parts, by weight, which I paſſed through a very fine ſieve; I next added ſixty-three parts of Fontainbleau ſand, waſhed, and well triturated; and in order that I might have the mixture in the proportions indicated above, I added ſtill two hundred parts of water. This mixture having been ſtirred up once a day during three weeks, I kneaded it for the ſpace of two hours. The paſte being ſufficiently homogeneous, and having dried in the air to that degree that it retained only thirty parts out of the two hundred of water which I had employed, I moulded it in cylinders of tinned iron, into ſmall ſticks, fifteen millimeters in diameter, and fifteen in length, which I compreſſed in the moulds, for the ſpace of two hours, with the weight of a kilogramme. Having taken them out of the moulds, I put them to dry in a ſtove for twenty-four hours with a temperature of forty reaum. I afterwards adjuſted them, as indicated by Wedgwood, ſo as to fit into zers of his pyrometrical ſcale.

Two of theſe pyrometers, equal in weight (within a centigramme) to thoſe of Wedgwood, I expoſed, together with two Engliſh pyrometers, in a cloſe crucible, for the ſpace of an hour and a half, to a very high temperature. The two pyrometers of Wedgwood indicated the temperature to which they had been expoſed at one hundred and fifty-eight and one hundred and ſixty or one hundred and fifty-nine degrees, whereas my two pyrometers indicated one hundred and fifty-nine and one hundred and ſixty, or one hundred and fifty-nine and a half; but, as I have obſerved, that the pyrometers of Wedgwood have frequently varied four, ſix, and nine degrees from each other, whilſt the variation which mine have experienced have been only from half to one degree, it follows that the pyrometers, compoſed according to the proportions which I have laid down, are good, as they exhibited no ſigns of vitrification after having been expoſed to a degree of heat ſufficient to fuſe iron, and to burſt the beſt Heſſian crucibles.

From theſe experiments, which required a great deal of attention and labour, and repeated trials, it reſults, that if we take an argil, which contains alumine in the proportion of thirty-four parts, at leaſt to one hundred, and add either of the rock cryſtal, or triturated white ſand, or even of pure ſilex, that quantity which the argil requires in order to form pyrometers equally refractory with thoſe of Wedgwood, its power of contraction will be preciſely the ſame, and produce the ſame effects, as in the Engliſh pyrometers.

On the Deſtruction of the Grub of the Cockchafer; from the Tranſactions of the Society of Arts.

THE Grubs of the Cockchafers (or brown beetles) are white, about

about an inch in length, and of the thickneſs of a turkey's quill. When diſturbed they contract their length, and their bodies dilating appear like lumps of white fat ſomewhat oval.

They inhabit ſandy and light loamy ſoils, lie from about two to ſix inches deep, and may be found in ſpring by paring off the ſods.

This place was much infeſted by brown beetles; but about twelve years ago ſome labourers removing a bank of earth, expoſed a bed of grubs, ſeveral paces in length. Many of them were ſcattered among the fallen ſoil, and one of the men propoſed to ſtrip the ſurface of the bank, which being done the grubs were ſeen lying in irriguous channels, as if the parent inſect had dropped the eggs moving in various directions.

The ſame man informed me that they were the favourite food of moles, and he deſired me to obſerve an end of the bank not ſtripped (being covered with mole hills); "for there no beetle grubs would be found." When opened his remark proved true—the moles had traced all the labyrinths of the grubs.

I took the hint for the preſervation of my foilage, and have ever ſince protected the race of moles. The brown beetles gradually decreaſed, and are now rarely ſeen here. I have not obſerved more than one or two ſtragglers in the two laſt ſprings.

Some notice of the habits of moles may be acceptable to the Society, as it has been ſaid "that they penetrate deep into the earth in dry weather; rarely quit their ſubterraneous dwellings, and have few enemies;" and "that they do great miſchief in gardens and corn grounds."

I have always found that in hay and paſture grounds, as ſoon as the graſs is high enough to cover them, they run upon the ſurface where they find their food in the numerous caterpillars and inſects, which in the early part of the ſummer crawl out of the earth; and they continue above ground till the harveſt. They are frequently cut by the ſcythe; and I have ſeen them at various times come out of deep hay graſs into places recently mown, and, perceiving their expoſure, endeavour to conceal themſelves in the ſhorn graſs.

I have alſo often ſeen moles on very cloſe mown graſs, and bare ſpots in paſture land, plunge, when alarmed, among the roots; following their path (which was diſcernable by the heaving of the ſurface,) I have forced them out occaſionally to try the depth of the covering, which was only a few ſhreds of roots.

There are two circumſtances that may oblige moles ſometimes to penetrate deeply: diſturbed ſoils in ſummer, ſuch as in gardens; and ploughed light lands, where the moles delve in purſuit of worms; and, in their courſe, they muſt unroot and deſtroy ſome plants; but a vigilant gardener and huſbandman will prevent much damage.

The other cauſe of their digging deep is froſt, which they avoid, or it would kill them. I have found them in winter in peat ſoil, two and three feet below the ſurface; and in the hard froſt of 1794-5 (cutting deep trenches to ſeparate grounds) I found moles ſeveral mornings, that had worked through

and fallen into the trenches, frozen to death.

Their ſummer emerſion is proved by the birds of prey: they deſtroy great numbers of moles. This year there were taken out of one kite's neſt twenty-two moles, and out of another fifteen, ſome of which were putrid; beſides many frogs and unfledged birds.

The rapacity of the kites ſhews that they are deſtructive enemies to the moles, which, if moles are ſerviceable to man, ſhould be known, that he may ſtay his arm.

Moles are frequently found dead upon the graſs in ſummer, with marks of having been bitten, as if to ſuck their blood, but with no part of their bodies conſumed. This, I ſuppoſe, is done by weaſels; and the following (not very common) occurrence, which happened in the ſummer of 1789, tends to prove it:

A kite was obſerved riſing from the ground with ſome prey, and, inſtead of flying to an adjoining wood, he ſoared almoſt perpendicularly. After remaining a ſhort time ſtationary, he came gradually down with his wings extended and motionleſs, and dropt very near the place from which he had riſen.

Several perſons who were near, and ſaw the flight and deſcent, ran immediately to the ſpot, and a weaſel darted from the kite, which they found dead; and they diſcovered, on examination, that the kite had been bit in the throat, and bled to death. Near it they found a dead mole, yet warm, which was bitten in the neck; and they concluded that the weaſel had cauſed the death of both.

In ſeveral parts of the kingdom where I have met with a great number of brown beetles, moles were regularly deſtroyed; and in Staffordſhire, being ſhown ſeveral large trees covered by beetles, and totally defoliated, I enquired whether they deſtroyed the moles? The anſwer was, that they did, or they ſhould be over-run with them.

The loſs of foilage not being of great conſequence to the farmer, he is ſatisfied that his turkeys make him amends in other reſpects by eating the brown beetles, of which they are very fond, and which they ſwallow voraciouſly.

A gentleman informed me lately that rooks alſo eat the beetles.

But theſe means are confined to the winged beetle. It appears to me that the mole is the only certain deſtroyer of the grub.

My hay and paſture grounds are every ſpring thickly ſtudded with mole-hillocks. They are ſcattered in the uſual manner, and when the graſſes are up the moles ceaſe to work, and ſcarce a hillock appears till after harveſt.

I remain, Sir,
Your moſt obedient ſervant,
EDWARD JONES.

Wepre Hall, Dec. 24, 1799.

Mr. CHARLES TAYLOR.

ANTI-

ANTIQUITIES.

On the foundation and early progreſs of the Engliſh language. From Ellis's *Specimens of the early Engliſh Poets.*

THE Saxon conquerors of this country, having been converted to Chriſtianity, towards the cloſe of the ſixth century, appear to have engaged in the purſuit of learning, with the uſual eagerneſs of proſelytes. Great numbers of them travelling to Rome, in queſt of religious truth, diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their zeal and induſtry, and, returning to their own country, brought with them conſiderable ſtores of ſuch learning as that age could furniſh. At a time when ſingle Books were eſtimated ſo highly, as to form no trifling part of a valuable patrimony, large libraries were founded at Weremouth, in Northumberland, at Hexham, at York, and other places; and the writings of Venerable Bede, of Alcuinus, and many other ſcholars who iſſued from theſe ſeminaries, excited univerſal and merited admiration.

But the ſcholars of the eighth century, communicating only with each other, and taking little intereſt in the concerns of ſuch of their fellow creatures as were unable to expreſs their happineſs or miſery in Greek or Latin, do not ſeem to have produced very extenſive benefits to mankind. So much of life was waſted in acquiring education, that little remained for the application of it, and as nature ſeldom produces a long ſucceſſion of prodigies, learning expired with its firſt profeſſors. Alfred is ſaid to have lamented that, in his youth, very few prieſts, ſouth of the Humber, underſtood the ordinary ſervice of the church; and that he knew none, ſouth of the Thames, who were capable of turning a piece of Latin into Saxon.

It may perhaps have been matter of regret to this great monarch that he was unable to naturalize among his ſubjects the languages of Greece and Rome, which he conſiders as the depoſitaries of much uſeful information; but by tranſlating into Saxon the moſt valuable works of antiquity that could then be procured, he accompliſhed his purpoſe more effectually. He at the ſame time enriched and poliſhed his native language; which, being already the organ of the laws, and becoming, during his reign, the vehicle of religion, of ſcience, and of the arts, acquired a copiouſneſs and elegance, ſuperior to that of any of the Teutonic or Romance dialect, then ſpoken in Europe.

This

This æra of pure Saxon literature was, however, of ſhort duration. The inceſſant invaſions, and ultimate ſubjugation of the country by the Danes, a nation of kindred origin, but far inferior to the Saxons in civilization, not only checked the progreſs of improvement, but nearly re-plunged our language into its priſtine barbariſm. Its ſubſequent recovery was prevented, firſt, by the conduct of Edward the Confeſſor and his courtiers, who took a miſerable pride in adopting a foreign idiom, inſtead of attempting to reſtore the energy of their own, and, ſoon afterwards, by the Norman conqueſt.

The eſtabliſhment of our preſent mixed language, and, indeed, every link in the chain of its hiſtory, may, perhaps, be traced to this important event, as to its remote cauſe and origin. But the mode of its operation has not been, I think, ſatisfactorily explained; too much having been attributed to the ſuppoſed prejudices, and imaginary deſigns of the conqueror, while the general circumſtances in which he was placed, and the obvious tendency of his general policy, have been too much overlooked.

In the firſt place it ſeems evident, that if the Normans, after completing their conqueſt, had readily mingled with the native inhabitants of the country, they could have effected only a very ſlight and temporary alteration in the Saxon language; their numbers were too ſmall. For this reaſon, the anceſtors of theſe very Normans who eſtabliſhed themſelves in Neuſtria, produced no ſenſible change in the Romance dialect of that province. If ſome few corruptions had been introduced by the firſt admixture, they probably would have diſappeared after one or two generations, and the purity of the written language would have been preſerved, by means of the almoſt innumerable models of compoſition which then exiſted, and of which conſiderable remains are ſtill preſerved.

But the general diſaffection and ſpirit of revolt, excited among the Engliſh, by the evident partiality of the Conqueror to the partners of his victory, compelled him to adopt a ſyſtem of defence for his newly-acquired dominions, which had a neceſſary tendency to produce the changes that afterwards took place in the language of his ſubjects.

It has been obſerved by all our hiſtorians, that the Saxons, though a brave and warlike people, had made little progreſs in the art of fortifications, and that, to this circumſtance the Danes were indebted for the almoſt conſtant ſucceſs of their piratical incurſions. The Normans, on the contrary, ſurpaſſed all the nations of Europe in this branch of tactics; and William, availing himſelf of this ſuperiority, erected numerous citadels, which being filled with Norman garriſons, ſecured and over-awed all the towns in the kingdom, and afforded him the means of aſſembling his army with ſafety and expedition.

It is evident that each of theſe garriſons bore a much higher proportion to the number of inhabitants in the neighbouring cities, at whoſe expenſe they were, from the firſt, ſupported, than that of the whole body of Normans to the aggregate population of the kingdom. It was neceſſary, therefore, that ſome mercantile jargon ſhould be adopted as a medium of communication

nication between the foreigners and the natives; and although such a jargon, being only employed for occasional purposes by each, could not immediately displace and become a substitute for the established language of either: though the Normans were, during a very considerable length of time, completely separated from their English neighbours by the strongest opposition of passions and prejudices, though even their commercial intercourse was very limited, it may be doubted whether these cicumstances had not the effect of ultimately rendering more complete that alteration of language, which they certainly contributed in the first instance to retard.

In fact, the most striking peculiarity in the establishment of our vulgar English, is, that it appears to have very suddenly superseded the pure and legitimate Saxon, from which its elements were principally derived, instead of becoming its successor, as generally has been supposed, by a slow and imperceptible process. The Saxon, certainly, never ceased to be cultivated during more than a century after the conquest, because the conclusion of the Saxon Chronicle, which relates the death of Stephen, cannot have been written before the following reign: and the translation of Wall, by Layamon, is not likely to have been composed much before the year 1180. From this period, I believe, the language began to decline, but it did not cease till much later; for we have a Saxon character dated the 43d year of Henry III. that is to say, in 1258; it has been often printed, particularly by Lord Lyttleton, and Dr. Henry, both of whom have thought it necessary to add an English translation. On the other hand we possess some English specimens, which in the opinion of all our antiquaries, cannot be referred to a later period than 1250; it follows therefore, that during several years after the establishment of our present mixed language, the Saxon continued to be the only form of speech known to a large portion of the inhabitants of this country.

Now if we consider that the Saxon, however it might have degenerated from its former elegance, still retained the advantage of a regular and established grammar, while the construction of the Anglo-Norman, or English, was extremely fluctuating and barbarous; it will probably be thought that the latter could only have acquired the superiority over its parent language by means of the predominant wealth and influence of that part of the community by whom it was exclusively cultivated. This, I presume, may have been promoted by a succession of fortunate events.

The system devised by the conqueror, for the purpose of protecting his army against the insurrection of the natives, gave a security to the citizens against the fears of foreign invasion, or domestic oppression, which they had not hitherto enjoyed, and in which the villagers could not equally participate. The increased trade resulting from the foreign dominions of our sovereigns, and the wealth derived from that trade, was confined almost exclusively to the towns. Lastly, the successive immunities which they purchased from our sovereigns, or from their principal barons, and which led to the general establish-

ment,

ment of free municipal governments, muſt have tended, in concurrence with the preceding cauſes, conſiderably to augment the proportion which the inhabitants of the cities had formerly borne to the reſt of their countrymen, in point of numbers, wealth, and influence.

As the ſame happy improvement of their government was likely to obliterate the ſources of national hatred between the Norman and Engliſh inhabitants; to create an union of intereſts; to promote the adoption of a common language, and to haſten the improvement of that language, by furniſhing new and frequent ſubjects for diſcuſſions, at once complicated and intereſting, it ſeems natural that we ſhould aſſign the complete formation of our preſent language to the commencement of the thirteenth century, and perhaps to the eſtabliſhment of Magna Charta. Every inference that can be drawn from the inſpection of ſuch ſpecimens of very early Engliſh as I have had an opportunity of examining, appears to point nearly to the ſame period.

From this time to the reign of Edward the third, our infant language was enriched, or perhaps over-loaded, by a conſtant acceſſion of French words. This, indeed, might be expected. Wealth, when accompanied by freedom, generally gives birth to magnificence, but it does not of neceſſity and immediately become the parent of taſte and invention. During the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries even our kings and nobles were in the habit of expending their whole ſtock of gaiety, as well as their treaſure, on the four great feſtivals of the year; and the intervening times of leiſure were employed in deviſing modes of amuſement, and providing a diſpoſition to be amuſed. But as the commercial part of the nation had ſomething elſe to do, they ſeem to have contented themſelves, with copying, as nearly as they could, the pleaſures of their ſuperiors. Their feſtivities were conducted with the ſame minute attention to ceremonial, and diverſified with the ſame, or nearly ſimilar ſports and repreſentations. Their tables exhibited the ſame ſpecimens of complicated cookery. The recitation of tales of chivalry was neceſſary to the ſolemnity of theſe feſtivals, and as the French minſtrels had long ſince pre-occupied the fabulous era of every known hiſtory, their Engliſh ſucceſſors were reduced to the neceſſity of tranſlating. In executing this taſk, under the conſtraint of finding a conſtant ſucceſſion of rhymes in a language which was hitherto rude and untractable, they might often be led to borrow the words and phraſes of the original. At leaſt it was their intereſt to adopt and give a currency to every new term, which had acquired the authority of colloquial uſage; ſo that the compoſitions of our early writers are become nearly unintelligible to thoſe who are familiarly acquainted with the Norman Vocabulary.

It is very poſſible that our language may not have received much real improvement from this indiſcriminate adoption of foreign idioms; but perhaps it was in ſome meaſure indebted to them for its reception at court, where it ſupplanted the Norman French, which had excluſively prevailed there from the time of the conqueſt.

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This alteration which inſured to our national literature all the advantages that patronage can beſtow, ſeems to have taken place in the reign of Edward the third, whoſe policy led him to excite a hatred of France among his ſubjects, and who proſcribed the excluſive uſe of French in our laws, and in the elements of education. Gower, as we have ſeen, commenced his literary career, by aſpiring to the character of a French poet, and only began his Engliſh work in his old age, during the reign and by the command of Richard the Second. The faſhionable dialect, therefore, had probably changed during the interval, and it may be preſumed, that this change alſo procured us the advantage of Chaucer's talents, which, from the circumſtances of his birth and education, would naturally have been employed had he written a few years ſooner, in cultivating a foreign rather than his native language.

During the whole of this period, the Scotiſh dialect ſeems to have been nearly indentical with that of England; but its hiſtory is unfortunately ſtill more obſcure than our own. We do not poſſeſs a ſingle ſpecimen of the original language ſpoken in Scotland during the eleventh century; and the only compoſitions in the Anglo-Norman dialect, anterior to the life of Bruce, are the ſong written about 1285, on the death of Alexander the third, and a romance attributed to Thomas of Erceldoun, which I believe was firſt diſcovered by Mr. Ritſon, in the Advocate's library at Edinburgh.

This very curious poem, is apparently co-eval with Adam Davie's romance of Aliſaundre, which it reſembles in ſome degree, by the ſhortneſs and abruptneſs of its diction. It is written in a very ſingular and difficult ſtanza of eleven lines, which proves the author to have poſſeſſed a degree of metrical ſkill, very unuſual at that early period, and has beſides a plauſible claim to the ſtill more unuſual merit of originality, as it ſeems to be quoted in a French metrical fragment of "Triſtram," which repreſents the narrative of Thomas as of high authority. But it is evident, that, however intereſting in itſelf, or honourable to Scotiſh poetry, it can give us no aſſiſtance in tracing the progreſs of language in Scotland, from any original form, into the mixed ſtate in which it is here exhibited.

In this dearth of materials it became neceſſary to have recourſe to conjecture; and two hypotheſes have been offered, both of which are recommended by much acute reaſoning, and ſupported by a number of reſpectable authorities.

Mr. Pinkerton, in a very ingenious and learned eſſay, prefixed to his extracts from the Maitland MSS. contends that the original language of Scotland was, like the Saxon and Daniſh, a dialect of the Gothic: that it was introduced by the Picts, a Scandinavian tribe who preceded the Scots, a Celtic colony from Ireland, and that the French part of the ſubſequent mixed language, was produced by the frequent intermarriages of the Scotiſh kings and nobles, during the eleventh, twelfth, and thirteenth centuries, with ladies of Anglo-Norman blood, and by the long reſidence of theſe princes in the counties of Northumberland and Cumberland, which they held,

held, as feudatories, of the crown of England.

Mr. Ritſon, on the contrary, in a no leſs elaborate eſſay prefixed to his ſelection of Scotiſh Songs, attempts to prove by a long chain of authorities, that the PICTS were, no leſs than the Scots, a Celtic nation; that the Gaëlic language was formerly univerſal in Scotland, but, that having never been employed in the works of literature, it was gradually ſuperceded by the Engliſh, in conſequence of thoſe relations with this country which reſulted from the policy of Malcolm the third and his ſucceſſors.

It is evidently impoſſible to reconcile antagoniſts who have no one opinion in common, and who interpret differently the ſame authorities, and draw oppoſite concluſions from the few facts on which they are agreed. I ſhall, therefore, content myſelf with ſtating, as correctly as I can, the preſent amount of our information on the ſubject, and leave the reſult to the determination of the reader.

It ſeems to be ſatisfactorily proved by Mr. Macpherſon, in his "Geographical Illuſtrations of Scotiſh Hiſtory," that the kingdom of Northumberland, founded by the Angles in the ſixth century, extended from the Humber as far as the ſouthern bank of the Frith of Forth; and, following that ſhore to the weſtward, as far as the Graemis-Dyke, included the provinces of Lothian and Galloway; a country, in ſuperficial extent, not far ſhort of one fourth, and in wealth and population equal perhaps to about a third, of what we now call Scotland. Theſe provinces though claimed by the kings of England after the union of the Heptarchy, were definitively ceded by Edgar to Kenneth king of the Scots and Picts, on condition "that he ſhould do homage for this part of his dominions to the crown of England, and preſerve to the inhabitants their ancient cuſtoms and laws, as well as the appellation and language of Engliſhmen."

The whole weſtern region, comprehended between the mountains and the ſea, was occupied by the Scots, whoſe language is univerſally admitted to have been Gaëlic.

Laſtly, the eaſtern coaſt to the northward of the Forth is to be allotted to the Picts, and when it ſhall be aſcertained who the Picts were, and what was their original dialect, it will only remain to determine when and why they relinquiſhed that dialect, for the purpoſe of talking Engliſh.

Such ſeems to have been the diſtribution of the county when Malcolm the third, in 1057, mounted the throne of Scotland. We all know that during the uſurpation of Macbeth he had been carried into England, where he ſpent ſeventeen years, and that at the end of this time he was reinſtated in his dominion, by means of an army raiſed in Northumberland, the earldom of his uncle Seiward.

Hitherto the uſual reſidence of the kings of Scotland had been at Forteviot, or elſewhere in the neighbourhood of the Tay; but Malcolm was induced, both by motives of taſte and policy, to remove his court to the ſouthward, to the caſtles of Dunfermline, and Edinburgh. Having been educated in England, he might naturally prefer a reſidence in a Saxon province: it was no leſs natural that

he ſhould wiſh to remove from a part of his kingdom, where the partizans of his predeceſſor were perhaps ſtill numerous: and after the conqueſt of England by the Normans, it became highly neceſſary that the kings of Scotland ſhould be enabled, by their vicinity to the frontier, to watch over the conduct of an ambitious and powerful neighbour.

To this eſſential policy Malcolm was by no means inattentive. He ſupported to the utmoſt of his power, both by negotiation and by force of arms, the Saxon party in England; he married the ſiſter of Edgar Atheling; diſtributed grants of lands to the companions of her exile; and afforded an aſylum in his dominions to the numerous crouds of fugitive who, during the ſanguinary expedition of William the Conqueror, in 1070, were expelled from the northern provinces of England. By theſe means he probably increaſed, very conſiderably, the population and induſtry of his country; he certainly added much to its political influence; and we are not ſurprized that his long and active reign ſhould be conſidered as the commencement of an important era in the hiſtory of Scotland, diſtinguiſhed by a very conſiderable change in the manners and language of its inhabitants.

What was the preciſe nature and extent of this change, can now only be conjectured, perhaps it was merely ſuch as tended to diminiſh the difference between the Engliſh and Scottiſh dialects of the Saxon, and was occaſioned by the numerous emigrations from England. At leaſt it does not ſeem probable, that Malcolm and Edgar Atheling ſhould have introduced into Scotland the language of their bittereſt enemies. Mr. Pinkerton, indeed, contends that the Norman was the univerſal ſpeech of the Engliſh nobles, during the reign of Edward the Confeſſor; and it is certain that there exiſted at his court a ſtrong Norman party, and that he employed a foreign language in preference to his own, and delighted in the converſation of Norman favourites. Yet it is rather improbable that the whole body of Saxon nobles, that the great counſel of the nation, who in 1052, decreed the baniſhment of all thoſe foreigners, and who, for the purpoſe of ſecuring their country againſt the dominion of a Norman, raiſed to the throne a Saxon nobleman, diſtinguiſhed by his hatred to that nation, ſhould have imitated the phraſeology of Edward, a ſovereign whom they generally and juſtly deſpiſed.

But be this as it may, the Saxon party in England, having been annihilated, even before the death of Malcolm, his ſucceſſors had no motive for continuing an unſucceſful ſtruggle againſt a power now firmly eſtabliſhed. His three ſons, Edgar, Alexander, and David, who, after the ſhort reign of their uncle, Donald Baan, ſucceſſively mounted the throne of Scotland, united themſelves as cloſely as poſſible with the Norman kings of England. Their ſiſter Matilda was married to Henry the firſt; Alexander, to Sybilla, a natural daughter of the ſame Henry; David to the heireſs of Northumberland; and during theſe three reigns, including a period of fifty-ſix years, from 1097 to 1153, the intercourſe between the two kingdoms appears to have been as uninterrupted,

interrupted, as if they had been governed by a common ſovereign. David, indeed, who paſſed many years at the court of his brother-in-law, acquired ſuch an affection for Norman cuſtoms, that he was conſidered by his ſubjects as a Frenchman. He ſeems to have adopted the whole ſyſtem of Norman juriſprudence; he promoted the marriage of his female wards with Norman barons; he encouraged, by numerous privileges, the ſettlement of Engliſh and Norman artiſans and merchants in the Scotiſh towns; and ſo far increaſed the commerce of his kingdom, that in the reign of his grandſon William the Lion, the burghs were enabled to furniſh three-eighths of the whole national contribution. I ſhould therefore be tempted to aſcribe to this reign, and to the concurrence of the above-mentioned cauſes, that change of language which is generally attributed to the policy of Malcolm the third.

If it were proved that the Norman French was at any time the uſual language of the court of Scotland, I ſhould think it muſt have been ſo at this period. But it is to be conſidered that in theſe early times the courts of princes were, during great part of the year, compoſed ſolely of their own families and immediate attendants; their plenar courts, that is to ſay, the general counſels or aſſemblies of their nobles, were only periodical, and I ſhould much doubt whether, in ſuch aſſemblies of Scotiſh barons, the French language was ever univerſal or ever general. It is not eaſy to aſſign any motive, which could have induced theſe independant chieftains, to undergo the drudgery of learning a new phraſeology. Beſides, in eſtimating the relative efficacy of the cauſes, which may be ſuppoſed to corrupt or change the ſpeech of nations, I ſhould attribute much leſs to the influence of kings and nobles, who muſt be comparatively few, than to the active intercourſe produced among the more numerous claſſes of mankind, by the relations of commerce.

It is well known, that in Cornwall the Celtic dialect has been, almoſt within our own memory, completely obliterated; in Wales it has been evidently diminiſhed, and the diſtinction of dialect in our Engliſh provinces are daily becoming leſs conſpicuous. The reaſon ſeems to be that, in poor countries, the price of mere manual labour is uſually lower, and that of ingenuity often much higher than among their richer neighbours. The Corniſh and Welſh labourers, therefore, have a conſtant inducement to emigrate in ſearch of a more plentiful ſubſiſtence; while Engliſh miners and mechanics are tempted, by the hope of higher wages, to ſettle in Wales and Cornwall. A ſimilar tranſfer and circulation of inhabitants, has taken place in our Engliſh provinces, by the natural operation of the towns, whoſe conſtantly decreaſing population is ſupplied from the country, while a certain number of ſmall traders and artizans are driven into the villages, where the profits of their trade or ingenuity, are free from the danger of competition. By ſuch a proceſs all peculiarities of dialect muſt be ultimately, though ſlowly and imperceptibly extinguiſhed.

Now it is evident that the unreſerved communication between the

Scots

Scots and Engliſh, during the twelfth century could not fail of greatly increaſing among the former the catalogue of their artificial wants; and that this muſt augment their vocabulary by a large importation of foreign words. And if, to all the articles of luxury, parade, and magnificence, multiplied as they were by the variations of faſhion, we add the terms of chicane, and war, and hunting, for all of which our iſlanders were indebted to Norman ingenuity, we may perhaps find ſufficient grounds to believe that a language very nearly, if not perfectly identical with the Engliſh, was likely to be formed in the ſouthern provinces of Scotland, before the termination of the twelfth century.

Of Learning, from the Conqueſt of Gaul by Clovis, *to the Death of* Charlemagne. *From* Ranken's *Hiſtory of* France, vol. i.

THE diſtraction of mind which the incurſions of the Barbarians into Gaul occaſioned was not the only adverſe effect which they produced on learning. The fear of their approach, their actual hoſtilities, the general awe which they muſt for ſome time have impreſſed on the mind, even after they ſettled in the country, could not fail to draw off the attention from any ſerious occupation, and give a general interruption to the progreſs of learning ſtill remaining in Gaul.

The government which they aſſumed over the country, and their general mixture with the inhabitants, introduced new habits and cuſtoms, unfavourable to literature. In ſo far as the Gauls yielded to them, they certainly degenerated from the ſtate of refinement to which they had been ſome time accuſtomed under the Roman government; or if the barbarous nations, whether Burgundians, Goths, or Franks, attempted any conformity to the Gauls, it could be but an awkward and rude imitation; in either caſe, therefore, learning, arts, and manners, muſt have declined. The three different regions where theſe ſeveral nations ſettled, retained each ſomewhat of its former character; but all of them, from the acceſſion of the barbarians, received a darker tinge.

The language of the country was ſenſibly affected: already it had undergone conſiderable changes by the intercourſe and government of the Greeks and Romans: the Celtic and Greek tongue had both yielded much to the Latin. Now though the latter ſtill prevailed, yet it was corrupted, both in writing and pronunciation, by the mixture of theſe ſeveral new and foreign nations. Avitus, Biſhop of Vienna, ſo early as the beginning of the ſixth century, complains that it was in vain to write poetry, ſince the people were become incapable of reading what was written in verſe; and ſixty years after Gregory, of Tours, bewails the ignorance of the people in his times, who had altogether loſt the knowledge of letters. In the language and ſtyle of this hiſtorian, though ſuperior to that of ſome of his cotemporaries, we perceive a ſenſible decay of learning.

Superſtition and credulity advanced, as literature receded. The moſt ordinary events and appearances were deemed miraculous by the common people; and the clergy,

and ſome men of a ſuperior claſs, took advantage of their ignorance, and eaſy faith, to impoſe on them, and overawe them, or to entertain and ſooth them. The writing of the lives of martyrs and ſaints of former ages, became the chief occupation of the more learned and induſtrious among the clergy; and in compoſing them, they indulged freely, whether from deſign or from their own belief, in ſtoring them with moſt wonderful tales, and accounts of miracles. Legends were even invented by the ingenious and artful, to dupe or amuſe the people; to augment their reſpect and veneration for the church; to ſecure their dependence on the biſhops; and to enlarge their offerings, and general diſpoſition to devout liberality and religious confidence.

This ſuperſtitious and credulous temper was nouriſhed and maintained, not only by the relation of paſt wonders, but by the apparent performance of their preſence, of many great and aſtoniſhing miracles. The moſt inveterate diſeaſes were pretended, or fancied, to be cured by touching relics, and by viſiting tombs; important diſcoveries were believed to be made by clerical dreams; victories were clearly underſtood to be obtained over ſuperior armies by particular prayers; and future events were ſuppoſed to be diſtinctly foretold, by obſerving, on entering a church, the lines of a pſalm which the congregation happened at the time to be ſinging. Such habits as theſe, being prevalent over a country, prove not merely an ignorance of the ordinary laws of nature, and the operations of cauſe and effect; but a depravity, and almoſt a total dereliction of reaſon.

Nor did this degree of ignorance and credulity prevail among the common people only; it had invaded the church, and ſubjected the very biſhops to its power. Some of them were artful, but by far the greater part were ignorant and credulous. If Gregory, Biſhop of Tours, the firſt and beſt hiſtorian of the nation in thoſe times, could believe and record ſuch follies and abſurdities as we read in almoſt every page of his hiſtory, what could we expect from men of ſtill leſs ability and obſervation? He narrates, with the utmoſt gravity and credit, the miraculous cures ſuppoſed to have been performed by relics, or at the tomb of St. Martin; the awful conſequences, political and moral, which he thought were certainly to follow an eclipſe of the ſun or moon, the ſhooting of a meteor, the corruſcations of the *Aurora borealis*, the real or fancied tremblings of the earth, or the inundation of a river.

The mind ſeems through diſuſe to have loſt its power of arrangement in treating of the ſubjects on which they attempted to write. Authors either adhered rigidly to mere chronological order, or expreſſed their ideas according to the accidental aſſociations in which they occurred to them. When they aimed at ingenuity, they ran into conceit; if they ſtudied the ſublime, it became bombaſt; and, in ſhort, their eloquence was turgid, full of words, and void of meaning.

They were negligent ſometimes even of the ordinary rules of gram-

mar, claſſing indiſcriminately genders, maſculine, feminine, or neuter, adjectives and nouns; ſubſtituting any caſe of a noun, or tenſe or mood of a verb, for another.

When they forgot the proper claſſical words and phraſes, which was ſoon the conſequence of not being familiarly acquainted with the authors of the Auguſtine age, they adopted ſuch other words and phraſes as were more familiar; introducing Frank and Gothic words, to which they gave Latin terminations, and the idioms of theſe foreign languages, for the more elegant Latin conſtruction.

Attempts were occaſionally made to revive learning, but they naturally failed, becauſe they were feeble, or ill directed. Chilperic imagined that he was promoting the cauſe of literature, when he tried to invent and introduce four new Greek or Hebrew letters. Schools were eſtabliſhed in the monaſteries and cathedral churches, in which the languages, philoſophy, and theology, were ſaid to be taught; but the teachers being themſelves deſtitute of ſcience, judgment, and ſtate, could not be expected to ſucceed in communicating them to their ſcholars. The writings of the fathers were their ſtandard of elegance for Greek and Latin; a kind of magic and aſtrology was ſubſtituted for philoſophy; and a little controverſy, together with ſome knowledge of church muſic, religious ceremonies, and eccleſiaſtical privileges, formed the whole courſe of their theology. Much however depended on the biſhop, or the abbot, who ſuperintended the teachers, as well as on the teachers themſelves; for we ſhall meet with ſomething like exceptions, when we come to review the lives and writings of particular authors.

As we deſcend through the ſeventh century, we can except no improvement in learning. The rivalſhip and jealouſies of Brunchaut and Fredegonde, and the almoſt conſtant civil wars which followed, occupied the minds of men generally, and with other ſubjects than thoſe of learning. The reign of Dagobert afforded a ſhort reſpite, and darted a faint gleam athwart the darkneſs of the age. At firſt he loved learning, and reſpected learned men; but his love of pleaſure prevailed, and contributed rather to bring a reproach not only on letters, but on the learned men whom he had profeſſed to patronize. The weakneſs of the government during the reign of the laſt Merovingian princes, and the inter-reign of ſeveral years; the tyranny of the mayors, the civil wars, and the war againſt the Saracens, carried on by Charles Martel, were all unfavourable to ſtudy and learning; and ſo much did ignorance prevail, that the period from Dagobert to Charlemagne has been reckoned the darkeſt in the whole courſe of the Hiſtory of France. A few monkiſh legends, a collection of letters by Boniface, Biſhop of Mayence, and others, and ſome attempts at verſification, all bearing internal evidence of the ignorance and rudeneſs of the age, make up almoſt the whole catalogue of writings for more than a century.

One of the great employments of the monks and nuns in this age was to write out in that beautiful manner in letters of gold, and of various colours, of which many

examples ſtill remain, the Pſalms of David, the Goſpels, the whole Scriptures, and ſome other ancient compoſitions. But, in other reſpects, letters were ſo totally neglected, that the counſels of the church repeatedly ordained, that the biſhops and prieſts ought to know the canons of the church; that they ought to be capable of writing a fair hand; that they ought to know, and be able to read, their pſalter, &c. And we may judge of the general ſtate of letters in the country, from the great Charles himſelf not having been taught to write, till he acquired it by his own ambition for learning, after he was emperor, and conſiderably advanced in life.

Under his patronage and direction however literature revived. He invited Alcuin from England, Clement from Ireland, and other learned men wherever he found them, to come and inſtitute ſchools in France, to ſuperintend the education of youth, and to take ſuch other ſteps as were calculated to recover the ſpirit, and promote the ſtudy of learning; and during his life his endeavours were not ineffectual.

For the purpoſe of teaching the various branches of education, Alcuin aſſiſted the emperor in eſtabliſhing ſchools, or colleges, in different cities of the empire; and if the Univerſity of Paris owe not its origin to their joint endeavours directly, their zeal at leaſt appears to have inſpired the people of that city, then, or ſoon after, to erect that ancient and celebrated inſtitution, for there is conſiderable evidence that it exiſted before the end of the ninth century.

Beſides the academy of the palace, which ſome writers have imagined to be the origin of the Univerſity of Paris, but which ſeems rather to have been ambulatory with the court, Charlemagne, in the year 787, wrote a circular letter to all the Metropolitan biſhops, recommending them to take the proper ſteps for eſtabliſhing ſchools in their dioceſes, and to be particularly careful to place proper teachers over them: two years after he even preſcribed rules for their adminiſtration and diſcipline. There were two kinds of ſchools: one for teaching children the pſalms, church muſic, arithmetic, and grammar; the other for teaching the more advanced youth dialects, rhetoric, geometry, &c. Charlemagne was anxious to give all the ſchools and branches of education a bias towards religion, and he ſpared no pains or coſt to bring ſuitable teachers, in all theſe branches of learning, from various countries, particularly from Italy.

Some of the clergy encouraged and forwarded his plans with great zeal and ſucceſs; among whom Leidrade, Archbiſhop of Lyons, and Theodulph, Biſhop of Orleans, are particularly mentioned: the latter appears to have inſtituted a kind of pariſh ſchools for the purpoſe of educating the youth in general, beſides four ſchools of a higher rank. But, as might be expected in ſo numerous a claſs of men, ſome miſunderſtood the deſign; ſome were incapable of directing education, being themſelves, even though biſhops, uneducated; and others were indolent or fantaſtical. They either made no exertion, or

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ſpent all their zeal and labour in teaching the children merely to chant, inſtead of to underſtand the daily leſſons of the church.

In order to rouſe even the clergy, and to form their habits to learning, Charlemagne propoſed in writing queſtions in hiſtory, and eſpecially in eccleſiaſtical hiſtory, which he expected them to anſwer alſo in writing; and the conſequences and effects of ſo many ſchools, and incitements to education and ſtudy, began in a ſhort time to be viſible over the empire.

Charlemagne, notwithſtanding the multitude of buſineſs with which he muſt have been conſtantly occupied in the government of ſo vaſt an empire, found leiſure to viſit in perſon many of theſe ſchools to hear the youth examined, and to reproach or commend them according to their diligence and progreſs. On one occaſion we find him in the ſchool of Clement, whom we have already obſerved, he invited from Ireland to ſettle in France. The youth, of an inferior rank, performed their buſineſs well, but thoſe of a ſuperior order had been very negligent, and were ill prepared. He placed the former on his right hand, and thanked them: "Continue," ſaid he, "my children to improve yourſelves, and you ſhall be rewarded: I will raiſe you to ſtations, and to offices of rank and power." But as for you, turning to the other young men, whom he had placed on his left hand, and frowning, "you delicate ſons of noble birth, and expectants of great property, in which you place too much confidence, you have thought it unneceſſary to reſpect either my command, or your own reputation and intereſt; fonder of play, or of indolence, than of learning, you have ſpent your time in idleneſs and vain amuſement. But know," added he, with a tremendous look, as he raiſed the arm which had gained ſo many victories, "that neither your birth nor your handſome perſons ſhall avail you, unleſs you ſpeedily redeem the time by attention, which you have loſt by negligence."

Under ſuch a prince, education and literature, religion and liberty, would have flouriſhed, had his life been prolonged; or they ought to have continued to proſper through the following ages, had his ſucceſſors inherited, with his dominions, his ſpirit and talents.

Meantime the revival of learning, even to the degree which he effected, was attended with the happieſt conſequences. It was the means of preventing the literature of former times from being entirely loſt; and it laid the foundation of inſtruction, which, though long after neglected, or little regarded, gradually aroſe in after-times to eminence; and though late, diffuſed knowledge and ſcience univerſally over the kingdom.

Had the ſame inattention to orthography and writing continued, which prevailed during the ſeventh and beginning of the eighth centuries, ancient manuſcripts muſt have periſhed; thoſe of that age would have become illegible, either from the ſpelling or writing; and following ages, from a want of teachers, would have become altogether incapable of either reading or writing.

On Archery, as anciently practiſed in England. *From* Strutt's *Sports and Paſtimes of the People of* England.

I. AMONG the arts that have been carried to a high degree of perfection in this kingdom, there is no one more conſpicuous than that of ARCHERY. Our anceſtors uſed the bow for a double purpoſe: in time of war it was a dreadful inſtrument of deſtruction, and in peace it became an object of amuſement. It will be needleſs to inſiſt upon the ſkill of the Engliſh archers, or to mention their wonderful performances in the field of battle. The victories they obtained over their enemies are many, and glorious; they are their beſt eulogiums, and ſtand upon record in the hiſtories of this country, for the peruſal, and for the admiration of poſterity. I ſhall therefore conſider this ſubject in a general point of view, and confine myſelf as much as poſſible to ſuch parts of it as relate to amuſement only.

II. The Anglo-Saxons, and the Danes, were certainly well acquainted with the uſe of the bow; a knowledge they derived at an early period from their progenitors. The Scandinavian ſcalds, ſpeaking in praiſe of the heroes of their country, frequently add to the reſt of their acquirements a ſuperiority of ſkill in handling the bow. It does not, however, appear that this ſkill was extended beyond the purpoſe of procuring food, or for paſtime, either by the Saxons, or by the Danes, in times anterior to the conqueſt.

III. Repreſentations of the Bow occur frequently in the Saxon manuſcripts, and from one of them written about the eighth century, I have ſelected two archers, which the reader will find upon the fourth plate. The one accompanied by his dog, is in ſearch of the wild deer; the other has no companion, but is depicted in the act of ſhooting at a bird; and, from the adornment of his girdle, appears to have been no bad markſman. The ſame plate contains a Saxon *bow* and *arrow* upon a larger ſcale, taken from a manuſcript of the tenth century. The bow is curiouſly ornamented, having the head and tail of a ſerpent carved at the ends, and was probably ſuch a one as was uſed by the nobility. In all theſe bows we may obſerve one thing remarkable, that is, the ſtring not being made faſt to the extremities, but permitted to play at ſome diſtance from them. How far this might be more or leſs advantageous than the preſent method, I ſhall not preſume to determine.

IV. It is well known that the Normans uſed the bow as a military weapon; and, under their government, the practice of archery was not only much improved, but generally diffuſed throughout the kingdom.

In the ages of chivalry the uſage of the bow was conſidered as the eſſential part of the education of a young man who wiſhed to make a figure in life. The heroes of romance are therefore uſually praiſed for their ſkill in archery; and Chaucer, with propriety, ſays of Sir Thopas, "He was a good archere."

V. In the ſeventeenth century archery was much commended as an exerciſe becoming a gentleman to practice, and greatly conducive to health. The ladies alſo were

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fond of this amuſement, and, upon the fifth plate, we ſee it practiſed by one who had ſhot at a deer, and wounded it with great adroitneſs; the original drawing occurs in a manuſcript of the fourteenth century; and, upon the ſecond plate, are repreſented the hunting equipments of the female archers at a latter period. It was uſual, when the ladies exerciſed the bow, for the beaſts to be confined by large incloſures, ſurrounded by the hunters, and driven in ſucceſſion from the covers to the ſtands, where the fair ſportſwomen were placed; ſo that they might readily ſhoot at them, without the trouble and fatigue of rouſing and purſuing them. It is ſaid of Margaret, the daughter of Henry the Seventh, that when ſhe was on her way towards Scotland, a hunting party was made for her amuſement in Alnwick Park, where ſhe killed a buck with an arrow. It is not ſpecified whether the long bow or the croſs bow was uſed by the princeſs upon this occaſion; we are certain that the ladies occaſionally ſhot with both, for when Queen Elizabeth viſited Lord Montecute, at Cowdrey, in Suſſex, on the Monday, "Her higneſs tooke horſe, and rode into the park, at eight o'clock in the morning, where was a delicate bowre prepared, under the which were her highneſſes muſicians placed; and a croſs bow, by a nymph, with a ſweet ſong, was delivered into her hands to ſhoote at the deere; about ſome thirty in number were put into a paddock, of which number ſhe killed three or four, and the Counteſs of Kildare one."

VI. The foregoing obſervations refer chiefly to the *long bow*, ſo called, to diſtinguiſh it from the *arbaliſt*, or *croſs bow*, which was not only much ſhorter than the former, but faſtened alſo upon a ſtock, and diſcharged by the means of a catch or trigger, which probably gave riſe to the lock upon the modern muſket. I cannot pretend to determine at what period the croſs bow was firſt brought into this country, but I believe not long before the commencement of the thirteenth century; at leaſt, I have never met with any repreſentation of ſuch an engine prior to that period. On the continent, where probably it originated, its appearance might be ſomewhat earlier. Our hiſtorians aſſure us, that Richard the Firſt was wounded by an arrow from a bow of this kind while he was reconnoitering the walls of the caſtle of Chalezun; which wound was the occaſion of his death.

In the twenty-third year of the reign of Edward the Firſt, the Earl of Warwick had in his army a number of ſoldiers, called BALLISTARII, and this word is tranſlated *croſs-bowmen* by our chronicle writers, but certainly it may with equal propriety be rendered *ſlingers*, or *caſters of ſtones*, who frequently formed a part of the Anglo-Norman armies.

From this period we hear but little concerning the croſs bows, as military weapons, until the battle of Creſſy; at which time they were uſed by a large body o Genoeſe ſoldiers, who were particularly expert in the management of theſe weapons, and aſſiſted the French upon that memorable occaſion; but their efforts were ineffectual when oppoſed to the archery of the Engliſh. Previous to

the commencement of the battle there fell a ſharp ſhower of rain, which wetted the ſtrings of the croſs bows; and, we are told, in great meaſures prevented the archers from doing their uſual execution; but the ſtrings of the long bows uſed by the Engliſhmen do not appear to have been damaged in the leaſt by the rain; this might ariſe from their being made with different materials, or more probably from their being kept with the bows, in the bow-caſes, during the continuance of the ſhower, for every man had a caſe of canvas, or of ſome ſuch material, to draw over his bow when he had done uſing it.

In the ſucceeding annals the croſs bow is continually ſpoken of as a weapon of war. The year after the celebrated victory was obtained at Creſſy, Charles, Earl of Blois, at the ſiege of Le Roche de Rien, had no leſs than two thouſand croſs bowmen in his army. The croſs bow was uſed by the Engliſh ſoldiery chiefly at ſieges of fortified places, and on ſhipboard in battles upon the ſea. But the great fame acquired by our countrymen in archery, was derived from their practice with the long bow, and to this inſtrument they gave the preference.

VII. The reader may ſee the manner in which the croſs bow, as formerly uſed upon the fifth plate; the repreſentation given at the bottom is taken from a manuſcript of the fourteenth century; and, upon the ſame plate, copied from a painting of another manuſcript much more modern, we find exhibited a ſchool for practice; and the manner in which the archers ſhoot at the Butts, or *dead marks*, a paſtime frequently alluded to by the authors of the fifteenth and ſixteenth centuries.

In the reign of Henry the Seventh the croſs bow was forbidden by law to be uſed; and, ſoon after his ſon aſcended the throne, it was found neceſſary to renew the prohibition; yet, notwithſtanding the interference of the legiſlature, in leſs than twenty years afterwards the uſage of croſs bows and hand guns was ſo prevalent, that a new ſtatute was judged neceſſary, which forbad the uſe of both, and inflicted a penalty of ten pounds for keeping a croſs bow in the houſe. This ſevere fine might probably produce a temporary reformation; which certainly was not of long continuance, for croſs bows were commonly uſed again in the ſucceeding reigns. In the preſent day the croſs bow is ſeldom to be met with unleſs in the public armories.

VIII. But to return from this digreſſion: as far back as the thirteenth century, every perſon not having a greater annual revenue in land than one hundred pence, was obligated to have in his poſſeſſion a bow and arrow, with other arms, offenſive and defenſive; and all ſuch as had no poſſeſſions, but could afford to purchaſe arms, were commanded to have a bow with ſharp arrows, if they dwelt without the royal foreſts, and a bow with round headed arrows, if they reſided within the foreſts. It was alſo ordained that proper officers ſhould be appointed to ſee that theſe weapons were kept in good order, and ready for immediate ſervice.

IX. Notwithſtanding the manifeſt advantages accruing to the nation

nation from the practice of archery, it ſeems to have been much neglected, even at a time when the glory of the Engliſh archers was in its zenith, I mean in the reign of Edward the Third; which occaſioned that monarch to ſend a letter of complaint upon this ſubject to the Sheriffs of London, declaring that the ſkill in ſhooting with arrows was almoſt totally laid aſide for the purſuit of various uſeleſs and unlawful games. He therefore commanded them to prevent ſuch idle practices within the city and liberties of London, and to ſee that the leiſure time upon holidays was ſpent in recreations with bows and arrows. The ſame command was repeated in the twelfth year of the reign of Richard the Second; but probably its good effects were merely temporary. And in the fifth year of Edward the Fourth an ordinance was made, commanding every Engliſhman and Iriſhman, dwelling in England, to have a long bow of his own height; the act directs, that butts ſhould be made in every townſhip, at which the inhabitants were to ſhoot at, up and down, upon all feaſt days, under the penalty of one halfpenny for every time they omitted to perform this exerciſe.

In the ſixteenth century we met with heavy complaints reſpecting the diſuſe of the long bow, and eſpecially in the vicinity of London. Stow informs us, "that before his time it had been cuſtomary at Bartholomew tide, for the Lord Mayor, with the Sheriffs and Aldermen, to go into the fields at Finſbury, where the citizens were aſſembled, and ſhot at the ſtandard, with broad and ſlight arrows, *for games*; and this exerciſe was continued for ſeveral days; but at the period in which our author lived it was practiſed only one afternoon, three or four days after the feſtival of St. Bartholomew.

The ſame writer attributes the decay of archery among the Londoners to the encloſures made near the metropolis, by which means the citizens were deprived of room ſufficient or proper for the purpoſe; and his obſervations appear to have been juſtly founded, for a few years poſterior to his death a commiſſion was granted by James the Firſt to many perſons of quality, in which were recited and eſtabliſhed the good ſtatutes, ordinances, and proclamations, that had been previouſly made at different times in favour of archery. This commiſſion extended to the prevention of encloſures in the grounds formerly uſed for the practice of the bow.

The commiſſioners were alſo empowered to ſurvey the lands adjoining to the city of London, its ſuburbs, and within two miles circuit; and to reduce them to the ſame ſtate and order for the uſe of the archers as they ſtood at the beginning of the reign of Henry the Eighth; and where they found any encroachments, to cauſe the banks to be thrown down, the ditches filled up, and the open ſpaces to be made level. Charles the Firſt confirmed this commiſſion, or granted another to the ſame purpoſe.

X. In the reign of Henry the Eighth three ſeveral acts were made for promoting the practice of ſhooting with the long bow; one, as we have already ſeen, prohibited the uſe of croſs bows and hand guns; another was occaſion-

ed by a complaint from the bowyers, the fletchers, or *arrow-makers*, the ſtringers, and the arrow head makers, ſtating that many unlawful games were practiſed in the open fields, to the detriment of the public morals, and great decay of archery. Thoſe games were therefore ſtrictly prohibited by parliament; and a third act followed, which obliged every man, being the King's ſubject, to exerciſe himſelf in ſhooting with the long bow, and alſo to keep a bow with arrows continually in his houſe. Fathers and guardians were alſo commanded to teach the male children the uſe of the long bow, and to have at all times bows provided for them; and maſters were ordered to find bows for their apprentices, and to compel them to learn to ſhoot with them upon holidays, and at every other convenient time. By virtue of the ſame act, every man who kept a croſs bow in his houſe was liable to the penalty of ten pounds.

Soon afterwards, that is in the twenty-ninth year of the ſame King's reign, the uſe of croſs bows under certain reſtrictions was permitted, a patent being then granted by him to Sir Chriſtopher Morris, maſter of his ordinance, Anthony Knewyt and Peter Mewtas, gentlemen of his privy chamber, for them to be overſeers of the ſcience of ARTILLERY, by which was meant *long bows*, *croſs bows*, and *hand guns*. Others were appointed to be maſters and rulers of the ſame ſcience, with power to them and their ſucceſſors, to eſtabliſh a perpetual corporation, called the *Fraternity of Saint George*, and to admit ſuch perſons as they found to be eligible. The members of this ſociety were alſo permitted, for paſtime ſake, to practiſe ſhooting at all ſorts of marks and butts, and at the game of Popinjay, and other games, as at fowls and the like, in the city and ſuburbs of London, as well as in any other convenient places.

I may juſt add, that in addition to the hand guns, I met with other inſtruments of like kind mentioned in the reign of Elizabeth, namely, *demy hags*, or *hag butts*; they ſhot with theſe engines not only at butts and other dead marks, but alſo at birds and beaſts, uſing ſometimes bullets, and ſometimes half ſhot; but in the beginning of the ſeventeenth century the word ARTILLERY was uſed in a much more extenſive ſenſe, and comprehended long bows, croſs bows, ſlur bows, and ſtone bows; alſo ſcorpions, rams, and catapults, which, the writer tells us, were formerly uſed; he then names the fire-arms as follows, cannons, baſeliſks, culverins, jakers, faulcons, minions, fowlers, chambers, harquebuſſes, calivers, petronils, piſtols, and dags. "This," ſays he, "is the artillerie, which is nowe in the moſt eſtimation, and they are divided into great ordinance, and into ſhot or guns," which proves that the uſe of fire-arms had then in great meaſure ſuperceded the practice of artillery.

XI. In the reign of Edward the Fourth an ordinance was eſtabliſhed, which compelled the bowyers of London to ſell the beſt bow ſtaves at three ſhillings and fourpence each, which was confirmed in the third year of Henry the Seventh, and in the thirty-third year

year of his ſon Henry the Eighth; but theſe acts were repealed in the third year of Queen Mary, and the following prices were ſettled by the parliament: for a bow made of the beſt foreign yew, ſix ſhillings and eightpence; for an inferior ſort, three ſhillings and fourpence; and for one made of Engliſh yew, two ſhillings.

Notwithſtanding the interference of the legiſlature in favour of archery, it gradually declined, and at the concluſion of the ſeventeenth century was nearly, if not altogether, diſcontinued. Yet, if we may credit a dull poem, written in the reign of Charles the Second, ſome attempts were then made by the nobility to revive this manly paſtime. I ſhall only quote the four following lines:

Forſake your lov'd Olympian games awhile,
With which the tedious minutes you beguile:
Leave quoits and nine pins, thoſe bear-garden ſports,
And follow *ſhooting*, often uſed at courts.

In the preſent day the uſe of the muſket is become ſo general, that archery, though it continues to be partially practiſed, has little chance of recovering its former popularity.

XII. An author well verſed in the ſubject of archery, who lived in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, informs us, that it was neceſſary for the archer to have a BRACER, or cloſe ſleeve, to lace upon the left arm; it was alſo proper for this bracer to be made with materials ſufficiently rigid to prevent any folds which might impede the bow ſtring when looſed from the hand; to this was to be added a SHOOTING GLOVE, for the protection of the fingers.—The Bow, he tells us, ought to be made with well ſeaſoned wood, and formed with great exactneſs, tapering from the middle towards each end.—Bows were ſometimes made of brazil, of elm, of aſh, and of ſeveral other woods; but *eugh* or *yew*, had the ſanction, from general experience, of ſuperiority. Reſpecting the BOW STRING the author was not decided which to prefer; thoſe made with good *hemp*, according to the common uſage of the time in which he lived, or thoſe manufactured with *flax* or *ſilk*; he therefore thinks the choice ought to be left to the ſtring-maker. There are, he tells us, three eſſential parts in the compoſition of the ARROW, that is to ſay, the *ſtele* or wand, the *feathers*, and the *head*. The ſtele was not always made with the ſame ſpecies of wood, but varied as occaſion required, to ſuit the different manners of ſhooting practiſed by the archers; he commends ſound *aſh* for military arrows, and prefers it to *aſp*, which in his day was generally uſed for the arrows belonging to the army; but for paſtime, he thought that none were better than thoſe made with *oak*, hardbeam, or birch; but after all, ſays he, in this point I hold it beſt to truſt to the recommendation of an honeſt fletcher. The feathers from the wings of a *gooſe*, and eſpecially of a *grey gooſe*, he thought were preferable to any others for the pluming of an arrow. There was, it ſeems, but little difference between the two wings of one bird; but, according to the opinion of the beſt arrow-makers, the ſecond feathers was beſt in ſome caſes, and the pinion in others. It was neceſſary for

for an archer to have ſeveral arrows of *one flight*, plumed with feathers from different wings, to ſuit the diverſity of the winds. We are not from theſe directions to conclude, that the gooſe alone affordeth the plumage for the arrows; the feathers of many other birds were uſed for the ſame purpoſe, and are mentioned in the metrical romances of the middle ages. An old ballad of Robin Hood ſays, that he and his followers had "an hundred bows furniſhed with ſtrings, and an hundred ſheafs of good arrows, with bright burniſhed heads; every arrow was an ell long, adorned with peacock's feathers, and bound at the notching with white ſilk."

With them they had an hundred bowes,
The ſtringes were well ydight;
An hundred ſheſe of arrows good,
With hedes burniſh'd full bryght:
And every arrowe an ell longe,
With *peacocke* well ydight,
And nocked they were with white ſilk,
It was a ſemely ſyght.

And Chaucer, in his deſcription of the "ſquyers yeoman," ſays,

And he was clad in cote and hode of grene,
A ſheſe of peacocke arrowes bryght and ſhene;
Under his belt he bare ful thriftely,
Well coude he dreſſe his tackle yomanly;
His arowes drouped not with fethers lowe,
And in his hande he bare a myghty bowe.

The adornment of theſe arrows with peacocks feathers is not to be conſidered as a mere poetical flouriſh, for we have ſufficient teſtimony, that ſuch plumage was actually uſed.

But, returning to our author, he informs us, that the Engliſh arrows had forked heads, and broad heads, yet he thought that round pointed heads reſembling a bodkin were the beſt. The notch or ſmall hollow part at the bottom of the arrow, made for the reception of the bow ſtring, was varied as occaſion required, or at the will of the archer, being ſometimes deep and narrow, and ſometimes broad, and not deep.

XIII. Having thus furniſhed the archer with his neceſſary accoutrements, our author proceeds to inſtruct him how they ought to be managed; but firſt of all he recommends a *graceful attitude*. He ſhould ſtand, ſays another writer, fairly and upright with his body, his left foot at a convenient diſtance before his right, holding the bow by the middle, with his left arm ſtretched out, and with the three firſt fingers, and the thumb of the right hand, upon the lower part of the arrow affixed to the ſtring of the bow. In the ſecond place, a proper attention was to be paid to the *nocking*, that is, the application of the notch at the bottom of the arrow to the bow ſtring; we are told that the notch of the arrow ſhould reſt between the fore finger and the middle finger of the right hand. Thirdly, our attention is directed to the proper manner of drawing the bow ſtring; in ancient times, ſays Aſcham, the right hand was brought to the right pap; but at preſent it is elevated to the right ear, and the latter method he prefers to the former. The ſhaft of the arrow below the feathers ought to be reſted upon the knuckle of the forefinger of the left hand; the arrow was to be drawn to the head, and not held too long in that ſituation, but neatly and ſmartly diſcharged, without any hanging upon the ſtring. Among the requiſites neceſſary

ceſſary to conſtitute a good archer, are a clear ſight, ſteadily directed to the mark; and proper judgment, to determine the diſtance of the ground: he ought alſo to know how to take the advantage of a ſide wind to be well acquainted with what compaſs his arrows would require in their flight: courage is alſo an indiſpenſible requiſite, for whoſoever, ſays our author, ſhoots with the leaſt trepidation, he is ſure to ſhoot badly. One great fault in particular he complains of, which young archers generally fall into, and that is, the direction of the eye to the end of the arrow, rather than to the mark; to obviate this evil habit he adviſes ſuch as were ſo accuſtomed to ſhoot in the dark, by night, at lights ſet up at a proper diſtance for that purpoſe. He then concludes with obſerving, that "bad tutorage" was rarely amended in grown up perſons; and therefore he held it eſſentially neceſſary, that great attention ſhould be paid to teaching an archer properly, while he was young; "for children," ſays he, "if ſufficient pains are taken with them at the onſet, may much more eaſily be taught to ſhoot well, than men," becauſe the latter have frequently more trouble to unlearn their bad habits, than was primitively requiſite to learn them good ones.

XIV. The marks uſually ſhot at by the archers for paſtime were, "BUTTS, PRICKES, *and* ROAVERS." The *butt*, we are told, was a *level mark*, and required a ſtrong arrow, with a very broad feather; the *pricke* was a "*mark of compaſs*," but certain in its diſtance; and to this mark ſtrong ſwift arrows, of one flight, with a middling ſized feather, were beſt ſuited; the *roaver* was a *mark* of uncertain length; it was therefore proper for the archer to have various kinds of arrows, of different weights, to be uſed according to the different changements made in the diſtance of the ground.

The Corniſh men are ſpoken of as good archers, and ſhot their arrows to a great length; they are alſo, ſays Carew, "well ſkilled in near ſhooting, and in well aimed ſhooting; the *butts* made them perfect in the one, and the *roaving* in the other, for the *prickes*, the firſt corrupters of archery, through too much preciſeneſs, were formerly ſcarcely known, and little practiſed." Other marks are occaſionally mentioned, as the *ſtandard*, the *target*, *hazel wands*, *roſe garlands*, and the *popinjay*, which, we are told, was an artificial parrot. I have not met with ſuch a mark in any manuſcript delineation; but, upon the upper part of the fifth plate, the reader will find a *cock* ſubſtituted for the *parrot*, and the archer has diſcharged his arrow very ſkilfully.

XV. The length of the bow is not clearly aſcertained; thoſe uſed by the ſoldiery appear, in the manuſcript drawings, to have been as tall at leaſt as the bearers; agreeable to an ordinance made in the fifth year of Edward the Fourth, commanding every man to have a bow his own height; and they might upon the average be ſomething ſhort of ſix feet long. The arrows uſed by the Engliſh archers at the memorable battle of Agincourt were a full yard in length. Carew, in his Survey of Cornwall, ſays,

ſays, "The Corniſh archers for long ſhooting uſed arrows a cloth yard long." The old and more modern ballads of Chevy Chaſe ſpeak of the arrow as being the length of a cloth yard, but ſome of theſe poetical legends extend it an ell.

Hall mentions a company of archers, who met King Henry the Eighth at Shooters-hill, on a May day morning, where they diſcharged their bows in his preſence, and the arrows made a loud whiſtling in their flight, "by crafte of the heade." The ſtrangeneſs of the noiſe, we are informed, ſurpriſed his Majeſty, though at the ſame time he was much pleaſed with the contrivance. A modern author aſſures us this ſound was occaſioned by holes being made in the arrow heads, and that ſuch weapons were uſed upon military occaſions, and eſpecially as ſignals; but not, I preſume, before the time mentioned by the hiſtorian; for had not thoſe arrows been newly introduced, there is no reaſon why the King, who was well acquainted with every branch of archery, ſhould have been ſurpriſed at the ſound they made, or be pleaſed at the ſight of them.

XVI. If the metrical romances and ballads of the former ages may be depended upon, the ſtrength of our Engliſh archers in drawing of the bow, and their ſkill in directing the arrow to its mark, were juſtly the objects of admiration.

The reader, I truſt, will pardon the inſertion of the following extracts from two old poetical legends, which convey, at leaſt, ſome idea of the practice of archery in times anterior to our own; the firſt is a ballad in eight *fyttes*, or parts, entitled, A mery geſte of Robyn Hoode. According to the ſtory the King thought proper to pay Robin Hood a viſit, diſguiſed in the habit of an abbot; and the outlaw, by way of entertaining his gueſt, propoſed a ſhooting match. Two wands were then ſet up, but at ſo great a diſtance from each other, that,

By fyfty ſpace our Kyng ſayde,
The markes were to longe.
On every ſyde a roſe garlande
The ſhot under the lyne.
Whoſo faileth of the Roſe garland, ſaid Robyn,
His takyll he ſhal tyne;
And yielde it to his maiſter,
Be it never ſo fine.
Twyſe Robyn ſhot about,
And ever he cleved the wande.

And ſo did Gilbert, Little John, and Scathelocke, his companions; but

At the laſt ſhot, that Robyn ſhot,
Fore all his frendes fore,
Yet he fayled of the garland,
Three fyngers and more.—

Of courſe his "takill" was forfeited, which he preſented to the King, ſaying,

Syr Abbot, I deliver thee myne arrowe.

The ſecond poem is alſo of the ballad kind, and apparently as old as the former, wherein Adam Bell, Clym of the Cloughe, and William Cloudeſle, are introduced to ſhoote before the King. The butts or dead marks ſet up by the King's archers, were cenſured by Cloudeſle, ſaying,

I hold hym never no good archer,
That ſhoteth at buttes ſo wide—

and having procured two "haſell roddes," he ſet them up at the diſtance of four hundred yards from each other; his firſt attempt in ſhooting

ſhooting at them, contrary to the expectation of the King, was ſucceſsful, for it is ſaid,

Cloudeſle with a bearying arowe
Clave the wand in two

The King being much ſurpriſed at the performance, told him he was the beſt archer he ever ſaw. Cloudeſle then propoſed to ſhew him a more extraordinary proof of his ſkill, and tied his eldeſt ſon, a child only ſeven years old, to a ſtake, and placed an apple upon his head; one hundred and twenty yards were meaſured from the ſtake, and Cloudeſle went to the end of the meaſurement: he firſt entreated the ſpectators to be ſilent,

And then drew out a fayre brode arrowe;
Hys bow was great and longe,
He ſet that arrowe in his bowe—
That was both ſtyffe and ſtronge.
Then Cloudeſle cleft the apple in two,
As many a man myght ſe,
Over Gods forbode, ſayde the Kynge,
That thou ſholde ſhole at me.

XVII. If we were to judge of the merits of the ancient bowmen from the practice of archery, as it is exerciſed in the preſent day, theſe poetical eulogiums would appear to be entirely fictitious. There are no ſuch diſtances now aſſigned for the *marks* as are mentioned above, nor ſuch preciſion even at *ſhort lengths* in the direction of the arrows. I believe few, if any, of the modern archers in long ſhooting, reach four hundred yards; or in ſhooting at a mark, exceed the diſtance of eighty or an hundred. I have ſeen the gentlemen who practiſe archery in the vicinity of London, repeatedly ſhoot from end to end, and not touch the target with an arrow; and for the ſpace of ſeveral hours, without lodging one in the *circle* of *gold*, about ſix inches diameter in the centre of the target; this, indeed, is ſo ſeldom done, that one is led to think, when it happens, it is rather the effect of chance than of ſkill; which proves what Aſcham has aſſerted, that an archer ſhould be well taught early in life, and confirm the good teaching by continual practice afterwards. We may alſo recollect that archery is now followed for amuſement only, and is to be commended as a manly and gentlemanlike exerciſe.

I remember about four or five years back, at a meeting of the ſociety of archers, in their ground near Bedford-ſquare, the Turkiſh ambaſſador paid them a viſit; and complained that the encloſure was by no means ſufficiently extenſive for a *long ſhot*; he therefore went into the adjacent fields to ſhew his dexterity, where I ſaw him ſhoot ſeveral arrows more than double the length of the archery ground, and his longeſt ſhot fell upwards of four hundred and eighty yards from his ſtanding. The bow he uſed was much ſhorter than thoſe belonging to the Engliſh archers, and his arrows were of the bolt kind, with round heads made of wood. This diſtance rather exceeds the length our rhymiſt has given to the wands ſet up by Cloudeſle, and his companions; but then we are to recollect they ſhot with vaſt preciſion to that diſtance, which the ambaſſador did not; he had no mark, and his arrows fell exceedingly wide of each other. Carew, ſpeaking of the Corniſh archers two centuries back, ſays, "For long ſhooting their ſhaft was a cloth yard *in length*, and their prickes twenty-four

four ſcore *paces*, equal to four hundred and eighty yards; and for ſtrength, they would pierce any ordinary armour;" he then adds, "and one Robert Arundell, whom I well knew, could ſhoot twelve ſcore paces with his right hand, with his left, and from behind his head; this puts me in mind of a curious anecdote related by Hall: "There came to hys grace, King Henry the Eighth, a certayn man, with a bowe and arrowe, and he deſyred his grace to take the muſter of hym, and to ſee him ſhoote; for that tyme hys grace was contented; the man put hys one fote in hys boſome, and ſo dyd ſhoote, and ſhote a very good ſhote, and well towardes hys marke; whereof, not onely his grace, but all others greatly merveyled; ſo the Kynge gave him a rewarde," and for this curious feat he afterwards obtained the by-name of *Fote in Boſome*.

XVIII. The ſame monarch having appointed a great match of archery at Windſor, a citizen of London, named BARLOW, an inhabitant of Shoreditch, joined the archers, and ſurpaſſed them all in ſkill; the King was ſo much pleaſed with his performance, that he jocoſely gave him the title of DUKE of SHOREDITCH; and this title the captain of the London archers retained for a conſiderable time afterwards. In the reign of Elizabeth a grand ſhooting match was held in London, and the captain of the archers aſſuming his title of *Duke of Shoreditch*, ſummoned a ſuit of nominal nobility, under the titles of Marquis of Barlo, of Clerkenwell, of Iſlington, of Hoxton, of Shacklewell, and Earl of Pancraſs, &c. and theſe meeting together at the appointed time, with their different companies, proceeded in a pompous march from Merchant Taylors' Hall, conſiſting of three thouſand archers, ſumptuouſly apparelled; nine hundred and forty-two of them having chains of gold about their necks. This ſplendid company was guarded by four thouſand whifflers and billmen, beſides pages and footmen. They paſſed through Broad-ſtreet, the reſidence of their captain, and thence into Moorfields, by Finſbury, and ſo on to Smithfield, where, having performed ſeveral evolutions, they ſhot at a target for honour.

Another cavalcade of like kind was made by the London archers in the reign of Charles the Second, and the King himſelf was preſent; but being a wet day, his Majeſty was obliged to leave the field ſoon after the arrival of the bowmen.

XIX. Kings and princes have been celebrated for their ſkill in *archery*, and among thoſe of our own country may be placed King Henry the Seventh, who in his youth was ſo partial to this exerciſe, and therefore it is ſaid of him in an old poem,

See where he ſhoteth at the butts,
And with hym are lordes three;
He weareth a gowne of velvette blacke,
And it is coted above the knee.

He alſo amuſed himſelf with the bow after he had obtained the crown, as we find from an account of his expenditures, where the following memorandums occur: "Loſt to my Lord Morging, at buttes, ſix ſhillings and eightpence;" and again, "paid to Sir Edward Boroughe thirteen ſhillings and fourpence, which the King loſt at buttes with his croſs bowe."

bowe." Both the ſons of Henry followed his example, and were excellent archers; and eſpecially the eldeſt, prince Arthur, who uſed frequently to viſit the Society of London bowmen at Mile-End, where they uſually met and practiſed with them. From his expertneſs in handling the bow, every good ſhooter was called by his name. The captain alſo of the fraternity was honoured with the title of *Prince Arthur*, and the other archers were ſtiled his *knights*.

After the death of prince Arthur, his brother Henry continued to honour the meeting at Mile-End with his preſence. We have ſeen already that he was exceedingly fond of archery, and if Hall may be credited, at the time of his coming to the crown, "He ſhotte as ſtrong, and as greate a lengthe as any of his garde."

King Edward the Sixth, though not ſo conſpicuous as his father, or his uncle, was nevertheleſs an encourager of archery, and frequently amuſed himſelf with the bow.

Charles the Firſt was an archer, as appears from a dedication of a treatiſe, called the *Bowman's Glory*; and Catherine of Portugal, queen to Charles the Second, was probably much pleaſed with ſeeing the paſtime of archery practiſed; for in compliment to her, a badge of ſilver weighing twenty-two ounces, was made for the marſhal of the fraternity of bowmen, having upon it the repreſentation of an archer with his bow drawn in the action of ſhooting, and inſcribed with her name.

XX. I find but little ſaid reſpecting the rewards beſtowed upon the beſt bowmen: the London fraternity are ſaid to have ſhot for paſtime, or for honour; however, I make no doubt, upon particular trials of ſkill, rewards ſufficient to excite the emulation of the archers were propoſed; they might ſometimes conſiſt of money, and perhaps more frequently of ſome other valuable article, as the following lines may teſtify, extracted from an old legend of Robin Hood, and the prize is judiciouſly appropriated to the purpoſe. The poet tells us, that the ſherif of Notyngham,

Did crye a ful fayre playe
That all the beſt archyres of the north
Should come upon a daye;
And they that ſhote, al of the beſt,
The prize ſhould bear away.
And he that ſhoteth al of the beſt,
Furtheſt, fayre and lowe,
At a payre of goodly buttes,
Under the grene wood ſhawe,
A ryght good ARROW he ſhal have,
The ſhaft of ſylver whyte,
The head, and fethers of riche red gold,
In Englande is none lyke.—
And when they came to Notyngham,
The buttes were fayre and longe.—
Thriſe Robin ſhot about,
And alway he cleft the wand.

It is added, that to him was delivered the "goode arrowe, for beſt worthie was he."

Examination of the fact of the deſtruction of the Alexandrian Library. From White's *Ægyptiaca.*

ONE digreſſion, says the Arabian proverb, is the parent of another. In a work of which amuſement is the chief end, digreſſions may be admitted with little reſerve. Neither are they to be altogether excluded from treatiſes on graver ſubjects and of a more regular form, if the opinions of the writer can, by theſe means, be more effectually illuſtrated and

confirmed; if he can lead his reader through theſe deviations inſenſibly on towards the main object and end of his enquiry.

Such are the biographical digreſſions which are conſtantly interſperſed by Abulpharajus throughout one of his Univerſal Hiſtories. To his method of introducing theſe occaſional epiſodes we owe the only account we poſſeſs, of the fruitleſs attempt of Philoponus to preſerve the ALEXANDRIAN LIBRARY. The application of the chriſtian philoſopher to Amru, the general of Omar, is thus recorded by the Arabian hiſtorian.

"SECTIO" [VEL DIGRESSIO].

* * * * * * * * *

" Vixit [Johannnes, quem vo-
" camus nos Grammaticum,] donec
" caperet Amrus Ebno'l Aſi Alex-
" andriam, et ad Amrum acceſſit;
" qui, cognito quem in ſcientiis
" locum teneret, honore ipſum
" affecit audiitque de ſermonibus
" ejus philoſophicis quibus aſſueti
" non fuerant Arabes, quod eum ad
" ſtuporem redigeret, quoque per-
" celleretur; fuit autem Amrus
" intellectu præditus, adres percipiendas promptus, conceptibus
" claris adhæſit ergo illi, neque ab
" eo diceſſit. Deinde die quodam
" dixit illi Johannes Circumiviſti
" tu omnia Alexandriæ repoſitoria
" omniaque rerum genera quæ in
" iis reperiuntur obſignaſti; quod
" ad illa igitur, quæ tibi profu-
" tura ſint, nolo tibi contradicere,
" at quæ nulli tibi uſui futura
" ſunt, nobis potius convenient.
" Dixit illi Amrus, quid eſt quo
" opus tibi, ſit? Dixit illi; Li-
" bri philoſophici, qui in gazo-
" phylaciis [Bibliothicis] regiis
" reperiuntur. Hoc, inquit Am-
" rus, eſt de quo ſtatuere non poſ-
" ſum. Illud [pelis] de quo ego
" quid in mandatis dare non poſ-
" ſum, niſi poſt veniam ab Impe-
" ratore fidelium Omaro Ebno'l
" Chattab impetratam. Scriptis
" ergo ad Omarum literis, notum
" ei fecit, quid dixiſſet Johannes,
" perlatæque ſunt ad ipſum ab
" Omaro literæ, in quibus ſcrip-
" ſit.—*Quod ad libros quorum menti-*
" *onem feciſti: ſi in illis contineatur,*
" *quod cum libro Dei conveniat, in*
" *libro Dei* [*eſt*] *quod ſufficiat abſque*
" *illo; quod ſi in illis fuerit quod*
" *libro Dei repugnet, neutiquam eſt*
" *eo* [*nobis*] *opus, jube igitur e medio*
" *tolli.* Juſſit ergo Amrus Ebno'l
" Aſi diſpergi eos per balnea
" Alexandriæ, atque illis calefaci-
" endis comburi: ita ſpatio ſemes-
" tri conſumpti ſunt. Audi quid
" factum fuerit et mirare."

" The ſentence of Omar," ſays Mr. Gibbon, " was executed with
" blind obedience: the volumes of
" paper or parchment were diſtri-
" buted TO THE FOUR THOUSAND
" BATHS; AND SUCH WAS THEIR
" INCREDIBLE MULTITUDE,
" THAT SIX MONTHS WERE BARE-
" LY SUFFICIENT FOR THE CON-
" SUMPTION OF THIS PRECIOUS
" FUEL. Since the Dynaſties of
" Abulpharagius have been given
" to the world in a Latin verſion,
" the tale has been repeatedly
" tranſcribed; and every ſcholar,
" with pious indignation, has de-
" plored the irreparable ſhipwreck
" of the learning, the arts and the
" genius of antiquity. For my
" own part I am ſtrongly tempted
" to deny both the fact and its
" conſequences. The fact is, in-
" deed, marvellous; 'Read and
" wonder!' ſays the hiſtorian
" himſelf." Edit. 4to. vol. v.
" p. 343.

" This

"This anecdote," ſubjoins Mr. Gibbon, in a note on this paſſage, "will be in vain ſought in "the annals of Eutychius, and the "Saracenic Hiſtory of Elmacin. "The ſilence of Abulfeda, Mur-"tadi, and a crowd of Moſlems, "is leſs concluſive from their "ignorance of Chriſtian litera-"ture."

But firſt, we may aſk, is the ſtory of Abulpharajus itſelf correctly reported by Mr Gibbon? ſurely it is an unfair inference, which he has made from the hiſtorian's words, that *all* the four thouſand baths of the city were ſupplied with theſe books for fuel. Their diſtribution amongſt any number of the baths would juſtify the expreſſion of Abulpharajus, and the meaning which I would affix to it. He does not ſay, that *ſix months were barely ſufficient for the conſumption:* this is a falſe comment upon a miſtaken text. The Arabic hiſtorian ſays nothing like it; he ſimply relates the fact, that in half a year the books were entirely conſumed: but how many baths were employed in their deſtruction he neither ſays nor inſinuates. The incredible multitudes of the volumes therefore vaniſhes at once. If during the whole time which elapſed, whilſt theſe precious monuments of antiquity were gradually conſuming, no ſentiment of remorſe or compunction aroſe in the breaſts of the conquerors, no wiſh to reſcue the ſtill remaining treaſures of this ineſtimable Library from further ravage and deſtruction, well might Abulpharajus exclaim, "Hear and wonder!" Hear and wonder at the brutal ignorance, and unrelenting fury of the barbarians!

Secondly, even if I ſhould grant to Mr. Gibbon, that we have *only* the evidence of Abulpharajus for the general fact, I ſee no ground for *rational ſcepticiſm* with regard to its reality. I will concede even more; I will allow that Abulpharajus HIMSELF does not mention the circumſtance in his *Syriac Univerſal Hiſtory*, though he generally deſcribes the period when it happened.

The native of theſe two Univerſal Hiſtories, the one written in Arabic, the other in Syriac, may be aptly illuſtrated by two modern publications.

A work has lately been given to the public, which, whether we conſider the judicious ſelection and ſkilful arrangemeut of facts; the proofs brought forward to atteſt them; the ſagacity diſplayed in tracing their relations and dependencies; the ſevere logic with which all the inferences are deduced; or the manly eloquence with which they are urged, deſerves the praiſe and the gratitude, not of Britons only, but of every friend to truth, to juſtice, and to mankind. This maſterly performance is the Hiſtory of the Politics of Great Britain and France, written in German and Engliſh by my learned and excellent friend, Mr. Herbert Marſh. Of the Engliſh publication he thus obſerves: "The work now preſented to the "Britiſh public, may, in one ſenſe, "be called a tranſlation, as it was "originally written in German: "but as it proceeds from the au-"thor himſelf, it has an equal "claim to the title of an original. "In fact, it contains not a literal "tranſlation, but only the ſame "narrative drawn up in another "language and ſupported by the

" ſame documents. In various " places new matter has been ad- " ded, and ſeveral alterations have " been made in the arrangement of " the materials. On the other " hand, all alluſions to German " writers, with ſome other paſ- " ſages, which would have been " unintereſting if not unintelligi- " ble to a Britiſh reader, have " been omitted."

Now this will explain, in ſome degree, what I have to obſerve concerning the two Univerſal Hiſtories of Abulpharajus, the one written in the Syriac language, the other in that of Arabia. They both contain, in general, the ſame narrative, but with occaſional additions and omiſſions, as appeared to the author moſt intereſting to the claſs of readers for whom he was writing. Thus many particulars concerning the ſiege and capture of Acca, with the various meſſages which paſſed betwixt our lion-hearted Richard and his generous rival Saladin, are given at large in the Syriac, but entirely paſſed over in the Arabic; on the contrary, the requeſt of Philoponus, and the burning of the Alexandrian library, are given in the Arabic, but omitted in the Syriac. Inſtances of this kind are numerous, and every general ſcholar may judge for himſelf, as both the Hiſtories in the original languages, together with the Latin tranſlations, are before the public. I truſt therefore that we ſhall hear no more of the objections urged by Mr. Gibbon, " that the " ſolitary report of a ſtranger, " who wrote at the end of ſix hun- " dred years on the confines of " Media, is over-balanced by the " ſilence of two annaliſts of a more " early date, both Chriſtians, both " natives of Egypt, and the moſt " ancient of whom, the patriarch " Eutychius, has amply deſcribed " the conqueſt of Alexandria."

If Abulpharajus himſelf, in his Syriac Univerſal Hiſtory, has both given the life of Omar, and noticed the capture of Alexandria, and yet omitted mentioning the burning of the library, and even the very name of Philoponus, why might not the two annaliſts do the ſame?

The high literary, as well as eccleſiaſtical rank of this illuſtrious Primate of the Eaſt, and the numerous concurrent teſtimonies as well of Mahometans as Chriſtians to the gravity and ſanctity of his character, would, in my opinion, even if he were found to ſtand ſingle in his teſtimony, more than over-balance the frivolous cavils of Mr. Gibbon.

But further, to the negative argument of Mr. Gibbon, I ſhall venture to oppoſe the poſitive teſtimony of two Arabic hiſtorians, both writers of unqueſtionable authority, and both orthodox profeſſors of the Muſſulman faith—MACRISI and ABDOLLATIF; who not only agree in ſtating the fact—the *burning* of the library, but alſo point out to us the exact ſpot on which the library ſtood. For after deſcribing the column, commonly called Pompey's Pillar, and mentioning the adjacent ruins of ſome ancient edifice, they add, that " THERE WAS THE LIBRARY WHICH AMRU EBN EL AAS BURNT BY THE COMMAND OF THE KHALIF OMAR." I conclude, therefore, that both the *burning*, or, more ſtrictly ſpeaking, the

deſpoiling,

deſpoiling, of the library, by Amru, and its actual ſituation, are indiſputably aſcertained.

A ſatisfactory anſwer having now, I hope, been given to the ſceptical inſinuation of Mr. Gibbon, I advance a ſtep farther. As the library deſpoiled by Amru was a ROYAL Library, and as the *firſt* Ptolemæan library was unfortunately burnt by Julius Cæſar, this muſt neceſſarily have been the *ſecond* Ptolemæan library; and conſequently part of the *Temple of Serapis*. We have at length then, by the aſſiſtance of Arabic writers, unexpectedly diſcovered the SITE OF THE SERAPEUM; a diſcovery eagerly ſought for by the curious for more than a century; and hence ariſes one ſtrong proof, that a knowledge of Arabic may be made peculiarly ſubſervient to the illuſtration of Egyptian antiquities.

But are there no paſſages, it may be aſked, in Greek or Latin authors, which corroborate the evidence of Arabic writers reſpecting the ſite of the Serapeum? I anſwer, that certainly there are; though their meaning has hitherto been wholly overlooked, and perhaps would for ever have been loſt in obſcurity, had not a ray of light broken in from the Eaſt. Such, however, is the accumulated force of theſe paſſages when properly conſidered, as to leave no room to doubt that the Temple of Serapis was contiguous to what is commonly called the Pillar of Pompey.

Account of Caerwent, *the Venta Silurum of the* Romans; *from* Coxe's *Hiſtorical Tour in* Monmouthſhire.

A Gentle riſe leads to the eaſtern gate of Caerwent, the Venta Silurum of the Romans, now reduced to an inconſiderable village. It is ſituated on an eminence, ſloping gradually into the plain. During ſeveral journies which I made through this place, I examined the few remains of Roman antiquities which ſtill exiſt. Its ſhape is nearly an oblong parallelogram, of that kind which the Romans called tertiata caſtra; becauſe two of the parallel ſides were nearly one third longer than the others. The walls incloſe an area of little more than a mile in circumference, the longer ſides being 505 yards, and the ſhorter 390; the north ſide is curvilinear. The corners are rounded, according to a practice ſtyled by writers on military architecture, circinatis angulorum: a method diſapproved by Vitruvius, "quia hoſtem magis tuentur quam civem;" becauſe they defend the enemy rather than the beſieged. The poſition of the fortreſs is north weſt and ſouth eaſt, the angles being nearly in the direction of the four cardinal points.

The high road to Chepſtow, which was the ſite of the Roman cauſeway, interſects it at right angles, and divides it nearly into two equal parts, paſſing through two openings, which were the eaſtern and weſtern gates. The remains of the maſonry at the eaſtern gate are ſtill viſible, and a ſtone to which one of the hinges was attached, ſtands at the door of a public houſe, and is uſed as a ſtepping ſtone for mounting horſes.

I more than once made the circuit of the walls, which I was able to trace in every direction. All the ſides, except the ſouthern, are

defended by a deep moat. The height of the wall appeared to be from twelve to twenty-four feet, though from their dilapidated ſtate it cannot be exactly aſcertained: the thickneſs at the bottom is twelve feet, and at top not leſs than nine. The ſouthern wall is the moſt perfect, and for a conſiderable length almoſt entire; the weſtern part of this ſide is ſtrengthened with three pentagonal projections, or baſtions of ſtone.

The facings, which are ſtill viſible in many parts, are principally oblong pieces of limeſtone, occaſionally intermixed with grit or ſand ſtone. The inſide is a compoſition of mortar, rag ſtones, and pebbles. The places from which the facings have been taken ſhew the internal ſtructure, preſenting broken and angular pieces bedded in the mortar, and compacted by it into one ſolid body. The maſſive ſtrength of this cement is proved by a large fragment, which has fallen from the ſouth wall: it meaſures twenty feet in length, twelve in height, nine in thickneſs, and, what is moſt remarkable, it appears to have revolved in its fall, and preſerves unbroken the ſame poſition as when it formed part of the original ſtructure. In tracing the circuit of the Roman fortreſs, the walls preſent a ſingular and diverſified appearance. In ſome places they are mantled with ivy, in others their ſummits are fringed with ſhrubs, or capped with trees which ſtart from the crevices, and overſhadow the ruins with their pendent foliage.

Several remains of antiquities, particularly pedeſtals, and teſſelated pavements, prove the ſplendour of the Roman ſtation. Mr. Strange has given in the Archæologia, an engraving of one which he diſcovered within the walls about the diſtance of a hundred yards from the weſtern entrance; this is now deſtroyed. Another moſaic pavement is ſtill viſible in a field at the ſouth weſt angle: it was incloſed within a ſmall building, which preſerved it from deſtruction; but the roof having been taken down, it is haſtening faſt to decay. The form and general poſition are eaſily diſtinguiſhed, but many of the teſſeræ are loſt, and the colour of others much damaged.

On my laſt viſit to Caerwent, the pavement was ſo much covered with weeds, that it may be ſaid only to

> "Live in deſcription, and *look green* in ſong."

I ſhall therefore preſent to the reader the accurate account of my friend Mr. Wyndham, who ſaw it when it was firſt diſcovered, and in its perfect ſtate.

"The pavement is in length twenty-one feet ſix inches, and in breadth eighteen feet. A border, edged with the Greek ſcroll and fret, ſurrounds the whole, but on the north ſide this border, being upwards of three feet, is much broader than on the other ſide. This was deſigned in order to reduce the circles within a ſquare. Theſe circles are about three feet in diameter, and are encircled with a variety of elegant ornaments, and ſeparated from each other by regular and equal diſtances. I think there are thirteen of theſe circles. The pieces of which the pavement is compoſed are nearly ſquare,

ſquare, the breadth of them about the ſize of a narrow die. Theſe are of various colours, blue, white, yellow, and red; the firſt and ſecond are of ſtone, and the yellow and red are of terra cotta. By a judicious mixture of thoſe colours, the whole pattern is as ſtrongly deſcribed as it would have been in oil colours. The original level is perfectly preſerved, and the whole compoſition is ſo elegant, and well executed, that I think it has not been ſurpaſſed by any moſaic pavement that has been diſcovered on this, or even the other ſide of the Alps. In my opinion it is equal to thoſe beautiful pavements which are preſerved in the palace of the King of Naples at Portice. I am ſtrongly inclined to think that it is of the ſame age with Agricola.

The field in which this moſaic pavement lies, contains ſeveral hillocks and mounds of earth, which were evidently formed by foundations, and ruins of old buildings. I underſtood from ſeveral of the natives, that another much larger pavement had been diſcovered, but the proprietor conceiving that his ground would be injured by the excavations, ordered it to be cloſed; this field was probably the ſite of the prætorium. Towards its extremity, which is the ſouthern angle of the fortreſs, is a mound or tumulus of earth, which might have been uſed both as an exploratory tower, and as a means of defence.

In ploughing up the grounds, and digging for foundations, numerous Roman coins are conſtantly found. I purchaſed a few, namely, a Fauſtina in ſilver; Antoninus Pius, Tetricus, Conſtantius, and Magnentius, in braſs.

Venta Silurum is named in the 14th Itinerary of Antoninus, in the 11th of Richard, and by the Monk of Ravanna; it is not mentioned by Ptolemy, whoſe account of the interior of Britain is extremely defective. From the ſize of the area, which is not inferior to that of Caerleon, and, from the ſtrength and height of the walls, it appears to have been a military ſtation of great importance. According to the opinion of ſome authors, the walls were erected under the lower empire, becauſe the Romans did not uſe turrets or flankers, like thoſe of the ſouth wall, before that æra; but it may be inferred with equal probability that the turrets were added ſince the conſtitution of the original fortreſs. According to Richard, of Cirenceſter, it was garriſoned by ſtipendiaries, and had been the capital of the Silures. I could not however trace either on the ſpot, or in the vicinity, the ſmalleſt veſtiges of a Britiſh encampment; probably the ancient reſidence of the Silures was demoliſhed on the conſtruction of the new fortreſs, and the Roman ſtation occupied the ſite of the Britiſh capital.

Account of Caerleon, *the Iſca Silurum of the* Romans; *from the ſame.*

A Little beyond Malpas church I quitted the turnpike road, which leads by Lantarnam to Ponty-Pool, and followed the route to Caerleon. About midway I mounted a ſteep and rugged aſcent, and looked down on the rich vale,

ſtretching in the form of a bow, with Newport caſtle and Caerleon church at each extremity, and the venerable manſion of St. Julian's, ſeated on the feathered banks of the Uſk, occupying the middle of the arc. On one ſide Caerleon appears in a flat, and on the other the narrow and long town of Newport riſes along the ſide of an eminence to the church of St. Woolos, embowered with trees. I rode under an ancient encampment near the old lodge of Lantharnam park, and paſſed through the opening which once formed the entrance of Iſca Silurum, the reſidence of the ſecond Auguſtan legion, and the chief ſtation of the Romans in the country of the Silures, now occupied by the ſmall town of Caerleon, which is ſeated on the right bank of the Uſk. There is no occaſion to employ many words in proof of theſe facts; the remains of the walls and amphitheatre, the numerous ſculptures, altars, pavements, inſcriptions, coins, and other antiquities diſcovered within the town, and the vicinity, evidently prove it the ſite of a great Roman city. Immenſe quantities of Roman bricks, ſtamped with the impreſſion relievo of [LEG II. AVG], which continue to be found, ſeveral of which I myſelf obſerved, teſtify that it was the ſtation of the ſecond Auguſtan legion during a long courſe of years.

It is denominated in Antonine's Itinerary, Iſca Legionis ſecundæ Auguſta; by the monk of Ravenna, Iſca Auguſta; by others Iſca Silurum; and by Richard, Iſca Colonia.

The modern name of Caerleon is generally ſuppoſed to be derived from Caer, the Britiſh word for a fortified city; and Leon, a corruption of Legionum, meaning the city of the legions. But this derivation is derived by Mr. Owen, author of the Welſh Dictionary, and one of the beſt Britiſh linguiſts: he affirms the Britiſh name to be Caer Lliöw, or the city of the waters; this etymology is not inapplicable to its ſituation on the banks of a tide river which riſes very high, and near the Avon Lwyd, a torrent inundating the country.

Giraldus Cambrenſis gives a brilliant account of its ruins in the twelfth century: "Many remains of its former magnificence are ſtill viſible; ſplendid palaces, which once emulated with their gilded roofs the grandeur of Rome, for it was originally built by the Roman princes, and adorned with ſtately edifices; a gigantic tower, numerous baths, ruins of temples, and a theatre, the walls of which are partly ſtanding. Here we ſtill ſee, both within and without the walls, ſubterraneous buildings, aqueducts, and vaulted caverns; and what appeared to me moſt remarkable, ſtoves ſo excellently contrived, as to diffuſe their heat through ſecret and imperceptible pores.

The preſent ruins, however, are extremely inconſiderable, and conſiſt only of walls, and the excavation of the amphitheatre. The form and ſize of the ancient town may be diſcovered by the line of wall, which, though in many places dilapidated, and in others covered with buildings, have been traced by Mr. Evans: with his kind aſſiſtance I examined their ſite, and am enabled to preſent to the public an accurate plan of the town, taken by Mr. Morrice.

The

The ſhape of the fortreſs appears to be oblong, inclining to a ſquare; three of the ſides are ſtrait, and the fourth, like the northern wall of Caerwent, curvilinear; the ſides are of different dimenſions, and incloſe a circumference of about 1800 yards; the corners are gently rounded, like moſt of the Roman ſtations in Britain, and the four angles nearly correſpond with the cardinal points of the compaſs.

We commenced our ſurvey at the ſouthern angle, near the extremity of the Round Table field, where the walls exhibit the moſt ſtriking remains of their ancient ſtructure; their preſent elevation is in no place more than fourteen feet, which is conſiderably leſs than their original height: their greateſt thickneſs between eleven and twelve.

The walls are more dilapidated than thoſe of Caerwent, but formed in the ſame manner, with fragments of ſtone bedded in cement. Near this angle, the mortar, after the Vitruvian method, not uncommon in Italy, is tempered with pounded brick, particles of which chequer the ſurface, and are incorporated with the ſubſtance. The facings have been moſtly removed for the conſtruction of other buildings: thoſe which remain are principally of hewn grit ſtone.

The ſouth weſtern ſide paſſes the Round Table or Amphitheatre, in a direction parallel to the Uſk, and ſkirts the lawn of the abbey, now Miſs Morgan's houſe, where part has been built with the Roman facings, and part remains in its original ſtate. At the northern extremity of the Round Table field, it is interſected by the Broad-way, which, from its ſtraitneſs and uniform breadth, appears to have been a ſtreet leading from the fortreſs to the meads on the banks of the river. Here was probably a gateway, which ſeems to be marked by the elevation at each end of the breach. In croſſing the ſtile on the other ſide of the Broad-way, Mr. Evans pointed out to me a Roman Terminus, uſed as one of the cap-ſtones, bearing the inſcription Termin.

From hence the line of wall reappears, and continues along the Bear-houſe field, where a foſs is quite plain; but only detached maſſes of wall, fringed with ſhrubs, are viſible.

At the weſtern angle it turns along the ſide of the Malpas road, to the remains of a gateway leading into Goldcroft common, and proceeds in a direct line, occupied by ſeveral cottages and gardens, where the foſs is only viſible, to the turnpike, near the junction of the Uſk and Pont-y-Pool roads.

At the northern angle the wall forms part of the ſtable of a public houſe, called the New Inn, trends through ſeveral gardens, orchards, and tenements, is occaſionally loſt in the ſtreets and lanes, becomes again conſpicuous in the caſtle-yard, and terminates in the eaſt angle, which projects over the rail road, near the foſs of the caſtle.

The line of wall from this point to the ſouth angle is curvilinear. It paſſes through the precincts, and the ſkirts of the foſs of the caſtle; is interſected by Bridge-ſtreet, near a gate which has been recently taken down; forms the foundation of the gable end of a houſe, now occupied by Mr. Andrew Butler; paſſes through his garden; is loſt in

in a narrow lane, leading to the quay, and re-appears in the adjoining field, gradually rising in height, until it ends in the southern angle.

It appears from this survey, that the fosse is only visible on part of the western and the whole of the northern side. On the other parts it was perhaps unnecessary, from the greater abruptness of the ground, or the traces of it have been obliterated by out-works and buildings.

The four principal gates seem to have been placed in the middle of the four sides. The first in Bridge-street, the second at the Broadway, the third leading into the Newport high road, which was the site of the Julia Strata, and the fourth into Mill-street, through which the Roman road passed to Gobannium or Abergavenny.

There is a striking peculiarity in the situation of the ancient Roman fortress, which has hitherto escaped the notice of travellers, and would have escaped mine, had not Mr. Evans pointed it out to me. Caerleon appears, on a superficial view, to occupy a flat position; but in fact, the position of the present town, which is inclosed by the Roman walls, is placed on a gentle rise, connected at one extremity with the lower part of the eminence on which the encampment of the lodge is situated. This rise shelves on the west and south sides towards the Usk, and on the east towards the Avon Lwyd, and seems to have formed a tongue of land, which, before the draining of the meadows, was probably a kind of peninsula. Hence the fortress, from its position on a rise between two rivers, and almost surrounded with marshy ground, was a place of considerable strength, and well calculated to become the primary station of the Romans in Britannia Secundæ.

The æra in which the Roman fortress was built, cannot be ascertained with precision; conjectures may be formed, and Horsley, whose opinion deserves great weight, supposes that the Romans first settled here in the reign of Antoninus Pius. It is mentioned in Antonine's Itinerary; and the numerous coins of the early emperors, which have been here discovered, seem to confirm this opinion. The walls however appear to have been constructed under the lower empire.

According to Richard of Cirencester, Caerleon was a Roman colony, and the primary station in the county of Silures; circumstances which sufficiently account for its extent and magnificence.

In a field close to the banks of the Usk, and near the south west side of the wall, is an oval concavity, measuring seventy-four yards by sixty-four, and six in depth. The sides are gently sloping, and covered, as well as the bottom, with turf. It is called by the natives Arthur's Round Table, but is undoubtedly the site of a Roman amphitheatre. According to the prevailing opinion, it was merely a campestrian amphitheatre, hollowed in the ground, and surrounded with banks of earth, in the sides of which turf seats were formed for the spectators. This opinion, however, is disapproved by the express assertions of Giraldus, who describes the walls as standing in his time. The author of the secret Memoirs of Monmouthshire also observes, "in

1706

1706 a figure of Diana, with her treſſes and creſcent, moulded in alabaſter, was found *near a prodigious foundation wall of freeſtone, on the ſouth ſide of King Arthur's Round Table, which was very wide, and ſuppoſed to be one ſide of a Roman amphitheatre.*" Within the memory likewiſe of many perſons now living, ſtone ſeats were diſcovered on opening the ſides of the concavity.

The part of Caerleon, incloſed by the walls, was the ſite of the ancient camp or fortreſs; but the ſuburbs extended to a conſiderable diſtance. As I walked along the banks of the Uſk, beyond the Bear-houſe field, near half a mile to the weſt of the town, I obſerved great quantities of Roman bricks and hollow tiles. Theſe ſuburbs are ſaid to have occupied both ſides of the river. According to tradition, they compriſed a circumference of not leſs than nine miles, and reached as far as Chriſtchurch and St. Julian's; and the village on the ſouthern ſide of the bridge ſtill bears the old Roman name of *Ultra Pontem*. Large foundations have likewiſe been diſcovered in the elevated grounds to the north and north weſt of the walls, particularly beyond the ſkirts of Goldcroft common.

MISCELLANEOUS ESSAYS.

On Gaming, and the Characteriſtics of Gameſters; from Dr. Rennell's *Diſcourſes.*

DEEPLY I am convinced will every generous heart be ſenſible that the *corruption* of the Individual is the *miſery* of the Individual; and that ſordid and ſelfiſh habits not only contract the compaſs but deſtroy the ſources of true happineſs. The more covertly theſe habits inſinuate themſelves, the greater is the danger. Now I aſſert, upon ſome obſervation, that in Gaming, the worſt affections that can contaminate the heart of man, inſinuate themſelves gradually and (in their early ſtages) imperceptibly, till the whole moral maſs is irretrievably corrupted. We may ſay, that in effecting the miſery and ruin of mankind, the "Serpent" retains his ſcriptural character of "Subtlety." The young and unwary have not in general the faineſt conception of the vileneſs of thoſe habits to which their ESTABLISHED PRECEPTORS in this horrid career are forming and training them. The whole tenor of a Gameſter's life demonſtrates that to the blackeſt iniquity he is conducted by the moſt degrading meanneſs, and what is peculiar to this vice is, that the atrocity of guilt is rendered leſs ſtriking by the ſordid baſeneſs which accompanies it, and that horror is leſſened by contempt.

When we are capable of calm and moral reflection, when conſcience can predominate over cuſtom, what are the diſpoſitions which occur to us in examining the receſſes of a Gameſter's heart? Firſt and foremoſt an inordinate LOVE OF LUCRE—and that the moſt ſordid, fixed, and habitual, which irritated every moment by renewed acts, in the end uſurps a ſovereign authority. Though in ſome inſtances thoſe diſorderly and licentious indulgences which are neceſſarily connected with the vice of Gaming, may interrupt or diſguiſe, yet they never overcome this darling and *primary* propenſity. Hence, where gain ſolicits, not only the remains of every valuable principle is annihilated, but the united force of every bad one is ſuſpended and ſuperſeded: let the proſpect of money ſtart up to the Gameſter, not only SHAME and VIRTUE retreat from the unequal conteſt; but even PRIDE ſtoops, and AMBITION dies.

Farther, to this ſordid habit the Gameſter joins a diſpoſition to FRAUD, and that of the *meaneſt* caſt. To thoſe who ſoberly and fairly appreciate the real nature of human actions, nothing appears more inconſiſtent than that ſocieties of men, who have incorporated themſelves

themſelves for the expreſs purpoſe of Gaming, ſhould diſclaim fraud or indirection, or affect to drive from their aſſemblies thoſe among their aſſociates whoſe crimes would reflect diſgrace on them. Surely this, to a conſiderate mind, is as ſolemn and refined a banter as can well be exhibited: for when we take into view the vaſt latitude allowed by the moſt upright Gameſter, when we reflect that according to their precious caſuiſtry every advantage may be legitimately taken of the young, the unwary, and the inebriated, which ſuperior coolneſs, ſkill, addreſs, and activity can ſupply, we muſt look upon pretences to honeſty as a moſt ſhameleſs aggravation of their crimes. Even if it were poſſible that in his own practices a man might be a FAIR GAMESTER, yet for the reſult of the extended frauds committed by his fellows he ſtands deeply accountable to God, his Country, and his Conſcience. To a ſyſtem neceſſarily implicated with fraud, to aſſociations of men, a large majority of whom ſubſiſt by fraud, to habits calculated to poiſon the ſource and principle of all integrity, he gives efficacy, countenance, and concurrence. Even his *virtues* he ſuffers to be ſubſidiary to the cauſe of vice. He ſees with calmneſs depredation committed daily and hourly in his company, perhaps under his very roof. Yet men of this deſcription declaim (ſo deſperately deceitful is the heart of man) againſt the very knaves they cheriſh and protect, and whom perhaps with ſome poor ſophiſtical refuge for a worn out conſcience, they even imitate. To ſuch let the Scripture ſpeak with emphatical deciſion—"*When thou ſaweſt a thief, then thou conſenteded with him.*" Away then with the miſchievous diſtinction between *fair* and *unfair* Gameſters, a diſtinction implying (in my poor opinion) only a very inſignificant ſhade in the degrees of guilt, a diſtinction invented and framed by the general enemy of mankind to protect thoſe who are doing his work, and devoted to his ſervice. In this inſtance even heathen wiſdom judged ſoundly and ſtrongly. The moſt profound and ſagacious obſerver of human actions (as far I mean as the imperfect light of Nature could carry him) aſſigns to Gameſters their true place and order in *ſociety*. He conſiders them without *any* diſtinction not only as plunderers, but aſſerts with peculiar juſtice that from more *generous* plunderers they are diſtinguiſhed by the peculiar *illiberality* of their practices, and their *ſelfiſh* and *ſordid* luſt of gain. This GREAT MAN had not learned the feeble and evaſive caſuiſtry which this age of apoſtacy has adopted in oppoſition to much ſtronger light, and to much ſurer principles than thoſe which Providence had vouchſafed to him.

But I apprehend that men are not often ſo diſintereſtedly miſchievous. When thoſe of high rank open their doors to men of this deſcription, when they announce long before their invitations to ſuch nocturnal aſſociations, they will not ſeriouſly claim to be diſtinguiſhed from the *worſt* of thoſe they aſſemble. THIEVES they are all, all who harbour, all who cheriſh them, not ſparing even what the Arabian robber holds ſacred—the tie of profeſſed friendſhip, the confidence of unſuſpecting

youth, and the ſacred rights of hoſpitality. Therefore the unwary ſhould be well warned, that when Gameſters tender their friendſhip they offer what they are radically incapable of. They may be made firſt the *dupes*, and then the partners of their baſeneſs; but ſuch an union utterly precludes that noble one formed on the principles and directed to the practices of religion, virtue, and benevolence. If theſe are excluded, as ſurely they *are* by fraud and ſelfiſhneſs, there remains neither bond nor ground of confidence either to individuals or ſocieties. Let the young be aſſured, when they plunge into intimacy with Gameſters, they take treachery and abjection to their boſoms IN EVERY INSTANCE; that whatever profeſſions of generoſity, or inſinuation of addreſs, or appearance of frankneſs, ſuch men may find it convenient to adopt, theſe artificial appendages are but part of their deteſtable *trade*, rendering them in the eye of reaſon and reflection ten thouſand times more baſe, dangerous, and deſtructive.

But in addition to fraud, and all its train of crimes, propenſities and habits of a very different complexion enter into the compoſition of a Gameſter; a moſt ungovernable FEROCITY OF DISPOSITION, however for a time diſguiſed and latent, is invariably the reſult of his ſyſtem of conduct. Jealouſy, rage, and revenge exiſts among Gameſters in their worſt and moſt frantic exceſſes, and end frequently in conſequences of the moſt atrocious violence and outrage. By perpetual agitation, the malignant paſſions ſpurn and overwhelm every boundary which diſcretion and conſcience can oppoſe. From what ſource are we to trace a very large number of thoſe murders, ſanctioned or palliated indeed by cuſtom, but which ſtand at the tribunal of God preciſely upon the ſame grounds with every other ſpecies of murder? From the gaming-table, from the nocturnal receptacles of diſtraction and frenzy, the Duelliſt ruſhes with his hand lifted up againſt his brother's life! Thoſe who are as yet on the threſhold of theſe habits ſhould be warned, that however calm their *natural* temperament, however meek and placable their diſpoſition, yet that by the events, which every moment ariſe, they ſtand expoſed to the ungovernable fury of themſelves and others. In the midſt of fraud, protected by menace on the one hand, and on the other, of deſpair; irritated by a recollection of the meanneſs of the artifices, and the baſeneſs of the hands by which utter and remedileſs ruin has been inflicted; in the midſt of theſe feelings of horror and diſtraction, it is that the voice of brethrens' blood "crieth unto God from the ground;" "and now art thou curſed from the earth which hath opened her mouth to receive thy brother's blood from thy hand." Not only THOU who actually ſheddeſt that blood, but thou who art the artificer of death—THOU who adminiſtereſt incentives to theſe habits—who diſſeminateſt the practice of them—improveſt the ſkill in them—ſharpeneſt the propenſity to them—at thy hands will it be required, ſurely, at the tribunal of God in the next world, and perhaps in moſt inſtances in his diſtributive and awful diſpenſations towards thee and thine here on earth.

But

But whatever activity the MALIGNANT PASSIONS may derive from such habits, the BENEVOLENT AFFECTIONS, on the contrary, are more impaired by gaming than it is possible to conceive or calculate. The reasons are obvious; the misery which an habitual Gamester suffers, hazards, and occasions, must render him completely and systematically callous. Without a single sentiment of remorse or compassion, he coolly and designedly inflicts utter and irretrievable mischief on the greater part of those with whom he is conversant. What though every day he lives he wrings the heart of many a fond wife, many an helpless orphan, many an aged parent, by effecting the rapid and instantaneous ruin of those to whom they looked up for support and comfort; what though the wretched suicide, unable to bear the complicated agonies of those whose affections nature has wound closest round his heart, leaves them to deplore his loss in this world, and his DESPERATE STATE in that into which he precipitated himself; what though of all such horrors he is the witness, the cause, and the accomplice; what though he is the *patron* and legislator of the system which diffuses them; yet, with all this, he remains calm, easy, and collected. A superficial politeness, an assumed frankness and good nature, an acquaintance with the habits of what is commonly called the World, and an adroit application to the foibles of those with whom these men consort, may draw a thin veil over the *fixed relentlessness* of a Gamester's mind. He *may* pretend (for human pretences are indefinite) to *feeling*, *honour*, *sentiment*, words coined for the purpose either of concealing vice, or dressing it up in virtue's garb. But as I principally address myself to those who may be exposed to such men, and to such artifices, be assured that to human pangs Gamesters hearts are essentially impenetrable. They recount, in all the callous flippance of fashionable conversation, the miserable fates of those whom they or their associates have consigned to misery; and language itself is distorted and depraved in order to invent words to express their diabolical cant and unfeeling jargon, and to intercept those emotions of indignation against the patrons, and of pity for the victims, of this system of crimes and calamities, which would naturally rise in the heart of man upon hearing these tales of woe and wickedness told with seriousness and simplicity. If therefore you would preserve that *best* part of your frame which peculiarly distinguishes you from the beasts which perish, if you would retain even that wreck of virtue which survives in some degree perhaps almost every OTHER course of iniquity, leaving still that kindly disposition of "*weeping with those that weep*," fly the haunts, dread the habits, and abhor the VERY LANGUAGE of Gamesters.

But it is not only general philanthropy, but even that more powerful principle of natural affection, which this vice stifles in many instances, and injures in all. To be without "*natural affection*" was one of the most prominent features of those calamitous times of reprobacy and apostacy which the prophetic spirit of the great Apostle so distinctly foresaw, and so awfully delineated. Where gaming

ing is general, this is a conſtant concomitant; for what pretences can a Gameſter make to the ſmalleſt degree of affection and duty to thoſe whom he expoſes every hour he lives to afflictions worſe than death itſelf? Were his conſcience for a moment to awake, how would he be reproached by the baſe ſight of thoſe whoſe hopes and intereſts he embarks upon the ſingle caſt of a die, from whom he ſuffers the vileſt of mankind to wreſt even the bed upon which they repoſe, and the morſel of bread which ſupports their exiſtence! whom he not only expoſes to ſuch calamity, when it *actually* befalls them, but to the unſpeakable agony of a fearful *expectation* of it every hour they live. But even this cruelty of the Gameſter is ſmall in compariſon to that by which he communicates his guilt. The ſudden ſtroke of Poverty, bitter as it is, where innocence accompanies it, may be ſoftened by the lenient diſpenſations of an Almighty Protector. But what are the hearts of thoſe Gameſters who train up their progeny in their GUILT, who accuſtom their innocent, uncorrupted minds to the daily ſpectacle of fraud and pillage!

Let thoſe who as yet only ſtand on the brink of this miſery, who conſider theſe meetings as AMUSEMENTS, or only comply with them merely that they may not be excluded from faſhionable ſociety, think to what poor motives they expoſe thoſe innocent pledges which a kind Providence has intruſted to them. Has entruſted to them for what?—To be the joy of their youth, the pride of their maturer years, the comfort of their age, and their alleviation even in the pangs of death. To be trained up to what?—To be the benefactors of mankind, ſervants of the great and high God, and partakers with them of a glorious immortality in heaven.

To theſe purpoſes I will boldly aſſert that all tampering with the vice of Gaming, in every ſtage of it, is always dangerous, and moſt frequently deſtructive. You will ſay you do not GAME—that you mix only with ſuch ſociety that you may not appear ſtrange—that you can always retain yourſelf from hazarding more than your circumſtances will permit. To grant all theſe pleas, which would be ſufficiently abſurd, yet are you ſure your CHILDREN will have all this moderation, that THEY, when once habituated to ſuch company, and introduced into ſuch receptacles, will not be corrupted, pillaged, and undone? Do you REALLY expect that having early acquired the reliſh and ſkill, which a repetition of theſe ſcenes naturally produces, as they advance in years they will ſtop ſhort of ruin and guilt? Can you for the POOR ambition of conſorting with men of faſhion for the tinſel gratification of exhibiting your taſte, prepare your dwellings for the reception and harbour of that large mixture of privileged thieves, which I am credibly informed conſtitute a part of ſuch aſſemblies? Do not think me obſtructive in appealing to that kindly virtue which is laſt eradicated from the human heart. Can you CALMLY deſtroy all the part which you yourſelves have, all the part which God has, in thoſe whom you now look on with the eye of parental

parental rapture? Are you reconciled to beholding them as "VESSELS FITTED FOR DESTRUCTION?" If you cannot retreat inſtantaneouſly from the brink of the precipice on which both you and your beloved children ſtand. Think that in all theſe ſcenes which every day announces to us as exhibiting in the politer part of the metropolis, when rank and elegance combine their powerful and faſcinating deluſions, when every external decoration which art and ſplendor can deviſe, is ſubſidiary to them—think that in the midſt of theſe ſeductive ſcenes, you ſee *Ruin*, *Fraud*, *Beggary*, and *untimely Death*—think that you ſee the hand of SUICIDE lifted againſt himſelf, and that SUICIDE your own DARLING CHILD! gone forward to the bar of eternal juſtice as a ſwift witneſs againſt the AUTHORS OF HIS EXISTENCE, for having early ſown in him the ſeeds of temporal deſtruction and eternal death; and THEN, if poſſible, think the faithful Miniſters of Chriſt too importunate when they exhort you to flee, in the *early ſtages* of theſe calamities, as for your lives, when they warn you, even in thoſe habits which to careleſs and unthinking minds appear of an indifferent tendency, not to ſpurn the dictates of nature and conſcience, and to expoſe thoſe whom God has conſigned to your protection and care to the flood-gates of ſuch wickedneſs, anguiſh, and deſolation!

Shall we farther explore the complicated baſeneſs of the Gameſter's mind, or does diſguſt recoil from the examination of that polluted manſion? If this *diſguſt* is excited, I ſhall by God's grace have diſcharged no mean part of the arduous and difficult taſk I have undertaken.

I will mention but one more of thoſe diſpoſitions which have appeared to me conſtantly to have been aſſociated to the character of a Gameſter—a quality which gives conſiſtence and permanence to all the reſt, that is a fixed, calm, and temperate IMPRUDENCE, diffuſing itſelf over every part of his conduct and deportment. This qualification is thought of ſo much conſequence by the preceptors in this vice, as to be a matter of regular training and inſtruction. And wiſe are they in their generation, for SHAME IS MORAL VITALITY; where THAT ſurvives, every pollution is delible, and every habit recoverable. Conſequently with it every Gameſter is in a regular ſtate of warfare; for was he capable of feeling his own degradation, the ſight of an honeſt man muſt overwhelm him with intolerable confuſion. But to every internal feeling of baſeneſs, and every external circumſtance of infamy, he is completely reconciled. Though he not only knows himſelf, but is convinced that every thinking man knows him likewiſe, yet under the protection of this peculiar qualification we ſhall find him occaſionally and familiarly uſing the words FRIENDSHIP, BENEVOLENCE, PIETY, and PHILANTHROPY, and at times aſſuming a *high* perfection of them, and what is ſtill more extraordinary, we may obſerve the unthinking multitude with a miſchievous and indolent acquieſcence admitting ſuch a claim.

Gratitude ſhewn to be a Virtue, in contradiction to the opinions of ſome modern Philoſophers. From Dr. Parr's *Notes on his Spital Sermon.*

WE are told, "that if by gratitude we underſtand a ſentiment of preference which I entertain towards another, upon the ground of my having been the ſubject of his benefits, it is no part either of juſtice or virtue:" And in a note ſubjoined to this ſentence we are farther told that "this argument is ſtated with great clearneſs in an Eſſay on the nature of True Virtue, by Jonathan Edwards, author of a celebrated work on the freedom of the will." Political Juſtice, vol. 1. page 129.

The principle contained in the poſition about gratitude, and the fact contained in the note about Mr. Edwards, ſhall be conſidered ſeparately.

As every enquiry concerning the merit of gratitude is of the higheſt importance, it becomes us to remember carefully what the queſtion before us is not, as well as what it is.

The queſtion is not, whether any ſocial affection, e. g. the gratitude we feel to our benefactors, (or, we may add, by way of illuſtration only) the love we have for our parents, or the regard we bear to our country, may not ſometimes be carried to ſuch an exceſs as to be criminal.

No man will deny that Bloſſius *would* have been criminal, if he had ſet fire to the capitol of Rome, in conſequence of his perſonal attachment, and probably perſonal obligations to Tiberius Gracchus. Cicero de Amicitia, vol. 2. page 545.

No man will deny that Ageſilaus *would* have been criminal, if, in obedience to his father, he had paſſed a ſentence of which his conſcience did not approve. Plutarch, vol. ii. page 534. Edit. Xylandri.

No man will deny that Themiſtocles *was* criminal, when, for the advantage of the Athenians, he made a propoſal which the Athenians had the magnanimity to reject, for burning the ſhips of the Greek States, which had ſought ſhelter in the harbour of Athens. Plutarch, vol. i. page 122.

Again, the queſtion is not whether any oblique views of ſelfiſhneſs in a benefactor, or any general defects in his moral character, may not *weaken* the feeling of gratitude, and ſlacken the obligation to a grateful return—I ſay *weaken* but not extinguiſh, ſlacken but not ſuperſede.

The queſtion is, whether *ſimply univerſally*, in the preſence or in the abſence of any collateral conſiderations whatſoever, the "ſentiment of preference which I entertain towards another upon the ground of my having been the ſubject of his benefits, *be*, or be *not*, a part either of juſtice or virtue."

Seneca, I remember, where he is enquiring "a quibus accipiendum eſſet beneficium?" and where he anſwers, "Ab his quibus dediſſe vellemus," makes a diſtinction, in the high language of the Stoical ſchool, "Non loqui ſe de ſapientibus, quos quidquid oportet, & juvat qui animum in poteſtate habent, & *legem ſibi quam* volunt, dicunt, & quam dixerunt, *ſervant*: ſed de *imperfectis hominibus, honeſta ſequi volentibus*, quorum affectus ſæpe contumaciter parent." Lib. 2. de Benefic.

In diſcuſſing, therefore, this queſtion

queſtion about gratitude, I profeſs not to inſtruct thoſe modern ſages, if ſuch there be, who revering the omnipotence of truth, the immutability of juſtice, and the infallibility of reaſon, have reached the ſame empyreum of virtue to which the wiſe man of the ſtoics aſpired. I would be underſtood to ſpeak only de imperfectis hominibus, honeſtatem ſequi volentibus, and they, I ſuppoſe, compriſe all the known natives of Aſia, Africa, and America, and all the inhabitants of Europe, except the choſen few who may have entered into the ſchool of our new philoſophy, as Cato frequented that of the ſtoics, non ſolum diſputandi cauſa, ſed ita vivendi. Vide Cicero's Orat. pro Muræna.

"The ſentiment (ſays Smith) which moſt immediately and directly prompts us to reward, is gratitude; to us therefore that action muſt appear to deſerve reward which appears to be the proper and approved object of gratitude. To reward is to recompence, to remunerate, to return good for good received." Vol. i. page 162.

"A ſyſtem of natural philoſophy (ſays Smith) may appear very plauſible and be for a long time generally received by the world, and yet have no foundation in nature. But in moral philoſophy, he who pretends to account for the origin of our moral ſentiments, cannot deceive us ſo groſsly; a departure ſo very far from all reſemblance to truth. If he deceives us at all, he is like a perſon that would inform us of what paſſes in our neighbourhood, and the falſehoods he impoſes upon us muſt have ſome reſemblance to truth, and even a conſiderable mixture of truth in them." Vol. ii. page 321.

Now is there any feeling upon which men are more "in their own neighbourhood," than in the feeling of gratitude? Is there any ſubject upon which they can with more confidence apply the obſervation of Hooker, that "the moſt certain token of evident goodneſs is, if the general perſuaſion of all men do ſo account it!" Eccleſiaſt. Polit. page 80. Will they not tell you that, "of all the duties of beneficence, thoſe which gratitude recommends to us, approach neareſt to what is called a perfect and complete obligation? That "what friendſhip, what generoſity, what charity would prompt us to do, with univerſal approbation, is ſtill more free, and can ſtill leſs be extorted by force than the duties of gratitude? That we talk of the *debt* of gratitude, not of charity, or generoſity, nor even of friendſhip, when friendſhip is mere eſteem, and has not been enhanced and complicated with gratitude for good offices?" Moral Sentiments, vol. i. page 195. Will they not aſſent to the maxim of Chryſippus, "Qui gratus futurus ſit; illum velut in certamen curſus compoſitum, et carceribus incluſum, opperiri debere ſuum tempus, ad quod velut dato ſigno proſiliat?" Seneca de Benef. lib. 2. Will they not ſay, that mythology was never applied more laudably to the illuſtration of morality, than by the people who χαρίτων ἱερον ἐμποδων ἐποιουντο ἱνα ἀνταποδοσις ειη. Auſt. Ethic. lib. v. chap. 5. edit. Wilkinſon. Will they not tell you that the gratitude of man reſembles, *with reverence be it ſpoken*, the juſtice of God—"the juſtice of one that requiteth nothing mincingly; but all with preſſed, and

heaped, and even over enlarged measure." See Hooker, page 93.

As to ingratitude, without maintaining it to be a vice, "sine quo vix ullum magnum facinus accreverit," do they not feel, "esse istud grave vitium esse intolerabile et quod dissocict homines, et concordiam quâ *imbecillitas nostra fulcitur* scindat ac dissipet?" Vide Sen. de Benef. lib. 1. and lib. 7.

Amidst all the imperfections of human language the principles of gratitude have fixed and intelligible terms. I have, indeed, read of one exception, in the store-house of stoical retirements, and of the method too, in which the exception is to be solved, "A consuetudine quædam quæ dicimus abhorrent; deinde *alia via* ad consuetudinem redeunt. Dicimus eum qui beneficium bono animo accepit gratiam *retulisse* nihilominus illum in ære alieno relinquimus gratiam relaturum etiam cum *reddiderit*. *Exhortatio* est illa, *non inficiatio* Beneficii." Sen. de Benef. lib. 11. p. 28. But when "gratitude as a sentiment of preference, upon the ground of our having been the subject of benefits," from another man is said to be "*no* part of justice or virtue," "a consuetudine quæ *ita* dicta sunt, abhorrent *neque ulla via* in consuetudinem redeunt."

About eighteen years ago I read Mr. Edwards's Enquiry into the modern prevailing notions of the freedom of the will, &c. and I afterwards lent it to a learned friend, whom it completely detached from the common opinions, or, perhaps, I should rather say, from the *popular language* of men upon a subject, over which the serra λογομαχίας, has been, and hereafter will be drawn, again and again. Charmed as I was with the metaphysical acuteness and the fervent piety of the writer, I became very desirous to read his Dissertations, "concerning the end for which God created the world, and the nature of true virtue." I met with them about the year 1790, and I found in them the same romantic imagination, the same keen discernment, the same logical subtilty, and the same unextinguished ardour.

Mr. Edwards is a writer who exercises our minds, even where he does not satisfy them; who interests us where he does not persuade; who instructs and improves us, where he does not ultimately convince; and, as I know his authority to be very great, among a numerous and pious class of Christians, it is of some importance that his *real* opinions should be clearly understood. From his own words then, I will endeavour to show that in *his* estimation, gratitude *is*, in many respects, not unconnected with justice; and that the virtue from which he *distinguishes* it, is essentially *different* from the virtue of which the author of Politcal Justice pronounces it to be *no part*.

"There is a secondary kind of beauty, (says Edwards) in the virtue called Justice, which consists in the agreement of different things that have relation to one another, in nature, manner, and measure. There is this agreement, in nature and measure, when he that loves has the proper returns of love; where he that from his heart promotes the good of another, has his good promoted by the other; *as there is a kind of justice in a becoming gratitude*." Page 132. I have quoted

quoted theſe words alſo for another purpoſe.

But further, "if we ſhould allow that to be univerſal, that in gratitude there is the exerciſe of ſome kind of moral ſenſe, (as it is granted *there is ſomething* that may be ſo called), all the moral ſenſe that is eſſential to that affection is a ſenſe of *deſert*, which is to be referred to that ſenſe of juſtice before ſpoken of conſiſting in an apprehenſion of that ſecondary kind of beauty that lies in uniformity or proportion. Others love and kindneſs to us appears to us to *deſerve* our love, or in other words it ſeems to us no other than *juſt*, that *as they love* us and do us good, *we ſhould alſo love them* and do them good." Page 164. (I omit the words which relate to anger.)

"That forementioned approbation of juſtice and deſert, ariſing from a ſenſe of the beauty of natural agreement and proportion, will have a kind of reflex and indirect influence to cauſe men to approve benevolence, as men ſee that he who is benevolent and loves others, and does them good, deſerves alſo himſelf to be loved and rewarded by others, as they ſee the natural congruity or agreement, and mutual adaptedneſs of theſe things, and having always ſeen this, the idea of benevolence is habitually connected and aſſociated with the idea of being loved and rewarded by others, which is grateful to ſelf-love, and by virtue of this aſſociation of ideas, benevolence itſelf becomes grateful and the contrary diſpleaſing." Page 170.

Mr. Edwards, in another part of his book, makes gratitude, as explained by himſelf, ſubject to conſcience. "The other thing, (ſays he) which belongs to the approbation of natural conſcience, is the ſenſe of deſert which was ſpoken of before; conſiſting in a natural *agreement* between loving and being loved, between ſhewing kindneſs and being rewarded." Page 176.

Further ſtill, "Another reaſon why the things which have been mentioned, i. e. natural affection, natural pity, &c. are miſtaken for virtue is, that there is indeed a *true negative moral goodneſs* in them. They have this negative moral goodneſs, becauſe a being *without* them would be an evidence of a much greater moral evil."

From the foregoing paſſages it is plain that Mr. Edwards reſpects gratitude as a *part* of juſtice, according to his own explanation of the latter word. He does not, indeed, conſider gratitude as a part of what, according to his own *peculiar* ſyſtem, and his own *peculiar* language, is *true* virtue. But we ſhall now examine in *what* true virtue, according to Mr. Edwards, conſiſts; and by ſuch examination we ſhall ſee, that when Mr. Edwards, and the author of Political Juſtice, denied gratitude to be a part of virtue, they apply the *ſame term* virtue to ſubjects eſſentially *different*, and conſequently that their notions of gratitude, as forming *no part* of virtue, have little or no *reſemblance*.

In page 127, Mr. Edwards ſays, "True virtue moſt eſſentially conſiſts in benevolence to beings in general." In page 128, he explains that propoſition by ſaying, that "he does not mean to ſay that no one act of the mind, or exerciſe of love, is of the nature of true virtue, but what has being in general, or the great ſyſtem of univerſal

verſal exiſtence, for its *direct and immediate* object; ſo that no exerciſe of love, or kind affection to any one particular being, that is, but a ſmall part of this whole, has *any* thing of the nature of true virtue, *but* that the nature of true virtue conſiſts in a *diſpoſition* to benevolence *towards being in general*, though from ſuch a diſpoſition may ariſe exerciſes of love to particular beings as objects are preſented and occaſions ariſe." In page 131, he ſays, "The firſt object of a virtuous benevolence is being ſimply conſidered, and if being, ſimply conſidered, be its object, then being in general is its object; and the thing it has an ultimate propenſity to, is the higheſt good of being in general; and it will ſeek the good of every individual being, unleſs it be conceived as not conſiſtent with the higheſt good of being in general."

Having thus ſtated the primary object of virtuous love, he, in page 132, contends, "That the ſecondary object of a virtuous propenſity of heart, is *a benevolent being!*"

From theſe premiſes he concludes in page 135, "That true virtue *muſt* conſiſt *chiefly* in *love to God*, the Being of beings, infinitely the greateſt and beſt of Beings; and this (he maintains) appears whether we conſider the primary or ſecondary ground of virtuous love."

Now gratitude, in his opinion, does not form a part of *this* true and primary virtue, though we have before ſeen that he allows a place to it in the *ſecondary* claſs of virtues; and *ſuch a part*, as even connects it with juſtice.

I am not diſpoſed to rail at any man for opinions, nor to cavil with him about words; but I muſt confeſs, that in the book upon Political Juſtice, there appears to me "nec vola nec veſtigium" of *that* virtue which Mr. Edwards calls "true and primary"—that virtue which conſiſts in the love of being in general—that virtue, which neceſſarily has the *Deity* for its firſt and greateſt object.

Whatever virtue may be according to the author of Political Juſtice, evidently is *not* the true virtue of which Mr. Edwards ſpeaks.

In the book upon Political Juſtice much is ſaid of a regard to general good, by which I ſuppoſe was meant the good of man; and if in the judgment of the writer, this regard was virtuous, I ſuſpect Mr. Edwards having in view what he calls true virtue would have maintained *ſuch* regard *not to be virtuous*. "It is manifeſt (ſays Edwards) that no affection limited to any private ſyſtem, not dependant on, nor ſubordinate to being in general, can be of the nature of true virtue: and this, whatever the private ſyſtem be, let it be more or leſs extenſive, conſiſting of a greater or ſmaller number of individuals, ſo long as it contains an infinitely little part of univerſal exiſtence, and ſo bears no proportion to the great all-comprehending ſyſtem." Diſſertations, page 141.

My immediate concern is not in the *truth* or falſhood of Mr. Edwards's ſyſtem, but in the *reſemblance* which it has or has not, to that poſition in the work upon Political Juſtice, which pronounces gratitude, under a certain reſpect, to be no part of juſtice or virtue.

In the preface of the enquiry into the Original of our Ideas of

beauty and virtue, Hutcheſon ſuppoſes that, "It would have moved the indignation of Lord Shafteſbury, to find a diſſolute ſet of men ſearching into his writings for his inſinuations againſt Chriſtianity, that they may be the leſs reſtrained from their debaucheries; when, at the ſame time, they were incapable of reliſhing thoſe noble ſentiments of virtue and honour which he has placed in ſo lovely a light." Would not Mr. Edwards have felt equal, or even greater indignation, if he had found the avowed advocates of infidelity, miſrepreſenting, or, at leaſt, miſconceiving, his notion of true virtue; and miſapplying the arguments which he urged in defence of it to the diſcredit of *that* gratitude which under certain circumſtances, and with certain reſtrictions, he approved as part of juſtice itſelf? In page 56 of Mr. Hall's admirable ſermon, many judicious, and I think, deciſive objections, are brought againſt the fundamental principles of Mr. Edwards; and they who wiſh to go more deeply into the ſubject would do well to peruſe ſection 6th in Mr. Hutcheſon's Illuſtration of the Moral Senſe, where he examines "how far a regard to the Deity is neceſſary to make an action virtuous." When they have read Mr. Hutcheſon, they may, with great advantage, enquire, by what means the love of God, according to the laws of aſſociation, is generated, and to what extent we are capable of reaching it; and for this purpoſe let them ſee Hartley on the Pleaſures and Pains of Theopathy. Page 289, and page 696, of the notes and additions, by Piſtorius.

Since my examination of Mr. Edwards's opinion may have led the mind of the reader to the love of God, as reſembling benevolence, he may not think his time miſſpent in peruſing what has been ſaid upon *that* ſubject by other and more ſober writers. "Our affections towards the Deity, (ſays Hutcheſon) ariſe in the ſame manner as towards our fellows, and are in proportion to our attention to the cauſes of love in him, and the goodneſs of our temper. The reflection on his goodneſs raiſes approbation and complacence, his benefits raiſe gratitude, and both occaſion *good-will* or benevolence." Illuſtrations on the Moral Senſe, page 312.

"The love of God, (ſays Mr. Bentham) is a kind of ſympathy or good will, which has the Deity for its object." Introduction upon Motives, page 108.

Barrow, after deſcribing love in general to be "an affection or inclination of the ſoul towards an object proceeding from any apprehenſion and eſteem of ſome excellency therein; its beauty, worth, or uſefulneſs; after obſerving that theſe and other properties well agree with that love which we owe to God:" and after ſtating that "the faint reſemblance of the creator in things created are apt to allure our affections to them," then aſks, "Why ſhould not from a *like*, but ſo much *greater* cause, the like effect proceed? Whence can it be that the apprehenſion of an object ſo infinitely lovely, ſo incomparably beneficial, (if not paſſing curſorily through our fancy, but deeply impreſſed upon our mind) ſhould act proportionably, affect and incline us towards him,

with all that deſire, that delight, that *good-will*, which are proper to love?" Serm. xxiii. vol. 1.

They who might impute myſticiſm to Mr. Edwards, muſt allow that Biſhop Butler poſſeſſed what Seneca calls "ſubtile acumen ingenii in imam penettans veritatem." "That (he ſays) which we more ſtrictly call piety, or the love of God, and which is an eſſential part of a right temper, ſome may, perhaps, imagine no way *connected* with benevolence: yet ſurely they muſt be connected, if there be indeed in being an object infinitely good. Human nature is ſo conſtituted, that every good affection implies the love of itſelf; i. e. becomes the object of a new affection in the ſame perſon. Thus to be righteous, implies in it the love of righteouſneſs; to be benevolent, the love of benevolence; to be good, the love of goodneſs: Whether this righteouſneſs, benevolence or goodneſs, be viewed as in our own minds, or in another's, and the love of God as a being perfectly good, is the love of perfect goodneſs, contemplated in a being or perſon." Sermon xii. page 259.

Butler was never ſlovenly nor laviſh in the uſe of words. I muſt therefore warn my readers, that when he ſpeaks of "the love of perfect goodneſs as *contemplated in a being or perſon*," he ſhews even in thoſe familiar words, his profound inſight into the conſtitution and operations of the human mind. My obſervation ſhall be ſupported by the teſtimony of no contemptible philoſopher. "In tracing our emotions and paſſions to their origin, my firſt thought was, that qualities and actions are the primary cauſes of emotions, and that theſe emotions are afterwards expanded upon the being to which theſe qualities and actions belong. But I am now convinced that this opinion is erroneous; an attribute is not, even in imagination, ſeparable from the being to which it belongs; and for that reaſon cannot itſelf be the cauſe of any emotion. We have, it is true, no knowledge of any being or ſubſtance but by means of its attributes; and therefore no being can be agreeable to us as otherwiſe, than by their means. But ſtill when an emotion is raiſed, it is *the being itſelf*, as we apprehend the matter, that raiſes the emotion, and it raiſes it by means of one or other of its attributes." Elements of Criticiſm, vol. i. page 36. note.

At the concluſion of this long note, I am refreſhed to ſee that without any abrupt tranſition, my mind has been carried on from the ſingular opinions of a modern writer about the gratitude which we owe to man, to the juſt and luminous repreſentations given by other writers, of the love which we owe to God.

On Politeness.

From "Letters addreſſed to a young Man, by Mrs. Weſt."

My dear Son,

IF we define the term politeneſs to mean the deſire of pleaſing others, it appears ſo connected with our duty, and with the moſt amiable faculties of our mind, that it becomes an important and neceſſary acquiſition even in a religious or moral point of view. Conſidered as our paſſport to the eſteem of the world, it is then eligible on principles

principles of prudence; and if we view it as an appendage to the character of youth, it appears so graceful that a young man scarcely seems to do himself justice who does not try to give himself this advantage.

I would entreat you to consider this quality of perpetual adherence to be "the one thing needful," which converts a *graceful* manner into a *sordid* virtue. I have often acknowledged it to be a most engaging feature of real politeness, that no proud assumption of superiority depressed the feelings of conscious subordination, or pained diffidence, by an ostentatious display of the advantages of birth and fortune: I believe that those who possess the former distinction are less apt to fall into the fault of distressing the inferiors, whom they admit to their society by the appearance of overbearing consequence, than those who, by industry or good fortune, may have acquired a sudden influx of wealth. It seems as if pride in the bosom of the former, refined to a more "etherial temper," from a consciousness of inherent supremacy, rests defensively upon its arms, and like a generous mastiff scorns to be roused by petty insults; while wealth, a snappish cur, conscious of its weakness, and apt to take alarm from the consideration of being every way vulnerable, like poor Lady Tremor in "Such Things Are," is always afraid of having the paternal wig alluded to. I am rather inclined to suppose that the difference which I have often had occasion strongly to remark, arises from my favourite maxims of the advantages of early cultivation; for I have observed that wealth only made those purse proud whose ideas were sordid and confined; whereas affluence, however unexpected or immense, failed to make any change in those whose mind had been corrected and enlarged by a judicious, valuable education, which is in fact an admirable preparative to ensure propriety of behaviour under every change of fortune.

Your humble lot may occasionally expose you to

> —— "the whips and scorns of time,
> "Th' oppressor's wrong, the proud man's contumely,
> "The insolence of office, and the spurns
> "That patient merit of th' unworthy takes."

If you feel these indignities, treasure them in your memory, not to excite your splenetic resentment against those from whom they proceeded, for they may as often have been caused by inadvertence, as by a design to insult you, but by the smart of your own acute sensibilities on such occasions, and by the observance which you would think it just to require from others, regulate your own behaviour in every instance in which you are "lord of the ascendant." The opportunities of exercising such humanity will not be unfrequent, if you recollect that every human being has a claim upon you for that species of charity which consists in courtesy; and by accustoming yourself to practise it, you will acquire a habit which will diffuse an ineffable beauty over your whole deportment. From a complaisant manner of address, it will expand into a general elegance of demeanor; and if you once lay it

down

down as a rule, that all ranks have a claim upon you for courteous, civil treatment; manners will rise into morals; a grace will become a virtue; and you will practise it not merely in the eye of the world, to attract the praise of men, but from principle, and in your most retired privacies.

The rule that I before gave you with respect to erroneous faith, or relaxed morals, extends equally to defects in manners. Hate what is arrogant and overbearing, so far as to avoid those faults yourself; but let christian charity teach you caution in affixing such opprobrious terms to the behaviour of others. It oftener happens that the offence which we take at unpleasant treatment proceeds more from our own irritability and keen observation than from the intentional rudeness of those from whom we think that we have received it. If we can excuse any incivility by referring it to negligence, it is the wisest way so to do; because if we suppose it to be designed, we are sure to feel the most acute pain, while those who distress us have either forgotten the circumstance, or are rejoicing at having the power of torturing us. If the person who has wounded our feelings be either a friend, or one whose esteem we are anxious to procure or preserve, and the circumstances of the offence will admit of it, I should recommend an early, cool, and respectful explanation. Many a sincere attachment hath pined away under the withering influence of suspicion, when mutual explicitness might have saved the most severe mutual heart-ache, and have preserved to each party the essential advantage of reciprocal good offices. This is one of the many evils which flow from false pride. We are all ready, in general terms, to acknowledge that we are weak, sinful creatures; and yet few have the greatness of soul to be willing to confess any particular instance of error. Yet surely concession, considered as the property of such a being as man, may be said to rank among the virtues.

If you find your susceptibility grow querulous, restrain it, as you value your future peace. We should never dignify fretfulness by the name of feeling, for nothing can be more opposite. The former is always occupied about itself, and is the most disagreeable branch of the hateful family of selfishness. The latter is the secret stimulant which inclines us to take a benevolent interest in the wants of others. Fretfulness is never excusable, but in those whose spirits are depressed by a long series of sufferings and sorrows. In them we ought not only to pardon it as the pitiable weakness of old age or calamity; but youth and happiness ought to use its endeavours to divert the chagrin which such situations generally excite. Instead of which we often see the young lady, who could scarcely bear to hear the complaints of her gouty grandfather, in the morning torment every inmate of the family by her waspishness if disappointed in her expectation of going to some favourite amusement in the evening.

We have agreed that general civility is essential to politeness, and have determined fretfulness to be as inimical to its nature, as it is to the repose of the bosom in which it is harboured. Now let us look

a little

a little at the prevailing faſhion of eaſe, or rather inattention. The politeneſs of the laſt age had a good deal of officiouſneſs in it. I am told that people often knocked one another down in running to ſhut the door, and that, in handing plates charged with the principal delicacy round the table, the moſt lamentable miſadventures frequently happened to Nankin china and brocade petticoats. While we ſmile at the perplexed ideas which could confound, being very troubleſome, with being very agreeable, and congratulate the poliſhed freedom, which a juſter caſt of thinking has introduced into our preſent manners, let us take care that our freedom continues to be poliſhed. For, of the two extremes, it is better to be laughed at for a little overdoing, in the way of civility, than incur cenſure for inſolent negligence. The familiar nod which young people have generally adopted, is certainly in itſelf aukward and ungraceful, and in point of application highly indecorous to any but their very intimate juvenile acquaintance. It is like another cuſtom, of calling their elders and ſuperiors by their common names, without any appellation of reſpect; and they may both be conſidered as ſtriking features of that wide extended evil of inſubordination, which now requires the hand of every watchful guardian of our country, ſafely to check its courſe. Perhaps theſe habits are merely adopted with a deſign of ſhewing faſhionable breeding, and the beſt way to prevent them would be by conſtantly repreſenting them as what they unqueſtionably are, the reſult of no breeding at all. People of poliſhed manners never ſanction theſe cuſtoms, unleſs in the caſe of ſocial intimacy; the rules of etiquette, by which the great world is guided, preſcribe marked attention to ſuperiors; and the condeſcenſion to inferiors, which muſt enter into the compoſition of real politeneſs, precludes any ſtyle of behaviour that is calculated to infuſe a painful ſenſe of humiliation. A well bred perſon treats you with attention, if not from tenderneſs to your feeling, from reſpect to his own character. I have ſo often heard what was meant for eaſe and freedom determined by excellent judges of men and manners to be ſheer impudence, that I ſhould tremble at the apprehenſion of your incurring this cenſure. The character of a civil, modeſt, ſenſible young man is ſo infinitely ſuperior to this ſecond-rate eaſe, this bronze counterfeit which would paſs for real gentility, that it ſeems very injudicious to violate the feelings natural to the uncorrupted mind in order to be ridiculous—I might have ſaid odious. You may gain the plaudit of the weak and ignorant, and with it the contempt of the wiſe and well-informed.

The true gentleman indeed appears to be the eaſieſt of all characters; but the graceful freedom which is in him ſo natural is extremely difficult to be acquired. Whoever does any thing very well ſeems to do it without trouble; but this is a deception on our ſenſes which cannot paſs if we conſider that much previous pains, great labour, ſtudy, and application, muſt precede apparent facility of execution. What is neceſſary in mechanical performances, is equally ſo in the pleaſing acquiſition of perſonal grace. A rare and uncommon

common genius ſometimes ariſes, endowed with ſufficient natural talents to deviate from the common track, and to hurry to the goal, aided by intuitive powers. In like manner a few are born gentlemen; grace and agreeableneſs attend them from their childhood; and the frame of their mind and body is ſo happily conſtituted, that benevolent feelings ever find a pleaſing vehicle in which they may diſcloſe themſelves to admiring obſervers. But, generally ſpeaking, great attention to early habits; cloſe obſervation of good models; frequent intercourſe with improving ſociety; good ſenſe, with its conſtant attendants, deference and reflection, are neceſſary to form the exterior of the gentleman. To which, if we could complete the character, we muſt add a good temper, and good principles. He will otherwiſe be capricious and inconſiſtent; courtly with one, and tyrannical with another; a compound of ſelfiſhneſs, meanneſs, and hypocriſy; a time-ſerving ſycophant, but not a gentleman.

It is impoſſible for you to be in company with a perſon poſſeſſed of true politeneſs, without feeling yourſelf ſoothed and gratified. The attentions which you receive put you in good humour with all around you; and, by obſerving that even-handed propriety has dealt the ſame diſtinctions to others, you do not indulge the ſilly vanity of aſcribing thoſe attentions to your own deſert, but to the complaiſance of the perſon who beſtows them. What you admire, endeavour to imitate: I do not mean the looks, words, or actions, by which this engaging faculty was communicated; for you will then be either a machine or mimic. I wiſh you to remark the reſult of the whole, imprint that effect upon your mind, and nature will dictate the correſpondent ſigns with propriety.

Our beſt authors have acknowledged that no character is ſo difficult to invent and ſupport as that of a gentleman. It is beſide ſubject to ſome variations. Sir Charles Grandiſon is drawn at full length, and I ſuppoſe in the coſtume of his time; his morals are ſo excellent, that I know of no work of fiction which I would more ſtrongly recommend to the ſtudy of a young man. But the nature of morals is unchangeable, and what was juſt and wiſe in the days of Solomon is ſo ſtill. Manners allowably vary, and, in ſpite of my admiration of Sir Charles, I would not adviſe you to adopt his habit of making fine ſpeeches, or to enter upon thoſe long declamations, which would be now deemed unreaſonably tireſome. Young Bevil, in Steel's Comedy of the Conſcious Lovers, is a true gentleman, and a character extremely well worthy the conſideration of thoſe who found their title to politeneſs on brutal diſreſpect to their parents, and inſolence or inconſideration to their friends. Lovelace was not meant to exhibit the real gentleman, but a fair exterior, covering a ſatiric diſpoſition. Tom Jones was deſigned for a libertine; he is an every day common character; and the merit of the novel to which he gives name does not reſt on the excellence of its hero. Goldſmith has no deſign of drawing a gentleman in his Vicar of Wakefield; his characters are too much marked with eccentricity. Sir William is a worthy

a worthy humoriſt, and Mr. Thornhill is what debauchees generally are, vulgar and fooliſh. Succeeding writers ſeem to be more anxious to ſketch ardent lovers than complete gentlemen. I do not recollect any very happy attempt at this latter character in any recent novel or comedy, unleſs it be Lord Orwell in "Evelina." The taſte of the age now reſembles the forced appetite of declining health; every thing muſt be very high ſeaſoned and pungent. The vapid attention of moſt of the readers of this claſs of writings cannot be excited by the charm of propriety, elegance, and undeviating rectitude. Nature muſt either be caricatured by affectation, or diſtorted by paſſion. We are told, indeed, in the proſpectus, that the hero is a complete gentleman; but we rarely meet with any other proof of it than this aſſurance.

To return from this digreſſion. Though it is exceedingly difficult to tell you how to make a gentleman, it is eaſy to inform you how to unmake him; the ſureſt way of doing ſo is by awkward partial imitation; if your ſtars ſhould at any time afford you a glimpſe of a good model, I would have you contemplate it with the moſt guarded attention. To know the minutiæ of a gentleman's behaviour is valuable knowledge if well applied; but do not imitate his manner unleſs you perceive it is ſo congenial to your own, that it will appear to be the natural growth of your own character, not an ingrafted ſcion. I know ſome who eſteem themſelves to be very well bred people, becauſe they uſe on all occaſions a cant phraſe; which, having once heard from the lips of a perſon of faſhion, they ſuppoſe contains the myſterious potency of a magic charm, transforming all who utter it into the very models of gentility. During the period that fine clothes conſtituted good breeding, I have known the ſtripe or cut of a waiſtcoat metamorphoſe the wearer into ſuch an inſufferable gentleman, that, for the ſake of the comfort of the company, I have wiſhed him buttoned up in one of his grandfather's leather doublets. The manner of twirling a cane, or lolling in a chair, has produced the ſame imaginary tranſformation; and you know that a noble author has had the ſagacity of making the manner of eating a tart the credential of a man of faſhion. But though the gentleman will appear in trifles as frivolous, as what I have been recounting, they do not form the conſtituent part of his character.

When the gentleman has adjuſted his dreſs by the precepts of a good taſte, and by a wiſh to avoid ſingularity, he is deſirous to conceal the pains that he has taken with his external appearance; or rather his attention is immediately devoted to more generous and manly views: while the fop, after having caricatured his perſon, inceſſantly labours to convince you he is an Adonis. But I am now introducing a non-entity, an obſolete character too much out of faſhion to endanger imitation. It is more neceſſary to warn you againſt the "ſloven," who, with the "independant fellow," and the "careleſs dog," are acquiſitions in the line of a gentleman, for which we are unqueſtionably indebted to modern improvers. To repeat their titles is to condemn them;

them; to imitate them is to reſign all ſenſe of decorum, all inbred ideas of indecency and propriety; a ſound claim to gentility upon ſuch pretenſions, is to be deplorably ignorant of life and manners.

Another conſideration on manners, which, though abſolutely neceſſary to render it commendable, is generally diſregarded, ariſes from its being appropriate, ſuitable, and decorous. As the attendant circumſtances determine the value of our actions, miſapplication muſt make what is in itſelf praiſeworthy, ridiculous and culpable. In manners as in morals general rules may be laid down, but good ſenſe muſt apply them to local uſe. Unleſs the faculty of judgment exiſts in the mind that receives inſtruction, the labours of the preceptor are ineffectual; for liberality borders ſo near profuſion, that, while the tutor wiſhes to inculcate the virtue, the injudicious pupil may think that he is recommending the vice. The greateſt adept in politeneſs, in the preceding age, laboured hard to form a courtier, and produced a puppy; and, indeed, what better could be expected from an artificial mechanical ſyſtem, which put the body in tramméls, and neglected the heart; which gloſſed and poliſhed the exterior, and left the mind rough, uninformed, and unſtable? It is to good ſenſe, acting naturally upon good principles, that we are to look for eſtimable conduct and agreeable deportment.

There is a fault which intrudes into all claſſes of ſociety, and by the expulſion of which converſation would be infinitely improved: I mean, ill nature; an error that we are all apt to fall into, and yet it is an offence which we all keenly feel. The great offices of mutual aſſiſtance, comfort, advice, and ſupport, which man requires from his brother man, demand virtues of an active and enterpriſing, I know not whether I ſhould be right in adding ſuperior, caſt. But good humour is the current coin of life; an eaſy comfortable quality, which we may familiarize by hourly practice; a ſeed of ſpontaneous growth, which quickly produces its hundred fold return. Though there are many vices more diabolical than ill nature, yet it is againſt this, as againſt Cain, that every man's hand is more particularly lifted; and no wonder, for it takes us by ſurprize, at the moment when we are leaſt on our guard; when, weary with buſineſs, haraſſed by diſappointments, or worn with care, we ſeek to repoſe on the boſom of complacence, this teazing waſp diſturbs and ſtings us. It purſues us to our convivial haunts, where we aſſemble to pleaſe and to be pleaſed. It not only breaks this fundamental law of ſocial intercourſe, but introduces the moſt painful inſtead of agreeable ſenſations, and ſends every perſon away comfortleſs and diſſatisfied. One ill tempered individual frequently has it in his power to interrupt the happineſs of a whole party; yet to do ſo is to exerciſe ſuch a cruel ſpirit of tyranny, that it ſeems extraordinary that we ſhould ever find ill temper except in uniſon with the moſt hateful qualities; and yet ſo great is the inconſiſtency of human nature, and ſo prevalent the force of habit, that we often find a ſour ſplenetic humour vitiate the manners of the generous and the good.

I am

I am inclined to hope that this moſtly proceeds from inconſideration, for can goodneſs delight to give pain? Can generoſity be indifferent to the diſtreſs which it cauſes? Indeed you may generally trace the ſpring whence this unpalatable cup is derived. If from conſtitutional haſtineſs, peeviſhneſs, bad habit, inattention, or any ſource ſhort of malevolence, no ſooner do you expreſs the feelings of pain, than the behaviour of the offending party changes, and he appears hurt at his own conduct, and anxious to remove its ill effects; but the moment of your depreſſion, and extreme uneaſineſs is, that which malevolence chooſes not only for triumph, but for a renewed attack. Her ſcorpions have taſted blood, and they only become more furious. You will then have a lecture on ill humour delivered by ill humour, deſcanting on its own effects, like the ſagacious pedagogue, who whipped his boys till they cried, and then whipped them for crying.

I need not ſay much to induce you to diſlike a mode of conduct which all the world is agreed to reprobate as odious and deteſtable, and which leaves to the wretched being who practiſes it only one poor enjoyment, and that is the pleaſure of tormenting. There are various forms in which this leaven of frowardneſs contrives to corrupt the peace of ſociety. Hauteur of demeanour, arrogance of expreſſion, ſtormy contention, overwhelming dogmaticalneſs, irritable captiouſneſs, petulance, calumniation, every thing that is invidious or derogatory, is an offence againſt the rules of ſocial intercourſe; and let me add what I truſt will have more weight with you, a breach of the great law of charity, whoſe influence is admirably deſigned to extend to all the minutiæ of manner, as well as to the important duties of forgiving injuries, and relieving diſtreſs.

Sheer malevolence is a vice of deep dye, and cannot admit of palliation: I hope for the honour of humanity that it is not often to be met with. But with reſpect to thoſe lighter ſhades of ill humour, which are too common, I would again obſerve, that it is the moſt improvident of all our frailties, ſince it is ſure to excite every one's diſlike, not from malice, but from a principle of ſelf-defence, or from a generous intereſt in the wrongs of others, "every one is inclined to ſhoot out their arrows, even bitter words," againſt thoſe "who are froward and perverſe in the land." It ſometimes happens that this inclination is overruled by the reſtraints which intereſted difference will impoſe, in caſe the perſon who indulges in theſe unhappy propenſities enjoys thoſe local advantages of rank, power, wealth, or influence, of which others wiſh to avail themſelves. But though ill humour is thus ſecured from contradiction, its ſituation is to the full as inevitable; for it is nothing better than that of an eaſtern deſpot, confined within the walls of his own palace, and ſurrounded by mutes and paraſites. And if it will not obſerve the rules which ſociety impoſes, how can it expect to be other than an alien, and an outcaſt from the reſt of mankind? Virtue rarely riſes to ſuch ſuperlative height as entirely to ſacrifice its own comfort, where duty does not require ſuch ſelf immolation.

Agreeable

Agreeable talents will ſeek the ſpot where they may be *agreeably* exerciſed. The pain of contention, and the harraſs of petulance, are too oppreſſive to be voluntarily endured. Nothing but intereſt or commiſeration can induce people to relinquiſh their comforts to promote the *ſatisfaction* of thoſe who will not be *ſatisfied*. And, let the baſhaw of his own fire-ſide pique himſelf, if he can, upon thoſe aſſiduities which are extorted either by the fear of his power, or the deſire of his property, or elſe are the offering of pity to his forlorn condition. Sometimes, indeed, the good qualities which petulance has not quite ſubdued may mingle with this latter ſentiment reſpect and eſteem; but how unwiſe is that aſperity which repreſſes the generous feelings of *affection!*

I have already admitted that there are extenuations to be pleaded in favour of ſickneſs, age, and ſorrow. Calamity of every kind has a ſacred claim upon our good offices; and we muſt not excuſe our indifference to a ſuffering fellow creature, becauſe their patience proves unequal to the conflict which they have to ſuſtain; much leſs may we aggravate their poignant feelings by our neglect or ſeverity. I ſhould call that perſon baſe, ungenerous; nay, I ſhould doubt his right to the name of a Chriſtian, who did not feel his reſentment ſubſide the moment his adverſary felt diſtreſs. If in that ſituation he could inſult him——but let us leave the condemnation of ſuch uncharitableneſs to the God who forbids it. Let me intreat you not to apply any of the obſervations which I have juſt made on petulance, to that ſort of waywardneſs which is excited by misfortune. The depreſſed mind ſees every thing through a dark medium. It is not always envious of another's proſperity, but it always feels its own privations. Indeed fretfulneſs is often ſo intimately connected with bodily pain as to be deemed a ſymptom of diſeaſe. Let not health and proſperity enter the houſe of woe to *ſhew* its own advantages, but to relieve the *gloom* of the mournful manſion. They who can inſult misfortune by diſplaying the flutter of affluence, or by goading the boſom of the ſufferer with *taunting advice*, will ſome time or other bitterly feel how ſacred are the claims of affliction. Remember thoſe claims, as you would wiſh your own to be remembered; and let not an unwillingneſs to ſpend an uncomfortable hour induce you to paſs the doors of thoſe to whom your company might give a tranſient relief. Bear with their complaints, as you wiſh others to bear with yours. Excuſe their frailties, as you hope and expect your own offences to be forgiven.

Even that ſpecies of ill humour, which, inſtead of being able to excuſe itſelf by the plea of affliction, rather ſeems to want ſome ſevere trial to rouſe it from the faſtidiouſneſs and ſelf-indulgence of proſperity, may urge the juſt apology for its exceſſes if it is wantonly *provoked*. I know many people who exceſſively enjoy the idea of *teazing* a perſon whom they choſe to call ill tempered, yet whom in fact is far leſs guilty of that fault than themſelves, though he may have ſome peculiarity, which, when attracted, ſets all his angry paſſions in a blaze. I will allow

allow that this is very imprudent to expoſe, or even to preſerve, an odd corner in our character; but I muſt tell thoſe buſy bodies who deem themſelves juſtified in rubbing it ſmooth, that ill nature is not a *paſſive*, but an *active* quality; and that, if they are the aggreſſors, the charge retorts upon themſelves, and the plea of wit and humour will not exculpate them. Indeed there is generally more of hatred or malice than either of the above qualities in this ſpecies of attack; and, inſtead of entertaining the company, it often alarms them, unleſs they are compoſed of that deſcription of people who could enjoy the diverſions of a bear-baiting. This ſort of warfare is never allowable unleſs deſigned to *parry* a blow, which has been *firſt* aimed at ſome of the *party*. For the company then aſſembled may be termed a court that can only take cognizance of offences committed under his immediate juriſdiction, and whoever comes into it with a determination to *retaliate* the provocations, which they have *formerly* received from any of the perſons from whom it is compoſed, is guilty of an offence againſt the ſupremacy of the court, and puniſhable by ſtatute. As I am convinced that tempers are ſooner injured than improved by irritation, I never will admit that the reputation of ill humour juſtifies any one in *commencing* hoſtilities. While this quality lies *dormant*, we have no more buſineſs to rouſe it than to awaken a ſleeping lion; for though we may defend ourſelves with great addreſs, yet our temerity diſturbs the ſpectators, and we are juſtly expoſed both to danger and ridicule for provoking an *unneceſſary* conteſt.

Even good temper itſelf, though ſo generally approved, has almoſt as many definitions as admirers. Among the populace it in ſtrictneſs means a pot of porter, for the perſon who gives them the cup of Nepenthe becomes inſtantly very good natured. I have known good nature conſiſt in a black face, and wearing a wig the wrong ſide before. A perſon who talks till all the company are deaf, is moſt *inconceivably* good natured; a certain young lady never received a ticket for the Opera, but from "the deareſt beſt tempered creature in the world." With many, who are above the rank of the vulgar, good nature appears in the ſhape of an *excellent* dinner, and a *good* choice of wines. Whoever ruins himſelf through extravagance, is good natured; but your beſt tempered people of all are thoſe who are contented to *live* upon other perſons, and, provided their own wants are ſupplied, have too much *ſweetneſs* to care how, and too much *gentleneſs* to mind whether it is by the deprivations of others or not. I am ſo partial to mirth and vivacity, that I can readily pardon its innocent extravagances; but I muſt not allow myſelf to give to it a title which belongs to a much nobler quality; and I am afraid, my dear Thomas, that a little cool inveſtigation muſt deprive good humour of many more of theſe pſeudo-votaries; for, if ſelfiſhneſs may be permitted to determine on which ſide the character preponderates, ill nature may take one half of them, and folly the other. Be not terrified into

an excefs which Diſcretion or Virtue diſapproves by the apprehended cenſure of being termed a croſs fellow. Good humour may ſometimes be indiſcreet, but that is a blemiſh in her character, not an advantage; and as often as ſhe falls into that error, ſhe admits into her boſom an inmate that muſt in time deſtroy her placid graces, I mean Remorſe.

I believe you have read an elegant poem, by an eminent poet, in which Temper is made to triumph over Diſappointment, Detraction, and Inſolence. Temper has many other enemies; and, though I extremely diſapprove of the conduct of thoſe who ſport with her feelings, ſhe muſt practiſe forbearance, not forfeit her crown. There is one peculiar expreſſion of this graceful virtue which is eminently becoming to us all, and that is, conceſſion. We generally fall into error through inadvertency, but we continue in it through obſtinacy; the former is the fault of our *nature*, the latter of *ourſelves*. "To err is human;" this we all confeſs, though few ſeem willing to own that acknowledging a fault indicates greatneſs of mind. Yet ſurely this conduct proves that a perſon poſſeſſes ſome valuable qualities, which he is loath to put to the hazard of being eclipſed by one blemiſh; and therefore he haſtens to obliterate the effects of his fault. We are ſo liable to miſtake and miſconception, that to know we have acted under the influence of thoſe qualities is merely to ſay, that we are human creatures. To pretend to be exempt from an influence which our fellow mortals hourly feel, betrays that ſpecies of pride which is in reality folly.

On the Cultivation of Benevolence. From Letters on Education, by Elizabeth Hamilton.

BENEVOLENCE, in a general ſenſe, includes all the ſympathetic affections by which we are made to rejoice in the happineſs, and grieve at the miſery, of others. It diſpoſes the mind to ſociality, generoſity, and gratitude, and is the fountain of compaſſion and mercy. All the qualities belonging to Benevolence have a tendency to produce peace and complacency in the breaſt, ſo that the happineſs of the individual, as well as of ſociety, is intimately concerned in their cultivation. The paſſions which it inſpires are all of the amiable claſs, as love, hope, joy, &c. and theſe paſſions in their turn increaſe the diſpoſitions to Benevolence, a diſpoſition for the growth and nouriſhment of which, the goodneſs of Providence has in the ſtate of infancy made ample proviſion.

The helpleſſneſs of the infant ſtate is protracted in man to a period far beyond that of other animals; and this helpleſſneſs, by inſpiring compaſſion and tenderneſs in the breaſts of adults, has a powerful tendency to keep alive the ſpirit of Benevolence in the human heart. Wherever human policy has counteracted the wiſe deſigns of nature, by taking children from their parents at an early age, and ſeparating them into a diſtinct ſociety, for the purpoſe of education, the ſympathetic affections

have

have become extinct; a ſtriking inſtance of which occurs in the hiſtory of ancient Sparta, where the murder of infants was, in certain circumſtances, not only enjoined by the laws, but permitted by the parents without the leaſt remorſe.

Luxury, which is ever at war with Nature, has, perhaps, in no inſtance done a greater injury to the intereſts of Benevolence than by introducing, as a faſhion, that premature ſeparation of children from their parents, which the Spartan legiſlator enjoined as a duty. If the exerciſe of parental tenderneſs ſoftens the heart, ſo as to render it eminently ſuſceptible of all the ſympathetic and ſocial affections, it is the intereſt of ſociety that the objects of it ſhould not be ſuddenly removed from the parental roof.

According to the wiſe proviſions of nature, the fond endearments of parental love not only increaſe the benevolent feelings in the breaſt of the parent, but produce a diſpoſition to them in the breaſt of the child, which is ſoon made ſenſible of the ſource from whence its happineſs is derived. A judicious parent will take advantage of this circumſtance to encourage the growth of Benevolence in the infant mind.

The pleaſures they receive from others naturally incline children to ſociality and good will, and were they while they receive them always made ſenſible of their own helpleſſneſs, they would at the ſame time be inſpired with the feelings of generoſity and gratitude. But the tenderneſs of parents ſo ſeldom is judicious that the wiſe proviſion of nature for inſpiring children with Benevolence is commonly rendered abortive; and, inſtead of the amiable diſpoſitions ariſing from love and gratitude, the ſeeds of moroſeneſs, anger, revenge, jealouſy, cruelty, and malice, are often prematurely planted in the little heart.

Let us examine into the cauſe of this, and here the doctrine of aſſociation preſents us with a clue, by means of which we may eaſily explore the labyrinth.

Nature early impels the mind to ſeek for happineſs; but before the dawn of reaſon and experience, the judgments concerning it muſt be erroneous. In infancy all ideas concerning it are compriſed in the gratification of will; the propenſity to this gratification is encouraged by frequent indulgence, till every notion of happineſs becomes connected with it. The idea of miſery becomes conſequently aſſociated with diſappointment, and how far theſe aſſociations may affect the mind by producing the malevolent paſſions, will appear evident on a very little reflection.

We have already remarked, that the painful ſenſations make a more vivid as well as a more laſting impreſſion than the pleaſurable; from which it evidently follows that the happineſs derived from the gratification of will, can never bear any proportion to the miſery occaſioned by its diſappointment. Where the propenſity to this gratification is ſtrengthened by indulgence, the frequent repetition of diſappointment will deeply impreſs the mind with the feelings of reſentment, and thus render it liable to the reception of all the malevolent paſſions connected with it; while

the pleaſurable ſenſation occaſioned by indulgence will produce no other effects than to augment the deſire of future gratification.

An admirable illuſtration of this doctrine is given by Hartley, who, after obſerving that the gratification of ſelf-will, if it does not always produce pleaſure, yet is always ſo aſſociated with the idea of pleaſure in the mind, that the diſappointment of it never fails to produce pain, proceeds as follows: "If the will was always gratified, this mere aſſociated pleaſure would, according to the preſent frame of our natures, abſorb as it were all other pleaſures; and thus by drying up the ſource from whence it ſprung, be itſelf dried up at laſt; and the firſt diſappointments would be intolerable. Both of which things are obſervable in an inferior degree, both in adults and in children, after they are much indulged. Gratifications of the will without the conſequent expected pleaſure, diſappointments of it without the conſequent expected pain, are here particularly uſeful to us. And it is by this, amongſt other means, that the human will is brought to a conformity with the divine, which is the only radical cure for all our evils and diſappointments, and the only earneſt and medium for obtaining everlaſting happineſs."

By the above reaſoning, which is I think concluſive, it evidently appears that were the conſtant gratifications of Will poſſible, (which in the preſent ſtate of things it certainly is not) it would only tend to make the being ſo gratified miſerable; the conſtant gratifications of ſelf-will muſt neceſſarily exclude the exerciſe of all the grateful paſſions. Where ſucceſs is certain, hope can have no exiſtence, nor can joy be produced by attaining that which is conſidered as a right. Let hope and joy be excluded from the human mind, and where is happineſs?

Further, the habitual gratification of Will not only precludes the grateful paſſions of Hope and Joy, but tends to produce all the unamiable and hateful paſſions and diſpoſitions of the human heart. Anger, Peeviſhneſs, and Pride are almoſt without exception produced by the conſtant gratification of every wayward deſire. The firſt is the father of Revenge and Cruelty, the ſecond of Diſplacency and Diſcontent, and the third of Arrogance, Ingratitude, and Contempt. Think of this ye mothers, who, by a weak and blind indulgence of the infant, will lay the foundation of future vice and miſery to your ill-fated offſpring!

Were the happineſs of the child, and the happineſs of the man, incompatible, ſo that whatever contributed to the latter muſt be deducted from the former, the overweening indulgence of parents might be excuſed, and the common apology, viz. "that as life is uncertain, the poor things ought to be permitted to enjoy the preſent," accepted as ſatisfactory. But may we not appeal to every perſon who has had the misfortune to live for any time with a family of ſpoiled children for a ſanction to our aſſertion, that the gratification of will has only been productive of miſery?

In the career of indulgence the fondeſt parents muſt ſomewhere ſtop. There are certain boundaries,

ries which folly itſelf will not at all times be willing to overleap. The pain of the diſappointment that muſt then enſue will be intolerably aggravated by all the diſcordant paſſions foſtered by preceding indulgence.

A child, whoſe infant will has been habituated to the diſcipline of obedience, ſubmits to diſappointment as to inevitable neceſſity, with cheerfulneſs; nor will diſappointment to ſuch an one ſo frequently occur, a wholeſome check having been early put upon the extravagance of deſire: whilſt on the contrary the ſatiety, conſequent upon the fruition of every wiſh, ſets the imagination to work, to find out new and untried ſources of pleaſure. I once ſaw a child make itſelf miſerable for a whole evening, becauſe it could not have the birds that flew through the garden, to play with. In vain did the fond mother promiſe that a bird ſhould be procured to-morrow, and that it ſhould be all his own, and that he ſhould have a pretty gilded cage to keep it in, which was far better than the naſty high trees on which it now perched.

"No, no! that would not do, it muſt be caught now; he would have it now and at no other time."
'Well, my pretty darling, don't cry,' returns mama, 'and you ſhall have a bird, a pretty bird, love, in a minute;' caſting a ſignificant look on her friends as ſhe retired to ſpeak to the ſervants; ſhe ſoon returned with a young chicken in her hand, which ſhe covered ſo as not to be immediately ſeen.

"Here, darling, is a pretty, pretty bird for you, but you muſt not cry ſo; bleſs me, if you cry at that rate the old black dog will come and fetch you in a minute:—there now, that's my good boy; now dry your tears, love, and look at the pretty bird.'

At theſe words little maſter ſnatches it from her hand, and perceiving the deception, daſhes it on the ground with tenfold fury. All was now uproar and diſmay till the ſcene becoming rather too oppreſſive, even for the mother, a ſervant was called, who took the little ſtruggling victim of paſſion in his arms and conveyed him to the nurſery. Such are the effects of the unlimited indulgence of ſelf-will, yet this fond mother perſuaded herſelf that ſhe obeyed the dictates of pure affection. Had ſhe, however, been accuſtomed to reflect upon the motives that influenced her conduct, ſhe would have found ſelfiſhneſs in this inſtance to be the governing principle.

Parental affection has been deſcribed by many philoſophers as a refined ſpecies of ſelf-love. Conſidered merely as an inſtinct it undoubtedly is ſo. But the ſame inſtinct in the brute creation only leads to the care and protection of their young, and I may add to the education alſo, the care of the dams in this particular, both in the feathered and four-footed race, being well known; but never does it lead to a falſe and dangerous indulgence.

Were parental affection in man, as in the brute creation, merely inſtinctive, inſtinct might be truſted to as an unerring guide. But to man, a higher beheſt is granted, and therefore in him inſtinct is feeble and uncertain. And yet, by mere inſtinctive tenderneſs, do parents permit themſelves to be governed in oppoſition to the dictates of that reaſon

which would teach them that true affection, ought to ſtudy the *real* and *permanent* happineſs of the beloved *object*.

It is not uncommon for parents, while they forego the exerciſe of their own reaſon, to truſt to the future reaſon of their children for counteracting the effects of their injudicious management. But does experience juſtify their confidence? I believe every perſon who has traced the riſe and progreſs of the paſſions in individuals, will anſwer in the negative.

The frequent recurrence of any paſſion even from our earlieſt years, begets a tendency to that paſſion till it is ſtrengthened into a habit, and becomes, as it were, interwoven with the conſtitution. How difficult, how next to impoſſible, it is then to conquer, all can witneſs. Reaſon may govern, and Religion may in ſome meaſure ſubdue it ſo as to prevent its exceſs to the prejudice of ſociety, but by nothing leſs than a miracle can it be totally eradicated from the breaſt. The more worthy the heart, the more delicate the conſcience, the more bitter will be the ſenſations of regret and ſelf-abhorence with a perſon liable to the dominion of paſſion, and at the ſame time under the influence of principle, muſt frequently endure. How many are the agonizing tears ſhed in private by the irraſcible! while, perhaps, the ſudden ebullition of warmth that brought them forth, may have fixed a dagger in the heart of a friend, doomed there to rankle for ever. And yet anger being a paſſion which quickly vents itſelf by exploſion, and is then annihilated, is leſs generally obnoxious than peeviſhneſs or pride, which have no criſis, but which continue to operate without reſt or interval.

Which of theſe paſſions will be moſt powerfully excited by the early indulgence of ſelf-will, and the frequent diſappointments inevitably conſequent upon ſuch indulgence, depends, perhaps, upon the organization or conſtitution of the infant. In robuſt habits the paſſion of anger is moſt frequent; while in the moſt delicate peeviſhneſs is commonly generated. By pride both are aggravated to an extreme degree, for pride, reſtleſs as a jackall, is perpetually on the hunt to find food and nouriſhment for theſe tormentors; at every diſappointment of the ſelf-will that has been accuſtomed to habitual indulgence, Pride takes the alarm, and calls on Anger or Peeviſhneſs to revenge the injury.

And here it is worthy of remark how the paſſions act and re-act upon each other; the frequent gratification of Will engenders Pride, and Pride augments the deſire for the gratification of Will, till it becomes inſatiable. Hence the love of power predominates, and hence a diſpoſition to tyranny appears to be inherent in the mind of man. Many, alas! are the tyrannical huſbands and fathers that have been formed in the nurſery.

The unamiable paſſions, like the lean kine, in Pharoah's dream, which devoured the goodly, have a ſtrong tendency to deſtroy the amiable. Indeed they are, in a great meaſure incompatible with each other. The ſocial affections are kept alive by a ſenſe of mutual dependance and mutual obligation. But Pride acknowledges no dependance,

dance, and arrogates to itself all the attentions and good offices of others, not as a matter of favour but of right. Hence, while it is ever ready to take offence at the slightest neglect, it is never warmed by kindness into gratitude.

Observe the boy who has been a mother's darling, and to whom his sisters have from infancy been obliged to do homage; how often are their endeavours to please him received with contempt, while the most trifling offence is aggravated into an injury. Follow him into the world, there, alas! mortification and disappointment attend his steps, for there no one regards him in the light in which he has been taught to regard himself. No one comes up to his ideas of propriety in their conduct towards him. If favoured by fortune, he may indeed meet with many flatterers, but he will never make a friend. The irritation to which he is perpetually exposed will, by degrees, expel the feelings of benevolence from his heart; and perhaps even the parent, to whose fond indulgence he owes his misery, may be the first to feel the effects of his malevolence and ingratitude. Indignant at the world, which he thinks in league to torment and vex him, he perhaps resolves to make himself amends in the tranquillity of domestic life, and makes choice of such a partner, as he imagines will be most obsequious and obedient. Dreading the controul of reason he carefully avoids a woman of cultivated mind, and is perhaps made sensible, when too late, that it is not always the most weak who are the most conformable. In his family however he resolves to rule, and there he does rule with despotic sway. Perhaps he meets with a partner who is led by love of peace and sense of duty to study the gratification of his will in the most minute particulars; but his will soon becomes too capricious for gratification. The passions which he has indulged are incompatible with the enjoyment of satisfaction, tranquillity, or contentment. The gratification of these passions may wound his conscience and irritate his feelings by a sense of having inspired hatred or contempt in the breast of others, but can never bring peace to his heart; the pleasure of making others miserable has little in it of the nature of felicity.

Yet may we sometimes observe the wife of such a man as I have here described, endeavouring by means of unlimited indulgence, to excite the very same passions and propensities in the breast of her son, of which she has felt the fatal consequences in the husband, as if she resolved to revenge on some other innocent woman, all the misery she has herself endured!—Her daughter-in-law may share her fate, and probably imitate her example, and thus may Pride, Cruelty, and Injustice be produced in the family, ad infinitum.

As the operations of Reason are slow, and her induction liable to error, it has pleased the almighty Creator to make not only Reason, but the passions themselves, our schoolmasters in virtue. Every passion, whose inordinate gratification is inimical to the happiness of others, is likewise inimical to our own felicity, while the grateful and benevolent passions and affections of our nature bring in the exercise

pleaſure, and on reflection, peace. Is it not then ſufficient argument againſt producing, by early indulgence, a predominant deſire for the gratification of ſelf-will, to ſhew that the inſtruments employed by this deſire to procure its gratification are all of the unworthy claſs? The love of power has other ſervants beſides Anger, Cruelty, Arrogance and Reſentment. Selfiſhneſs often ſtoops to ſeek the aid of Cunning, and I have known the happy art of objecting to whatever was propoſed by others, and of finding fault with every thing that did not originate in the objector, employed with as much effect in procuring the uncontrouled gratification of ſelf-will, as any of the irraſcible paſſions. But compare the happineſs, which reſults from this gratification, with that which ſprings in a generous and benevolent heart, when conſcious of having made a ſacrifice for another's good. How different the ſenſations! how different their effects upon the mind! The ſelfiſh and unſocial ſatisfaction produced by the former, ſo far from tranquillizing the mind, ſeems only to prepare it for freſh ebullitions of ſpleen and peeviſhneſs; while the latter diffuſes the ſweet ſerenity of cheerfulneſs and complacency over the whole ſoul. Theſe oppoſite diſpoſitions have each a natural tendency to lead to a repetition of the ſame ſort of conduct, by which they were ſeverally produced; the progreſs of Vice and Virtue reſembling the laws of gravitation, in regard to accelerated motion. The truth of this may be illuſtrated by innumerable inſtances; but theſe muſt occur to the recollection of every reader, for little muſt they have been obſervant of human character, who have not traced the progreſs of vicious or virtuous propenſities in the minds of thoſe around them.

The malevolent paſſions produced by frequent irritation, the certain conſequence of great indulgence, appear at firſt but as a ſmall cloud that occaſionally overcaſts the mental horizon, and which it is hoped the ſun of Reaſon will diſpel; but, alas! it ſoon grows too thick for the ſun of Reaſon to penetrate. During the ſprightlineſs of youth it may often brighten into tranſient gleams of generoſity and affection, but if not repelled by the ſtrength of religious principle, it returns in tenfold darkneſs, till at length, having extinguiſhed all the amiable and all the endearing qualities of the heart, it ſpreads its gloomy wings over the ſoul, and rages in all the horror of a perpetual tempeſt.

The benevolent affections, on the contrary, are like the ſoft and gentle light of morning, as deſcribed by the poet:

"At firſt faint gleaming on the dappled Eaſt,
"'Till far o'er ether ſpreads the widening glow;
"And from before the luſtre of her face,
"White break the clouds away."

The longer the mind has enjoyed the ſweet tranquillity of Benevolence, the more unwilling will it be to give admiſſion to the turbulent paſſions, which are deſtructive of peace; and the more frequently it has rejoiced in the conſciouſneſs of having conferred felicity on others, the more will it be diſpoſed to a repetition of acts of beneficence, charity, and mercy. Of what

what importance, then, is the early management of children, ſince upon it, in a great meaſure, depends the vice and virtue, the happineſs and miſery of the world! and yet this is the period conſigned to the care of Ignorance and Folly.

Before the period aſſigned for the commencement of education, ſuch propenſity to the malignant paſſions is frequently generated in the infant mind, as not all the pains of the moſt careful and judicious preceptors can ever after eradicate. And here I may ſafely appeal to all who are concerned in the education of youth, let them ſay how often they have been able to conquer the ſpirit of Self-will with all its attendant paſſions of Pride, Arrogance, Anger, Reſentment, Peeviſhneſs, and Ingratitude. If theſe are not ſtifled in the birth they may afterwards be cut in pieces by the rod of chaſtiſement, but like the polypus, they will preſerve the vital principle and be immediately reproduced.

How much of the tendency to paſſion may be referred to phyſical cauſes, it is not for me to examine; it is ſufficient for my purpoſe to ſhew that they are often produced by an early and indiſcreet indulgence of ſelf-will. That this indulgence generates pride, we know from experience. That the diſappointment of its gratification, after the habit of indulgence, produces the violent and ungrateful paſſions, is likewiſe evident; and that the frequent recurrence of any paſſion produces a diſpoſition to that and ſimilar paſſions, has been, I hope, clearly and ſatisfactorily proved.

To prevent any miſtake that may ariſe from my ſtrenuous inculcation of the neceſſity of the early controul of ſelf-will, I think it neceſſary to obſerve, that if injudicious indulgence become injurious to the mind in conſequence of the frequent irritation it occaſions, (which is obvious from the fretfulneſs obſervable in all ſpoiled children) it follows that injudicious ſeverity, by producing a ſimilar irritation, muſt be equally injurious to the diſpoſition. But do we not often ſee the one follow the other? A poor child accuſtomed to have every thing he cries for, will ſometimes cry for things Mamma may not chuſe to give, and perſevere in crying till he exhauſts her patience, and then he is to be whipped! People firſt indulge children for their own pleaſure, and then chaſtiſe the poor infants for the natural conſequence of that indulgence, and it is, perhaps, difficult to ſay which injures the temper the moſt. "You muſt not touch this! Don't do that!" are injunctions forever in the mouth of a fooliſh mother, who nevertheleſs permits this to be touched and that to be done with impunity; till ſome petty miſchief is accompliſhed, which ſhe conſiders of conſequence, though it is impoſſible for the child to make the diſtinction, and then he muſt again be whipped!

Self-will grows ſo rapidly upon indulgence that a capricious humour is its unavoidable conſequence. This caprice, when it becomes troubleſome and unmanageable, is likewiſe puniſhed by a whipping, and to this whipping does the mother appeal as a ſufficient teſtimony that ſhe does not ſpoil her child! If it be poſſible, and that it is poſſible, I have had ample proofs, by an early habit of implicit obedience, to prevent all

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this whipping, would not the mother as well as the child be the happier for it? Even in the nurse's arms may a notion of the neceſſity of this obedience be obtained.

The prohibitions of a parent ought to be judicious, but they ought to be deciſive. When they are made ſo from earlieſt infancy they will not be often controverted, a ſalutary check will thus be put upon the gratification of will, and the wiſh for that gratification will thus become habitually ſubordinate to the will of the parent. This requires only ſteadineſs and ſelf-command, but ſteadineſs and ſelf-command are ſeldom the virtues of young mothers and nurſes, and yet without theſe there are no hopes that the education of a child will ever be conducted upon conſiſtent principles.

The idea of obedience ought to be early and firmly aſſociated with ideas of ſecurity and happineſs; and here again the imbecillity and helpleſſneſs of infancy afford us the means of effecting our ſalutary purpoſe. Entirely dependant on the wiſdom and experience of others to guard them from the dangers to which they are hourly expoſed, children might be eaſily made to learn the advantages of obedience, and they infallibly would learn it, if obedience were properly enforced. Were all prohibitions made abſolute, and the neceſſity of iſſuing them guarded againſt as much as poſſible, ſo that they ſhould not often occur, it would go far towards rendering obedience natural and eaſy; for it would then appear a matter of neceſſity, and as ſuch be ſubmitted to without reluctance.

I was ſome years ago intimately acquainted with a reſpectable and happy family, where the behaviour of the children excited my admiration. One morning, on entering the drawing room, I found the little group of laughing cherubs at high play round their fond mother, who was encouraging their ſportive vivacity, which was at that time noiſy enough, but which on my entrance ſhe huſhed into ſilence by a ſingle word. No bad humour followed; but as the ſpirits which had been elevated by the preceding amuſement, could not at once ſink into a ſtate of quieſcence, the judicious mother did not require what ſhe knew could not, without difficulty, be complied with, but calmly addreſſing them, gave the choice of remaining in the room without making any noiſe, or of going to their own apartment, where they might make what noiſe they pleaſed; the elder and youngeſt of the four preferred the former, while the two others went away to the nurſery. Thoſe who ſtayed with us, amuſed themſelves by cutting paper in a corner without giving any interruption to our converſation. I could not refrain from expreſſing my admiration at their behaviour, and begged to know by what art ſhe had attained ſuch a perfect government of her children's wills and actions. "By no art," returned this excellent parent, "but that of teaching them from the very cradle, an implicit ſubmiſſion. Having never once been permitted to diſobey me, they have no idea of attempting it; but you ſee I always give them a choice, when it can be done with propriety; if it cannot, whatever I ſay they know to be a law, like that of the Medes and Perſians which altereth not."

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The happy effects of this diſcipline were ſoon rendered more conſpicuous during the very long illneſs of this amiable mother, who, when confined to her chamber, continued to regulate her family through the medium of her eldeſt daughter, then a child of eleven years old.

Affectionate as obedient, this amiable girl not only attended her mother's ſick bed with the moſt tender aſſiduity, but acting as her mother's ſubſtitute towards her little brothers and ſiſters, directed their conduct and behaviour, and was obeyed with the ſame unmurmuring ſubmiſſion as if their mother had herſelf been preſent. Was her mother ſo ill as to render noiſe particularly injurious, all was, by her care, huſhed to ſilence. She invented plays for the little ones that would make no diſturbance, and taught them to ſpeak in whiſpers. It was ſufficient reward for their forbearance, to be told by her that mamma ſent them a kiſs, and thanked them for their goodneſs, and that ſhe had been the better for it. What a foundation was here laid for the operation of benevolence!

Let us compare this with the behaviour of an indulged child, to whom the gratification of ſelf-will had become habitual, who had never been taught to ſubmit to aught but force, and to whom ſubmiſſion was conſequently hateful, exciting all the painful emotions of anger, indignation, and reſentment. I have known ſuch a child make uſe of a parent's illneſs as the means of procuring the gratification of all its capricious humours, when, ſeeing the pains that were taken to prevent noiſe, it would on the leaſt oppoſition cry out, "if you don't give it me this minute, I'll roar!" and accordingly ſhe would roar till ſhe had what ſhe wanted.

What are the diſpoſitions which, in the latter caſe, muſt have naturally been inſpired? To the pleaſing aſſociations attached to the gratification of ſelf-will, the idea of inflicting pain upon others muſt likewiſe be attached. What a foundation for that cruelty which is always allied to a tyrannical diſpoſition! Nor is this all. The exultation conſequent upon thus carrying her point, muſt have engendered Pride, and Pride, by aggravating Oppoſition into Injury, brought forth Anger and Reſentment; and from the extravagance of childiſh humours, this oppoſition muſt frequently recur, ſo that theſe hateful paſſions muſt ſoon gain the ſtrength of habit, and a propenſity to them be for ever fixed and rooted in the diſpoſition.

Let us ſuppoſe the ſame indulgence continued through the early ſtages of youth, in the fond hope that Reaſon will conquer Paſſion, as the child advances to maturity.

Were the nature of paſſion, with regard to the influence it has upon the judgment, properly attended to, I believe this fond hope would be ſoon annihilated on a mind under the dominion of Paſſion, the calm ſuggeſtions of Reaſon can have little influence, ſuppoſing the calm ſuggeſtions of Reaſon poſſible in ſuch circumſtances. But it is not poſſible; for to a mind under the dominion of the ſelfiſh paſſions, that appears to be juſt and reaſonable, which is, in reality, unjuſt and unreaſonable in the laſt degree, becauſe the ideas of juſt and reaſonable are all, by Pride, aſſociated with the idea of the gratification of ſelf-will. Does it not hence

appear

appear evident, that the farther such a person as I have been describing, advances in life, the more firmly will the dominion of passion be established in the heart? Reason will, indeed, be soon taught by experience to discern the necessity of governing, or at least of disguising the feelings, in the company of strangers or superiors; but if this restraint be not of sufficient duration to induce the habit of self-government, and if that habit be not strengthened and confirmed by motives of religion, occasional restraint will only serve to increase the impetuosity of passion.

The salutary effect of long continued restraint upon the irascible passions, is a strong argument in favour of the cultivation of that politeness, which, though too often a fictitious substitute of true gentleness, is yet favourable to the cultivation of the reality. Were the same laws of politeness which govern our intercourse with strangers, always observed in the more familiar intercourse of domestic life, it would prove a sovereign antidote against the frequent recurrence of those jars and wrangles, by which the happiness of so many families is destroyed. True politeness consists not merely in a strict adherence to the forms of ceremony: it consists in an exquisite observance of the feelings of others, and an invariable respect for those feelings. By this definition it claims alliance with Benevolence, and may sometimes be found as genuine in the cottage as the court. A spurious species adulterated by pride is, however, in far more common use, and this being too costly for home consumption, is usually worn with our best clothes, and like them reserved for particular occasions; nor does the usual restraint it puts upon the feelings, essentially promote the cause of Virtue; to it, indeed, society is indebted for all its charms; and this consideration would surely be sufficient to recommend its constant practice at home as well as abroad, did not Self-will, and its unruly train of passions, interpose. To Self-will the restraint imposed by Politeness, is intolerable. Pride has no respect for the feelings of others, but imperiously demands universal attention to its own. The least even imaginary omission of this attention brings forth resentment, either expressed in the sullen tone of peevish Discontent, or in the louder notes of brawling Anger. In the familiar intercourse of domestic life, a thousand opportunities daily occur for exciting these passions, by the petty oppositions which Self-will has to encounter; and where all the members of a family are equally eager for its gratification, the scenes of discord that ensue are horrible. But supposing that only one, one darling child, in whom these passions have been fostered by indulgence, should be subject to their influence, I fear it will be quite sufficient to destroy the charm of domestic harmony. When this has been so repeatedly wounded as to call aloud for a remedy, the only one that presents itself, is that of sending the child to school; there it is hoped the passions will be subdued, and the mind opened by Education to the controul of Reason. How far this hope is likely to be justified by the event, is worthy of our consideration. But this must be

reserved

reſerved for another letter, the preſent has already too far exceeded its bounds. Adieu.

Theatrico mania; *an Eſſay on the rage for private Theatrical Exhibitions. From* Stenilities, *or* Solitary Amuſements.

Time was a ſober Engliſhman would knock
His ſervants up, and riſe by five o'clock:
Inſtruct his family in Virtue's rule;
And ſend his wife to church, his ſon to ſchool.
Now times are changed!
Sons, ſires, and grandſires, all will wear the bays,
Our wives read Milton, and our daughters Plays."

POPE'S EPIST.

THUS it was in Pope's time; and thus far was not much amiſs. Though their daughters *read* plays, we do not find that they attempted to *act* them. But in our times, not only our daughters, but our wives, our mothers, and our grand mothers, I do not ſay *read*, but *act* plays. And we may ſay, in a literal ſenſe, what Shakſpeare's melancholy Jaques ſays in a figurative one:

——— "All the world's a ſtage,
And all the men and women merely players."

There is hardly a family in high or low life, that has not its theatre of ſome kind or other, and its occaſional performers. Not only Brandenburgh houſe, but many a noble houſe of leſs notoriety, is frequently open for theſe dramatic exhibitions. Thither you ſee aſſembled, animals of every deſcription, like thoſe in Noah's ark, clean and unclean, pure and *impure*, *grave* and gay, gamblers and grumblers, who, diſſatisfied with themſelves, and every thing around them, take refuge here, driven from home through dread of ſolitude, and that green-eyed monſter, Ennuie.

If their magnificent ſeat in the country, be the ſcene of action, which ſome few of our nobility and gentry ſtill prefer to a dirty lodging at Brighton or Margate; or at leaſt, when driven from the metropolis by the duſt in ſummer, and from the ſea ports by the equinoctial rains in autumn, they contrive to ſupport themſelves for a month or two, by giving their *rural retreat* ſome reſemblance of a public place; and collecting a croud of half-civilized ſavages from the ſurrounding neighbourhood, to ſee the raree-ſhow, and applaud their performances.

Thence the humour has ſpread itſelf amongſt their tenants', ſons and daughters, who, in imitation of their right honourable or right worſhipful neighbours, ſpout heroics in their barns, with as much vehemence, though not always ſo much correctneſs of elocution, as their landlords "have done in *hall* or *bower*."

As for the practice ſo much in vogue of late in our public ſchools, of performing Engliſh plays, I know not what to ſay; it is countenanced by perſons of ſo much ſenſe and reſpectability, and on ſuch plauſible arguments, that I ſhould think it the height of preſumption abſolutely to condemn it.

"As moſt boys who have a claſſical education, ſay they, are intended to ſpeak either at the bar or in the pulpit, or perhaps at the ſenate houſe, they cannot too ſoon be habituated to ſpeak in public. It

It gives them a proper confidence and an unembarraſſed elocution. A man will never excel as an orator (ſomebody has obſerved) who does not conſider his audience as ſo many cabbage ſtems."

This is very true; but let them therefore be accuſtomed to repeat with a proper emphaſis, and in a graceful manner, ſome parts of the orations of Cicero, or ſpeeches in Salluſt, or even the debates of our Britiſh ſenators; or, if you pleaſe, ſome paſſages from our beſt tragedies, or from the Latin or Engliſh poets, with appropriate geſtures and ſome degree of *action*. But I do not ſee any good end it can anſwer, to make a boy a mimic or a buffoon. Every man ſhould be a good ſpeaker, but why muſt every man be a good actor?

Yet Roſcius, you will ſay, was Cicero's maſter in *action* as well as in ſpeaking. *Action*, no doubt, was of great ſervice to a pleader in popular aſſemblies, ſuch as thoſe of Rome and Athens; yet the natural modeſty and good ſenſe of an Engliſh audience can never be pleaſed with any violent geſticulation. And the mob who are ſo much captivated by the harangues of the tabernacle, are affected more by the appearance of the preacher's being in earneſt, than by his thumping the cuſhion and his voiciferation. And if the London clergy of the eſtabliſhment would add a little more vehemence to their compoſed and decent attitudes, I am convinced they would have more hearers, and more admirers.

But there is one objection to theſe dramatic repreſentations in grammar ſchools, which may be peculiarly ſo to me, that ſome of the boys muſt neceſſarily be metamorphoſed, for the time, into the other ſex. And though I have been rather pleaſed with the partiality of a fond mother, delighted to ſee what an handſome girl her booby ſon would make, to me it is a diſguſting ſight. Not to mention the applauſe which they are ſure to receive from, perhaps, an intereſted audience, muſt naturally excite their youthful vanity, and make them coxcombs. And I have known more than one inſtance where, when a boy has performed his part to admiration, he has flattered himſelf that his education was finiſhed, and has become idle and diſſipated ever after.

An equally ſerious conſequence of theſe performances in great ſchools, of which we ſee many inſtances, is the encouraging young lads intended for more creditable employments, in commencing ſtrollers, and making it their profeſſion, to the diſappointment of their parents, and the perverſion and miſapplication of their talents, which might have been employed for more uſeful purpoſes.

But ſo fond are we of any thing theatrical, that our young ladies of rank, inſtead of the graceful movements of the minuet or the Louvre, in which their grandmothers appeared to ſo much advantage, are now taught to emulate the dancers of the ſtage, and what is worſe, it is to be feared, their *inſtructreſſes* in theſe dances, will introduce, not only the faſcinating attitudes and looſe drapery, but the voluptuous morals of the French nation. As for the general effect which thoſe *private* theatrical exhibitions may have in forming the character, and influencing

influencing the conduct of the rising generation, I shall only observe, that whatever moral precepts our modern dramatic writers may inculcate; yet, as the green rooms of our public theatres were never reckoned schools of rigid virtue, so I am afraid the *private* apartments in noblemens' and gentlemens' houses where the young people retire to change their dresses, and the like, have been productive of more than one intrigue, and elopements, and improper marriages, to the distress of families, and often, perhaps, the ruin of the thoughtless parties themselves.

This prevailing rage for theatrical representations seems to have taken its rise from the source as fashions in general, from a natural desire of imitating what we admire in those who shine or are supposed to excel in any art, accomplishment, or natural endowment. Thus a young lady and gentleman are stricken with the romantic characters and elegant representation of Romeo and Juliet, or perhaps the former with the Fair Penitent, and the latter with the gallant, gay Lothario; and they immediately flatter themselves that they shall respectively shine, and be admired in the same characters.

This fondness for imitating what we admire in others, indeed extends itself through almost every department in life.

A spirited young dowager is pleased with the triumphant air and elevated situation of her coachman on his box; immediately she wraps herself up in an horseman's coat, with a seven-fold cape, mounts her phaëton, flourishes her whip, and

"Graceful as John, she moderates the reins,
"And whistles sweet her diuretic strains."
YOUNG'S SAT.

Another *handsome* young woman is smitten with the helmet of a young volunteer, and gets her milliner to make her a bonnet somewhat similar to it. This probably has introduced the universal fashion of the straw scull-caps, resembling the basket hilt of a cudgel player.

But fashions are like quack medicines, what becomes one woman, may be fatal to the charms of another. As we cannot see too much of a pretty woman's face, so the less we see of a plain woman's the better. The prevalence of fashion, however, is equally applicable to both sexes. But as this is a digression from my subject, I shall only add, that if a man who has been absent from his country seven years, were now to return to England, and to see our ladies in their scull-caps and pellices, and the gentlemen in their pantaloons, he would think they were dressed for a masquerade; or, rather, that an epidemic frenzy had infected the whole beau-monde.

Though I have kept chiefly to the liberal sense of this essay, I shall conclude it with one obvious moral so often inculcated by Epictetus, Antoninus, and the other Stoic Philosophers, "Remember that you are to act a part of the drama of life, at the will of the managers, whether that of a patrician, or a plebeian. *Your* business is to act the part allotted you, to the best of your ability; to allot the part is the business of the manager."

Let these candidates for fame then,

then, theſe tragi-comic performers of either ſex, endeavour to *perform* with *propriety*, their ſeveral *parts* in the relative duties of life; as ſons and daughters; / huſbands and wives; or maſters and miſtreſſes of families. And, inſtead of intruding into, and perhaps injuring the poor player in his profeſſion; and inſtead of "ſtrutting their hour on the ſtage," to gain the momentary applauſe of a frivolous audience, let them ſtrive to acquire the conſtant approbation and eſteem of the good and wiſe, who are the ſpectators of their conduct. And, above all, of the great maſter of the drama of life, who has allotted them their parts, and is the only competent judge of their performance, and capable of aſſigning them an adequate reward.

POETRY.

ODE *for the* NEW YEAR, 1801.

By HENRY JAMES PYE, *Esq.*

FROM delug'd Earth's uſurp'd domain,
When Ocean ſought his native bed,
Emerging from the ſhrinking main,
Rear'd many a mountain Iſle its head;
Encircl'd with a billowy zone,
Fair Freedom mark'd them for her own.
"Let the vaſt Continent obey
"A ruthleſs Maſter's iron ſway,
"Uncheck'd by aught from pole to pole,
"Where ſwell'd Ambition's torrents roll;
"Thoſe ſeats to tyrants I reſign,
"Here be my bleſt abode, the Iſland reign be mine!"

Hating the fane where Freedom ſat enſhrin'd,
Graſping at boundleſs Empire o'er mankind,
Behold, from Suſa's diſtant towers,
The Eaſtern Deſpot ſends his mighty powers,
Grecia, through all her rocky coaſt,
Aſtoniſh'd views the Giant hoſt.
Not the fam'd Strait by bleeding Heroes barr'd,
Nor Cecrop's walls her hallow'd altars guard;
While each bold inmate of the Iſles
On Inroad's baffled efforts ſmiles;
From every Port, with cheering ſound,
Swells the vindictive Pæan round,
And Salamis proud, from her ſea-girt ſhore,
Sees o'er the hoſtile fleet the indignant ſurges roar.

Fiercer than Perſia's ſcepter'd Lord,
More numerous than the embattled train,
Whoſe thirſty ſwarms the ſea-broad rivers drain,
Lo! Gallia's plains diſgorge their maddening Horde!
Wide o'er Europe's trembling lands,
Victorious ſpeed the murderous bands,

Where'er they ſpread their powerful ſway,
Fell Deſolation marks their way.
Unhurt amid a warring world, alone
Britannia ſits ſecure, firm on her Iſland Throne.

When thunders roll, when lightnings fly,
When howling tempeſts ſhake the ſky,
Is more endear'd the ſheltering dome,
More ſweet the ſocial joys of home—
Fondly her eye, lo! Albion throws
On the tried Partner of her weal and woes;
Each tie to cloſer union draws,
By mingled rights and mingled laws,
Then turns averſe from Gallia's guilty field,
And tears, with generous pride, the Lilies from her Shield.

Albion and Erin's kindred race,
Long as your Siſter Iſles the Seas embrace,
Long as the circling tides your ſhores that lave,
Waft your united Banners o'er the wave,
Wide through the Deep commercial wealth to ſpread,
Or hurl deſtruction on the Oppreſſor's head;
May Heaven on each unconquer'd Nation ſhower
Eternal Concord and increaſing Power;
And as in Hiſtory's awful page
Immortal Virtue ſhall proclaim,
To every clime, through every age,
Imperial GEORGE's Patriot Fame,
That parent care ſhall win her warmeſt ſmiles,
Which rear'd, 'mid Ocean's reign, the Empire of the Iſles!

ODE *for his* MAJESTY's *Birth-Day, June* 4, 1801.

By HENRY JAMES PYE, *Eſq. Poet Laureat.*

I.

STILL, ſtill muſt War's diſcordant note
Uſurp the Muſe's votive lay—
Muſt the ſhrill Clarion's brazen throat
Proclaim our Monarch's Natal Day;
While the ſtern Foe with haughty brow
Frowns on the Olive's ſacred bough,
Throws from his Land the proffer'd gift of Peace,
Nor bids the raging ſtorm of Deſolation ceaſe!

II.

O *Britain!* not from abject fear,
Or pale miſtruſt, or weaken'd power,
Springs in thy breaſt the vow ſincere
Which wooes fair Concord's lenient hour:—

Uncheck'd by threats of vengeful foes,
Thy breaſt with warlike ardour glows;
Thy Sons, with unabated force,
Right onward keep their daring courſe;
The Chief who from Canopus' ſultry ſhore,
The burning meed of conqueſt bore,
Now thro' the Baltic's freezing ſurge,
Bids his bold prows their way reſiſtleſs urge;
And while Britannia's enſign flies
Aloft in Hyperborean ſkies,
Denmark aſtoniſh'd, from her threaten'd towers,
Yields up the Naval boaſt to Albion's happier powers.

III.

And lo! where Philip's mightier Son
Bade the fair City's riſing walls proclaim
To diſtant times their founder's name,
Freſh trophies by Britannia's Legions won:
When from the veteran bands of Gallia's ſhore,
Their dauntleſs arms the blood-ſtain'd Banner tore,
Which, like a baleful meteor ſpread,
To fields of death the enfuriate warriors led:—
Yet, 'mid the deeds of endleſs fame,
Shall not a tear the *dying victim claim?*
No!—O'er his tomb, with guardian wings
Hovering, the eternal pæan Glory ſings.
Chanting with note triumphant to the ſkies,
His Name through ages lives, who for his Country dies.

IV.

Enough of War!—While Britain ſees
Before Hygeia's healing hand
The pallid Dæmon of Diſeaſe,
Lead far away her ſickly band;
While to a Nation's fervent prayer
The Arm Omnipotent to ſpare
Gives her ador'd, her Patriot Lord
Again to Life, to Health reſtor'd,
To hail that day, to Britain dear,
Selected from the circling year,
Which Fame ſhall ever mark the birth
Of Regal Duty and of Private Worth;
Strains that Affection forms, that Tranſport breathes,
The fragrant Offerings join that June ambroſial wreathes!

The SMILE. *From the Italian of* CHIABRERA. *From the Poetical Regiſter for* 1801.

Belle roſe porporine.

BEAUTEOUS Roſes, not with morn
From the thorn
Scattering ſweet but tranſient pleaſures;
You, whom, round the lips diſplay'd,
Love has made
Guardians of his pearly treaſures!

Dear to Love, ſweet Roſes! tell,
If I dwell
Fondly thoſe bright eyes beholding,
As I gaze, and gazing ſigh,
Tell me why
You expand in ſmiles unfolding?

Conſcious, I could ill ſuſtain
Your diſdain,
Seek you thus my life to cheriſh?
Is it that you feel delight
In the ſight
Of the pangs by which I periſh?

Beauteous Roſes, be your joy
To deſtroy
Or to ſave, ſince thus you ſhew it,
Still will I in novel lays
Sing your praiſe,
But ô ſmile upon your Poet!

If, at day-ſpring as we paſs,
Through the graſs,
Murmur rills and whiſpers breezes;
If, with flowers the mead looks gay,
Soothed we ſay,
How the ſmiling Landſcape pleaſes!

When his foot blythe Zephyr laves
In the waves,
That with gently gliding motion
Hardly rippling on the ſand,
Kiſs the ſtrand;
See, we cry, how ſmiles old Ocean!

Veil'd in gold, and round her hair
Lilies there,
Here each bluſhing bloſſom piling,
If, on wheels of ſapphire drawn,
Mounts the Dawn;
Lo we ſay, the ſky how ſmiling!

True, in mighty Nature's mirth,
Heaven and Earth
Deck with ſmiles their jocund faces:
True, they ſmile; but ſmiling, ſo
Cannot ſhow
Half your ſoul-enchanting graces!

The FROWN. *From the Italian of* CHIABRERA. *From the Same.*

Se il mio Sol vien, che dimori, &c.

WHEN with ſoft and winning air
Comes my fair,
By her guard of Loves ſurrounded;
And a ſmile, benignly bright,
Beams delight
On the heart which they have wounded;

Such the charms which ſhe diſplays,
All who gaze
Wiſh her ever thus alluring;
Nor again dare hope to meet
Sight ſo ſweet,
Spite of love himſelf aſſuring.

But the pearls, whoſe lucid hue
Wonder drew,
If in ſerious mood ſhe cloſes;
And the look, that gaily glanc'd,
As entranc'd
In reflected thought, compoſes;

Suddenly behold we now
On her brow
Pride enthroned in awful beauty.
Pride? ah no!—but where my Muſe,
Wilt thou chuſe
Words to ſatisfy thy duty?

When abroad on orient wings
Eurus ſprings
O'er the ſummer ſeas to revel;
And his feet in rapid race
Print their trace,
Where he ſkims the watery level;

Curling waves with murmuring ſound
Foam around:
Yet no ſtorm of wrath collected
Speaks that ſound; the ſign but ſhows,
Ocean knows
How to make his power reſpected!

Thus we on that brow diſcern
Sweetly ſtern,
Terrors which no pain occaſion:
'Tis not anger that is ſhewn;
'Tis alone
Beauty daunting bold invaſion;

And that gentle look ſevere
Charms endear
So tranſporting to the lover,
Not one thought he more employs
On the joys,
Which her beauteous ſmiles diſcover!

The BATTLE *of* ALEXANDRIA. *From the Same.*

At Thebes, in antient Egypt, was erected a ſtatue of Memnon, with an harp in his hand, which is ſaid to have hailed with delightful muſic the riſing ſun, and in melancholy tones to have mourned his departure. The introduction of this celebrated lyre, on a modern occaſion, will be cenſured as an anachroniſm by thoſe only, who think that its chords have been touched unſkilfully.

HARP of Memnon! ſweetly ſtrung
To the muſic of the ſpheres;
While the Hero's dirge is ſung,
Breathe enchantment to our ears.

As the ſun's deſcending beams,
Glancing o'er thy golden wire,
Kindle every chord, that gleams,
Like a ray of heavenly fire;

Let thy numbers, ſoft and ſlow,
O'er the plain with carnage ſpread,
Soothe the dying, while they flow
To the memory of the dead.

Bright as Venus, newly born,
Bluſhing at her maiden charms;
Freſh from ocean roſe the Morn,
When the trumpet ſang to arms.

O that Time had ſtayed his flight,
Ere that morning left the main;
Fatal as the Egyptian night,
When the eldeſt born were ſlain!

Laſhed to madneſs by the wind,
As the Red Sea ſurges roar,
Leave a gloomy gulph behind,
And devour the ſhrinking ſhore;

Thus with overwhelming pride,
Gallia's brighteſt, boldeſt boaſt,
In a deep and dreadful tide,
Roll'd upon the Britiſh hoſt.

Dauntleſs theſe their ſtation held,
Though with unextinguiſhed ire
Gallia's legions, thrice repell'd,
Thrice returned through blood and fire.

Thus above the ſtorms of Time,
Towering to the ſacred ſpheres,
Stand the Pyramids ſublime,
——Rocks amid the flood of years!

Now the veteran Chief drew nigh;
Conqueſt towering on his creſt,
Valour beaming from his eye,
Pity bleeding in his breaſt.

Britain ſaw him thus advance,
In her Guardian Angel's form:
But he lower'd on hoſtile France
Like the Dæmon of the Storm.

On the whirlwind of the war,
High he rode in vengeance dire;
To his friends a leading ſtar,
To his foes conſuming fire.

Then the mighty pour'd their breath,
Slaughter feaſted on the brave;
'Twas the Carnival of Death;
'Twas the Vintage of the Grave!

Charged with Abercrombie's doom,
Lightning wing'd a cruel ball;
'Twas the herald of the tomb,
And the Hero felt the call.

Felt,—and raiſed his arm on high,
Victory well the ſignal knew,
Darted from his awful eye,
And the force of France o'erthrew.

But the horrors of that fight
Were the weeping Muſe to tell;
O 'twould cleave the womb of night,
And awake the dead that fell!

Gaſh'd with honourable ſcars,
Low in Glory's lap they lie:
Though they fell, they fell like ſtars,
Streaming ſplendour through the ſky.

Yet ſhall Memory mourn that day,
When with expectation pale,
Of her Soldier far away,
The poor widow hears the tale.

In imagination wild,
She ſhall wander o'er this plain;
Rave—and bid her orphan child
Seek his Sire among the ſlain.

Gently from the weſtern deep,
O ye evening breezes riſe!
O'er the Lyre of Memnon ſweep,
Wake its ſpirit with your ſighs.

Harp of Memnon! ſweetly ſtrung
To the muſic of the ſpheres;
While the Hero's dirge is ſung,
Breathe enchantment to our ears.

Let thy numbers ſoft and ſlow,
O'er the plain with carnage ſpread,
Soothe the dying, while they flow
To the memory of the dead.

None

None but ſolemn, tender tones,
Tremble from thy plaintive wires;
Hark!—the wounded warrior groans!
Huſh thy warbling—he expires!

Huſh!—while ſorrow wakes and weeps,
O'er his relicks, cold and pale,
Night her ſilent vigil keeps,
In a mournful moonlight veil.

Harp of Memnon! from afar,
Ere the lark ſalutes the ſky,
Watch the riſing of the ſtar,
That proclaims the morning nigh.

Soon the Sun's aſcending rays,
In a flood of hallowed fire,
O'er thy kindling chords ſhall blaze,
And thy magic ſoul inſpire.

Then thy tones triumphant pour,
Let them pierce the hero's grave;
Life's tumultuous battle o'er,
O, how ſweetly ſleep the brave!

From the duſt their laurels bloom,
High they ſhoot, and flouriſh free;
Glory's temple is the tomb!
Death is immortality!

Sheffield, June, 1801. ALCÆUS.

EXILE. *From the Same.*

By MISS BANNERMAN.

YE hills of my country, ſoft fading in blue,
The ſeats of my childhood, forever adieu!
Yet not for a brighter, your ſkies I reſign,
When my wandering footſteps reviſit the Rhine;
But ſacred to me is the roar of the wave,
That mingles its tide with the blood of the brave;
Where the blaſts of the trumpets for battle combine,
And the heart was laid low, that gave rapture to mine.

Ye

Ye ſcenes of remembrance that ſorrow beguil'd,
Your uplands I leave for the deſolate wild;
For nature is nought to the eye of deſpair
But the image of hopes that have vaniſhed in air:
Again ye fair bloſſoms of flower and of tree,
Ye ſhall bloom to the morn, tho' ye bloom not for me;
Again your lone wood-paths that wind by the ſtream,
Be the haunt of the lover—to hope—and to dream.

But never to me ſhall the ſummer renew
The bowers where the days of my happineſs flew;
Where my ſoul found her partner, and thought to beſtow
The colours of heaven on the dwellings of woe!
Too faithful recorders of times that are paſt,
The Eden of love that was ever to laſt!
Once more may ſoft accents your wild echoes fill,
And the young and the happy be worſhippers ſtill.

To me ye are loſt!—but your ſummits of green
Shall charm thro' the diſtance of many a ſcene.
In woe, and in wandering, and deſarts, return,
Like the ſoul of the dead to the periſhing urn!
Ye hills of my country! farewell evermore,
As I cleave the dark waves of your rock-rugged ſhore,
And aſk of the hovering gale, if it come
From the oak-towering woods on the mountains of home.

SONG. *From Poems, by the late* T. Little.

IF I ſwear by that eye, you'll allow
Its look is ſo ſhifting and new,
That the oath I might take on it now,
The very next glance would undo!

Thoſe babies that neſtle ſo ſly,
Such different arrows have got,
That an oath on the glance of an eye,
Such as yours, may be off in a ſhot.

Should I ſwear by the dew on your lip,
Though each moment the treaſure renews,
If my conſtancy wiſhes to trip,
I may kiſs off the oath when I chooſe!

Or a ſigh may diſperſe from that flower
The dew and the oath that are there;
And I'll make a new vow ev'ry hour,
To loſe them ſo ſweetly in air!

But clear up the heaven of your brow,
Nor fancy my faith is a feather;
On my heart I will pledge you my vow,
And they both muſt be broken together.

To JULIA, *on her* BIRTH-DAY. *From the Same.*

WHEN Time was entwining the garland of years,
Which to crown my beloved was given;
Though ſome of the leaves might be ſullied with tears,
Yet the flow'rs were all gathered in heaven!

And long may this garland be ſweet to the eye,
May its verdure forever be new,
Young Love ſhall enrich it with many a ſigh,
And Pity ſhall nurſe it with dew!

A BALLAD. *From the Same.*

THOU haſt ſent me a flowery band,
And told me 'twas freſh from the field;
That the leaves were untouched by the hand,
And the pureſt of odours would yield.

And indeed it is fragrant and fair;
But, if it were handled by thee,
It would bloom with a livelier air,
And would ſurely be ſweeter to me!

Then take it, and let it entwine
Thy treſſes, ſo flowing and bright;
And each little flowret will ſhine
More rich than a gem to my ſight.

Let the odorous gale of thy breath
Embalm it with many a ſigh;
Nay let it be wither'd to death
Beneath the warm noon of thine eye:

And

And inſtead of the dew that it bears,
The dew dropping freſh from the tree,
On its leaves let me number the tears
That Affection has ſtolen from thee!

To JULIA. *From the Same.*

I SAW the peaſant's hand unkind,
From yonder oak the ivy ſever;
They ſeem'd in very being twin'd,
Yet now the oak is freſh as ever.

Not ſo the widow'd ivy ſhines,
Torn from its dear and only ſtay;
In drooping widowhood it pines,
And ſcatters all its blooms away!

Thus, Julia, did our hearts entwine,
Till Fate diſturbed their tender ties,
Thus gay Indifference blooms in thine,
While mine, deſerted, droops and dies!

GILIMER. *From Poems, Vol.* II. *by the Rev.* W. L. Bowles.

GILIMER was the laſt of the Vandal Kings of Africa, conquered by Beliſarius; he retired to the heights of Papua, when his army was entirely beaten.—His anſwer to the meſſage ſent to him there by Beliſarius, is well known. He deſired the conqueror to ſend him a loaf of bread, a ſponge, and a lute; this requeſt was thus explained—that the king had not taſted any baked bread ſince his arrival on that mountain, and earneſtly longed to eat a morſel of it before he died; the ſponge he wanted to allay a tumour that was fallen upon one of his eyes; and the lute, on which he had learnt to play, was to aſſiſt him in ſetting ſome elegiac verſes he had compoſed, on the ſubject of his misfortunes.

"HENCE, ſoldier, to thy plumed chief;
"Tell him that Africk's king,
"Broken by years, and bow'd with grief,
"Aſks but a lute, that he may ſing
"His ſorrows to the moon; or (if he weep)
"A ſponge, which he in tears may ſteep;
"And let his pity ſpare a little bread!"

Such,

Such, Gilimer, was thy laſt prayer,
To him, who o'er thy realm his gay hoſt led,
When thou, forlorn, and frozen with deſpair,
Didſt ſit on Papua's heights alone,
Mourning thy fortune loſt, thy crown, thy kingdom gone.

When 'twas ſtill night, and on the mountain vaſt
The moon her tranquil glimmer caſt,
From tent to tent, remotely ſpread around,
He heard the murm'ring army's hoſtile ſound,
And ſwell'd from his ſad lute a ſolemn tone,
Whilſt the lone valleys echo'd—" all is gone!"

The ſun from darkneſs roſe,
Illumining the landſcape wide,
The tents, the far-off ſhips, and the pale morning tide:
Now the prophetick ſong indignant flows——

" Thine, Roman, is the victory——
" Roman, the wide world is thine——
" In every clime thy eagles fly,
" And the gay ſquadron's length'ning line,
" That flaſhes far and near,
" Its flouting banners as in ſcorn diſplays,——
" Trump anſwers trump, to war-horſe, war-horſe neighs.

" I ſink forſaken here——
" This rugged rock my empire, and this ſeat
" Of ſolitude my glory's last retreat!
" Yet boaſt not thou,
" Soldier, the laurels on thy victor brow;
" They ſhall wither, and thy fate,
" Leave thee, like me, deſpairing, deſolate!

" With haggard beard, and bleeding eyes,
" The conqueror of Africk lies *——
" Where now his glory's creſted helm?
" Where now his marſhalled legions thronging bright,
" His ſteeds, his trumpets, clanging to the fight,
" That ſpread diſmay through Perſia's bleeding realm?

" Now ſee him poorly led,
" Begging in age his ſcanty bread!
" Proud victor, do our fates agree?
" Doſt thou now remember me——
" Me, of every hope bereft;
" Me, to ſcorn and ruin left?

* Alluding to the ſuppoſed miſerable ſtate of Beliſarius in his old age.

So

" So may Deſpair thy laſt lone hours attend;
" That thou too, in thy turn, may'ſt know
" How doubly ſharp the woe——
" When from Fortune's ſummit hurl'd,
" We gaze around on all the world,
" And find in all the world no Friend!

On an UNFORTUNATE *and* BEAUTIFUL WOMAN. *Written December*, 1783. *From Poems, Vol. II. by the Rev.* W. L. BOWLES.

OH ****! when diſtreſs and anguiſh came,
And ſlow diſeaſe prey'd on thy waſted frame;
When every friend, e'en like thy bloom, was fled,
And Want bow'd low thy unſupported head;
Sure ſad Humanity a tear might give,
And Virtue ſay, " live, beauteous ſufferer, live!"

But ſhould there *one* be found, (amidſt the few
Who with compaſſion thy laſt pangs might view)
One who beheld thy errors with a tear,
To whom the ruins of thy heart were dear,
Who fondly hoped, the ruthful ſeaſon paſt,
Thy faded virtues might revive at laſt;
Should ſuch be found——oh! when he ſaw thee lie,
Cloſing on every earthly hope thine eye;
When he beheld Deſpair, with rueful trace,
Mark the ſtrange features of thy alter'd face!
When he beheld, as painful death drew nigh,
Thy pale, pale cheek, thy feebly-lifted eye,
Thy chill, ſhrunk hand, hung down as in deſpair,
Or ſlowly rais'd, with many a mutter'd prayer!
When thus, in early youth, he ſaw thee bend
Poor to the grave, and die without a friend;
Some ſadder feelings might unbidden ſtart,
And more than common pity touch his heart!

Th' eventful ſcene is cloſed—with pauſing dread
And ſorrow, I drew nigh the ſilent bed—
Thy look was calm—thy heart was cold and ſtill,
As if the world had never uſed it ill:
Methought the laſt faint ſmile, with traces weak,
Still ſeem'd to linger on thy faded cheek:
Poor **** ! though moſt beauteous in thy face,
Ere ſorrow touch'd it, beam'd each lovely grace,

Yet,

Yet, oh! thy living features never more
A look ſo ſweet, ſo eloquent before,
As this, which bids all human paſſions ceaſe,
And tells my pitying heart "*you died in peace!*"

CHARACTER *of deceaſed* ENGLISH PAINTERS; *from an Epiſtle to* Sir G. BEAUMONT, *by* W. SOTHEBY, *Eſq.*

IF Art, through blended groupes, can aptly join
Part link'd with part, and mould in one deſign,
If keen-ey'd Humour catch in brilliant hues,
The changeful colours of the comic muſe,
Where Nature pours her ſpirit o'er the whole,
And every ſtroke is truth that paints the ſoul,
Mark'd by diſtinctive touches, finely wrought,
In every form of life, and caſt of thought;
If Wit, enforcing Wiſdom's moral plan,
Laſh Vice and Weakneſs to amend the man:—
Satire and Senſe, on Hogarth's tomb reclin'd,
Shall point the ethic painter of mankind.

In Wilſon view the ſpirit of the ſtorm,
That rolls the thunder round his ſhapeleſs form,
Whoſe floating limbs on Snowdon's brow expand,
Swell on the ſight, and awe th' o'erſhadow'd land.
While midnight clouds beneath the demon riſe,
And meteors ſtreak with trailing flame the ſkies,
Launch'd from his hand, prone lightnings fire the wood,
The tempeſt ſmites the far reſounding flood,
Shivers the crags, and down their rifted ſide
Whirls the uprooted oaks along the tide.
Onward he ſails, and o'er the corſe beneath
Spreads all his plumes, and rocks the blaſted heath.

Let others Wright's reſplendent pencil praiſe,
And luſtrous hues that like the lightning blaze,
Catch from the ſparkling ſteel the furnace-glow,
And trace the melted mountains as they flow:
I, to yon lonely tent by Pity led,
View where the widow mourns the Soldier dead;
Turns from her babe, whoſe careleſs ſmiles impart
Strange woe, that harrows up the mother's heart,
Hangs o'er the body bleeding on the ground,
Claſps his cold hand, and faints upon the wound.

Not ſuch the ſcene that lonely Gainſborough led
To the wild wood, dark dell, and mouldering ſhed.

Lo! bending o'er the lake, the village child,
That on her ſmiling image ſweetly ſmil'd;
The boy that worſhipp'd with uplifted eye,
The broad arch beaming on the ſtormy ſky;
Each quivering gleam, when tendereſt colours play
On the light foliage, freſh'ning all the May;
Bright ſummer's noontide-glare, th' autumnal hue,
That melts, in golden glow, the mellow'd view;
The ſolemn darkneſs ſtealing o'er the year,
When glimmers on the branch the brown leaf ſear;
Each varied tint, by Time's ſoft pencil thrown,
The dew-ſtain'd bark, gray moſs, and mouldering ſtone;
His bold rough touch to theſe exiſtence gives,
And in his faithful mirror, nature lives.

Beaumont! while fond remembrance wakes thy tear,
That ſtreams o'er theſe frail flow'rs on Reynolds' bier,
Low droops the muſe, unequal to her aim:
Genius, like thine, ſhould raiſe thy friend to fame.

Hail! guide and glory of the Britiſh ſchool,
Whoſe magic line gave life to every rule.
Reynolds! thy portraits, true to nature, glow'd,
Yet o'er the whole ideal graces flow'd;
While forth to fight the living likeneſs came,
Souls touch'd by genius, felt thy higher aim;
Here, where the public gaze a Siddons views,
See Fear and Pity crown the Tragic Muſe:
There, girt with flames, where Calpe gleams afar,
In dauntleſs Heathfield hail the God of War.

Painter of grace! Love gave to thee alone
Corregio's melting line with Titian's tone,
Bade Beauty wear all forms that breathe delight,
And a new charm in each enchant the ſight:
Here a wild Thais waves the blazing brand,
There yield her zone to Cupid's treacherous hand,
An Empreſs, melt the pearl in Egypt's bowl,
Or, a ſly Gipſey, read the tell-tale ſoul.

Painter of paſſion! Horror on thy view
Pour'd the wild ſcenes that daring Shakeſpeare drew,
When the fiend ſcowl'd on Beaufort's bed of death,
And each weird Hag 'mid lightnings hail'd Macbeth.

Thee, Dante led to Famine's murky cave:
"Round yon mute father hear his children rave;

"Behold

" Behold them ſtretch'd beneath his ſtony eye,
" Drop one by one, and gaze on him, and die;
" So ſtrain each ſtarting ball in ſightleſs ſtare,
" And each grim feature fix in ſtern deſpair."

No earth-born giant ſtruggling into ſize,
Stretch'd in thy canvaſs, ſprawls before our eyes,
The mind applies its ſtandard to the ſcene,
Notes, with mute awe, the more than mortal mien,
Where boundleſs genius, brooding o'er the whole,
Stamps e'en on babes ſublimity of ſoul.
Whether, where terror crowns Jove's infant brow,
Before the Godhead aw'd Olympus bow;
Or, in yon babe, the Herculean ſtrength upholds
Th' enormous ſnakes, and ſlacks their length'ning folds;
Or while, from heav'n celeſtial Grace deſcends,
Meek on his knees the infant Samuel bends,
Lifts his claſp'd hands, and, as he glows in pray'r,
Fixes, in awful trance, his eye on air.

The HERMITAGE. *From Poems by* GEORGE HUDDESFORD, A. M.

BENEATH thy ſhelter lowly cell!
How bleſt is he who bids farewell
The world, and vain delights foregoes
For calm content, and bland repoſe!
Can the dome of coſtly mould,
Fretted arch èmboſs'd with gold,
Laviſh ſculpture's proud deſign,
Sooth the ſoul with charm like thine?
I love thy ſolitary gloom,
I love the roſes wild that bloom
Around thy porch—I love to trace
Thy precincts where each ſimple grace,
Surpaſſes all that art hath plann'd;
Thy roof of ſpar, and floor of ſand,
Thy thick-wove thatch with moſs o'ergrown,
Thy whiſpering rill, whoſe current lone
The ozier flings its wreaths aſlant,
And ſapphire-plum'd halcyons haunt:
And ſtretch'd thy ruſhy couch along,
To liſten to the blackbird's ſong,
Hear him his amorous pains relate
Melodious to his jetty mate.
While faintly borne upon the breeze,
The dove's reſponſive murmurs pleaſe;

And from the ſheep-cote in the dell
Soft tinkling chimes the wether's bell,
Accordant to the chearful ſtrain
Of milk-maid blithe, and whiſtling ſwain.
And ere the weſtern waves abſorb
The beams of day's refulgent orb,
I long to traverſe, uneſpied,
Thy beech-clad hillock's verdant ſide,
O'er each dun brake, and ſhadowy dell,
While Fancy breathes her magic ſpell,
Aſſembling all her ſylvan clan,
Her dryads, fauns, and laughing Pan;
Or calls the Muſes from the ſpheres
With heavenly ſtrains to ſooth mine ears,
Or conjures up aërial forms
To marſhal all the fairy ſwarms
That quaff their acorn cups, and ſing,
And friſk, and dance in ſportive ring,
Tinging, whene'er their tracks are ſeen,
The circled ſward with richer green.
Or wend with Meditation thro'
The deep, umbrageous avenue
Emerging oft, the groves between,
On flowery lawn, or paſture green,
Or upland, whence, to feaſt my ſight,
A thouſand beauteous ſcenes unite;
The venerable oaks that wear
The rich robe of the waining year,
Studded with ſails the river's tide,
Diffuſing wealth and verdure wide;
Tall cliffs, illumin'd with the gleam
Of downward Titan's glowing beam,
The fleecy tribes that ſeek their fold,
Empurpled clouds with ſkirts of gold,
Redundant ſheaves of ripen'd grain,
And ſhadows lengthening on the plain:
'Till ſummon'd by the curfew's ſound,
While falling dews embathe the ground,
Again I ſeek the friendly ſhade
From whence my devious ſteps have ſtray'd,
Repaſs the lawn, and hawthorn dell,
Regain thy ſhelter lowly cell;
There ſpread my board with ſimpleſt fare;
Supremely bleſt if Cynthia ſhare
The mellow treaſures Autumn gives,
The beverage nectar-yielding hives
To crown my rural cheer impart,
And yield me in return her heart.

TO

TO MY SOUL *. *By* R. A. DAVENPORT, *Esq.*

BE patient yet, my Soul, thou haſt not long
To groan beneath accumulated wrong;
Soon, very ſoon, I truſt, the galling yoke
That clogs thee now, for ever ſhall be broke.
It comes, thy freedom comes, from grief ariſe:
Prepare, exulting, for thy native ſkies.
Soon, very ſoon, this world's unholy dreams,
Its poor poſſeſſors, and their trifling ſchemes,
Shall worthleſs ſeem to thee, as leaves imbrown'd,
That blaſts autumnal ſcatter o'er the ground.
O then, from all of earthly taint made free,
What ſcenes unthought, thy bleſſed eyes may ſee!
Perhaps, commiſſion'd thou ſhalt bend thy flight,
Where worlds and ſuns roll far from mortal ſight,
And hail'd by beings pure, who know no care,
Thy gracious Maſter's high beheſts declare:
Or raptur'd bend, amid the ſeraph band,
That round the throne of light attending ſtand,
To golden harps their dulcet voices raiſe,
And ceaſeleſs hymn the great Creator's praiſe.
O while ſuch hopes await, can ought on earth
My conſcious ſoul, to one ſad ſigh give birth?
Be far each anxious thought: no more repine,
Soon ſhall the crown of Amaranth be thine.

SONNET. *Written at Midnight.* *By* R. A. DAVENPORT, *Esq.*

YE diſembodied ſpirits, who have paſt
Of this dim earth the feveriſh turmoil;
If, not in inner-heaven inthron'd—awhile
Ye wander, viewleſs, through the ſtarry vaſt,
And pitying, ſee by changeful Paſſion's blaſt
Rude-tempeſted, or wrung by force or guile,
The feeble dwellers on this thorny ſoil,
Till friendly Death the conflict end at laſt;
Tell, if ye may, what cares, what pleaſures wait
The ethereal eſſence from encumbering duſt
Releas'd, to ſeek on high its deſtin'd ſtate:
Vain wiſh! ye hear not, or the Ever-juſt
Forbids the wondrous ſtory to relate;
Peace then, my ſoul! adore and humbly truſt!

* Compoſed at a critical period of a dangerous illneſs.

Account of Books for 1801.

Ægyptiaca, or Observations on certain Antiquities of Egypt. *In two Parts.—Part I. The History of Pompey's Pillar elucidated.—Part II. Abdollatif's Account of the Antiquities of* Egypt, *written in Arabic, A. D.* 1203. *Translated into English, and illustrated with Notes. By* J. White, D.D. *Professor of Arabic in the University of* Oxford, &c. &c. &c.

IN the present volume, the author has executed only the first part of the undertaking announced in the title page. The object of his inquiry was in every respect worthy of his labours; but learning and perseverance less than his own would perhaps have been insufficient to render an inquiry interesting, or its results instructive. That magnificent pillar, he says, which is the chief subject of the following inquiry, may be ranked with the most illustrious remains of ancient art. It has excited the attention of the traveller, employed the pen of the historian, and exercised the skill of the antiquary; and all these have united in holding it forth to the notice and admiration of mankind. But while the object of curiosity is admitted to be interesting, the attempt to write, after so much has been written, may be deemed an idle presumption; and the sceptical inquirer, who has in vain sought for satisfactory information from those witnesses who have visited the spot, will perhaps disdain that which is offered him from the recesses of an university. To obviate such a prejudice, (if any such should be entertained) let me here explicitly inform the reader, that in the ensuing pages he will see no paradox advanced to contradict and perplex the concurrent testimony of ages; but he will find that the commonly received accounts have some material defects to be supplied, and some gross errors to be corrected, and that such corrections have been made, it is hoped, upon the authority of unexceptionable evidence.

In approaching this great object of curiosity, he proceeds, we enter upon a land of wonders, in its history and fate distinguished from all others, and suggesting matter of the most serious and awful reflection. For what country may compare with Egypt in early renown for power, and wealth, and science, when other nations were fed with the produce of her soil, and enriched with the treasures of her wisdom? Where else can we behold such stupendous works of art; which, no less in design than in magnitude, seem almost to exceed the ability of human agents? And, lastly, where shall we find a degeneracy like that of the pre-

ſent race of Egyptians; or where an ancient inheritance of greatneſs and glory, which has been ſo totolly waſted and loſt? Yet the various revolutions, under which Egypt repeatedly ſunk, were not always ſo injurious and deſtructive. The conqueſt of Alexander was followed by the eſtabliſhment of a new metropolis, an eſtabliſhment that enriched the country with commerce, and adorned it with the ſumptuous elegance of Grecian art: for the city of Alexander, anſwering the grand conceptions of her founder, became at once the centre of trade, and the ſeat of learning; and in the day of her proſperity, exceeded the politeneſs of Athens, and rivalled the greatneſs of Rome. Nor was the condition of Egypt, while under the dominion of her Saracen maſters, continually declining or unproſperous. Within this period ſhe reſumed for awhile ſome portion of her original ſplendour; and the epocha is remarkable; ſhe was flouriſhing, learned, and polite, whilſt Europe was immerſed in the groſſeſt ignorance and barbariſm; and what ancient fables reported of her, that the deities had concealed themſelves there, from earth-born rebellion and violence, appeared as an allegory, which was now verified, when arts and letters found there an aſylum from that inundation of barbarians, which overwhelmed all the kingdoms of Europe. It may be pertinent to remark, that the two periods here ſelected for notice have a near connexion with the ſubject of the following diſcourſe. The firſt was diſtinguiſhed by the erection of the pillar, and the ſecond by the earlieſt, and perhaps the beſt accounts recorded of it.

From theſe reflections on the former ſtate of Egypt, the author is naturally led to its preſent condition, and conſiders it firſt as a fearful witneſs of the eternal power and preſcience of God, and next as an object of French enterprize and ambition. The half-learned, trifling, preſumptuous atheiſtical Sonnini, had publiſhed a ſcheme for tranſporting the famous pillar into France, and the ſame project was ſuggeſted by Savary; but Maillet, in the beginning of the eighteenth century, had formed and digeſted a plan for obtaining it under falſe pretences, for the purpoſe of being exhibited in France, ſurmounted by a ſtatue of Louis XIV. The revolutionary views of the acute and miſchievous Volney are ſhewn from his own words, but Pierre Vattier, the French tranſlator of Murtadi's Wonders of Egypt, in a dedication to the ſame Monarch, diſcloſed a much more extraordinary ſcheme. The conqueſt of thoſe unknown regions, which conceal the courſe of the Nile, he ſlightly mentions as the preliminary ſtep to his deſign. "Your "Majeſty then," continues he, "will cauſe our admiration of the "Pyramids to ceaſe, by a work "of importance and grandeur, "and of a character entirely dif-"ferent. That will be (if our "prayers are heard, and our hopes "fulfilled) to turn the courſe of "the Nile, and withhold its fer-"tilizing waters from Egypt, till "the preſent infidel inhabitants "have abandoned it; and to reſtore "the ſtreams to their former chan-"nel, when more worthy and "lawful poſſeſſors ſhall arrive to "cultivate the country." How little do the baniſhment of the Hu-

gonots and the burning of the Palatinate appear, when compared with this grand and comprehenſive project of famine and extirpation!

Proceeding from the Preface to work itſelf, Dr. White begins his inquiry with an obſervation, that although the general voice of modern times has connected the ſtupendous column of Alexandria with the name of Pompey; this connexion, unheard of in the ages immediately ſucceeding his own, reſts only upon a dark and doubtful tradition, and receives no colour of probability from any authority of ancient hiſtory. By whom, it may be aſked, could the Alexandrian column, a monument of ſuch extraordinary ſplendour and magnificence, have ever been erected in honour of Pompey? There is neither evidence nor probability, that it was raiſed by the weak and effeminate Prince *, whom he had reſtored to the throne of Egypt. It is ſtill leſs likely to have been erected by the treacherous boy †, who, regardleſs of the obligations of gratitude, was induced, from motives of the moſt refined but deteſtable policy, to murder the patron and benefactor of his family. Nor can we poſſibly ſuppoſe it to have been dedicated to the honour of this illuſtrious Roman, by his more fortunate rival Cæſar, or any of his ſucceſſors in the empire.

Diſregarding therefore a name which reſts on groundleſs tradition, and has its foundation only in vulgar error, the author enters into an inveſtigation of the period at which this ſtupendous column was erected; a point about which paradoxical inquirers have differed moſt widely, ſome aſſigning its origin to the ſecond century of the chriſtian era; others to the remote and unknown period, which witneſſed the building of the Pyramids. Forbearing to notice opinions which preſent no better title than conjecture, the author obſerves that, among the numerous authors, who have attempted to determine the period, in which this column was erected, there are three, whoſe opinions have particularly attracted the attention of the learned world, our countryman Wortley Montague, Brotier, and Michaelis, and propoſes to examine the ſentiments and arguments of each in order.

Mr. Montague's opinion is, that it was erected in honour of the Emperor Veſpaſian, and he founds his judgment on a medal of that Sovereign, which, he ſays, he found above a foot within the circumference of the ſhaft. He ſupports his conjecture by the ſilence of Strabo, which proves, as he maintains, that the pillar was not known before the time of Veſpaſian; but Dr. White obſerves, that Tacitus does not ſupply a word in aid of Mr. Montague's inference. We are informed by this hiſtorian that the Emperor Veſpaſian paſſed ſome months at Alexandria, waiting for a fair wind to convey him to Italy, and in this interval performed ſeveral *pretended* miraculous cures, and ſaw a viſion in the Temple of Serapis. Theſe wondrous tales are related at length, and the courſe of the hiſtory is afterwards interrupted to exhibit an account of Serapis, and to trace the origin of the wor-

* Ptolemy Auletes. † The ſon of Ptolemy Auletes.

ſhip

ſhip paid to him in Alexandria. But in all this narration no mention is found of any public monument there dedicated to the Emperor; an omiſſion, which can never be reconciled with the ſuppoſition, that at any time within the hiſtorian's knowledge, the moſt magnificent column in the univerſe had been raiſed for this very purpoſe. Had the medal been repoſited between the ſhaft and the baſe of the column, at the time, and for the purpoſe, which Montague ſuppoſed, it would, moſt probably, have borne a more appropriate inſcription than it did, and had ſome reference to the name of Serapis, which appears on other medals, both of Veſpaſian and his ſon Domitian; but a modern French traveller affirms, that Mr. Montague placed the medal himſelf in the ſituation where he pretended to find it, for the purpoſe of impoſing on the learned, and Dr. White diſmiſſes the hypotheſis with obſerving, that it reſts entirely on the relation of an author, whom we may more juſtly admire for eccentric ingenuity and various learning, than for modeſt diffidence and ſcrupulous attachment to truth.

Brotier, the learned editor of Tacitus, in his notes upon that claſſic, has attempted to determine the age and founder of the column by an authority, which, if it had any exiſtence, would be indiſputable and deciſive. He ſays, "prope "Columnam Pompeii, ut vulgo "loquuntur; quam verius Co-"lumnan Dionyſii Ptolemæi di-"cerent, ut ex ſemeſis Inſcrip-"tionis literis obſervavit P. Si-"card, egregius Ægyptiacarum "Antiquitatum indagator." That is, Father Sicard diſcovered by the remains of the inſcription, that the column ought rather to be attributed to one of the Ptolemies. But the paſſage in Sicard, to which Brotier alludes, does not warrant his declaration. It does indeed ſhew, that the reverend father might entertain a ſtrong opinion, that the column was coeval with Ptolemy Euergetes; but for this opinion he alleges no reaſon; he pretends to nothing more certain than conjecture; and ſo far from ſupporting Brotier's aſſertion, in the only point which he was quoted to prove, (viz. that he collected what he knew, or thought of the column, from the inſcription) he tells us expreſsly, that, with the exception of eight or ten unconnected letters, all the reſt of the inſcription was obliterated.

Dr. White proceeds then to cite ſome other accounts of this inſcription. M. de Maillet, who was appointed Conſul General of Egypt in 1692, affirmed that it was impoſſible to read it, on account of the various colours of the marble on which it is engraved. Norden, who viſited Egypt in 1737, infers from the order of the column, which is Corinthian, that it was erected in the days of the Ptolemies, but the inſcription, he ſays, has been ſo little ſpared by time, that it is hardly poſſible to decypher it. Niebuhr was in Egypt in 1761; he could only diſtinguiſh a few letters of the inſcription, and M. de Haven, after taking great pains, could not make out as many. Biſhop Pococke purſued the ſame inquiry with rather more ſucceſs, but without any advantage, as the Greek letters he diſcovered make no ſenſe by themſelves, nor do they lead to

any rational conjecture. A circumſtance which Dr. White juſtly notices as extraordinary, is, that the learned John Greaves, who was eminent for his ſkill in the Greek, Perſian, and Arabic languages, as well as for his profound and extenſive knowledge of mathematical ſubjects, travelled into Egypt in 1638, and, during his ſtay in that country, reſided ſix months at Alexandria, gives a particular account of the column, without at all mentioning the inſcription, from which it is inferred that the inſcription, if it did then at all exiſt, was either ſo inſignificant, or ſo nearly obliterated, as to be deemed unworthy of his notice.

The Arabian author, Abulfeda, calls the Alexandrian column, *Amûd Iſſawâri*, which Mr. Michaelis tranſlates, *the Column of Severus*, and founds on it another hypotheſis, aſſigning the date of its erection to the times of that Emperor. Profeſſor Wahl conſiders this interpretation unexceptionable, and Mr. Browne readily accedes to it; but a wider diffuſion has been given to this hypotheſis by the popular letters of Savary, a man of little learning, and perhaps of leſs knowledge of antiquity, who had the aſſurance to publiſh a volume of travels in Upper Egypt, without having ſet his foot in the country. This author, as if from his own diſcovery, boldly aſſerts that Abulfeda calls the pillar the Column of Severus; and that the gratitude of the people of Alexandria, to whom he was a great benefactor, erected to him another column, on which the inſcription ſtill remaining, gives it to Alexander Severus. After noticing the arrogance of this pretending Frenchman, Dr. White ſhews, that the Severus referred to is not Alexander Severus, who began his reign A. D. 222, (and who moreover never was in Egypt), but Septimius Severus, whoſe reign commenced A. D. 193.

Returning to the Arabic expreſſion *Amûd Iſſawâri*, by which Pompey's pillar was diſtinguiſhed in the middle ages; the author heſitates not to affirm, that it has no other ſignification whatever than "The Column of the Pillars." To an Engliſh ear this phraſe will perhaps appear rather tautologous. Our language affords no correſpondent term, no word equally extenſive with *Amûd*; which includes both the round and the ſquare pillar, and may be applied to a Grecian column, or an Egyptian obeliſk. At the time when the Arabic language firſt prevailed in Egypt, there were only two extraordinary objects of this kind remaining in Alexandria; Cleopatra's needle, and Pompey's pillar; and the inhabitants appear to have diſtinguiſhed them by their local ſituation, calling the one *Amûd il Bahri*, "the column of the ſea;" and the other *Amûd Iſſawâri*, "the column of the pillars."

In proof of the juſtice of this appellation, Dr. White cites the authority of Biſhop Pococke, who ſays, that in his time there remained many fragments of granite pillars, four feet in diameter, near the column of Pompey. The Arabian writers in the middle ages alſo affirm that, in the time of Richard Cœur-de Lion, there were more than four hundred of theſe

pillars

pillars ſtanding in the immediate vicinity of the column. So that this magnificent monument at that time might evidently be called, with ſingular propriety, "the Column of the Pillars."

Having refuted theſe erroneous ſpeculations, the author proceeds to a deſcription of the grand Alexandrian temple of Serapis, which was raiſed for the reception of an image of that deity of Egypt by the firſt Ptolemy, and completed in the following reign. A library was formed in the reign of Philadelphus, or at leaſt exiſted in his time, called the Serapean, and was, as Dr. White contends, a conſtituent part of the Serapeum itſelf. This library, which was calculated to contain forty thouſand volumes, was deſtroyed by Cæſar when he ſubdued Alexandria, but the literary ſtores of the Egyptian capital were munificently repleniſhed during the reign of Cleopatra. From the hands of her enamoured conqueror, this princeſs received the rival collection of Pergamus; and where can we ſuppoſe her to have placed ſuch a gift, beſtowed by her beloved Antony, except in the only repoſitory then exiſting, which was dignified by the appellation of a Royal Library? The luſtre of the Serapeum, obſcured for a time, was reſtored, and the anniverſary of Serapis was celebrated by the ſacrifice of St. Mark the Evangeliſt; but as the pure light of the goſpel diſperſed the gloom of paganiſm, the tutelar deity of Alexandria was deprived of his uſurped dominion. The firſt ſignal of his diſgrace and downfall was the removal of the Nilometer from his temple, by the command of Conſtantine. His final ruin was accompliſhed by the Archbiſhop Theophilus, who zealouſly executed the decree of Theodoſius againſt his image and temple. At this time his idol was broken in pieces, the golden wall which enſhrined him laid in ruins; and, in the ſubſequent reign of Arcadius, a chriſtian church was erected on the ſpot which had been occupied by the temple. But though the temple, which formed a part of the Serapeum, was thus raſed to the ground; the religious zeal of Theophilus did not prompt him to deſtroy the remainder of the edifice. Its ſpacious courts and ſtately columns ſtill continued to be the admiration of the world.

As one digreſſion is, according to an Arabian proverb, the parent of another, the author next proceeds to the deſtruction of the Alexandrian library by the order of Omar, and expoſes the miſrepreſentations of Mr. Gibbon on that ſubject; a part on which it is the leſs neceſſary to dwell here, as the whole paſſage is extracted in a preceding page.

Returning from theſe ſubjects to the queſtion, when and by whom was the column of Alexandria erected, and to whoſe honour dedicated? Dr. White conſiders, that although no certain proof can be produced, many particular facts may be collected which will lead to a very probable concluſion. The magnitude of this column is ſuch, that if it had originally ſtood unconnected with other buildings, it would never ſurely have eſcaped the notice of ancient hiſtorians; whereas, if it conſtituted any part of a ſtructure like the Serapeum, it might well be included in the general

general mention of an edifice ſo magnificent and ſtupendous. Niebuhr conſiders the column to have ſtood in connexion with ſome building, and its ſhaft is of the ſame kind of ſtone with thoſe large pillars, the remains of which Pococke ſaw lying ſcattered near it; and the expreſs teſtimony of Arabic writers, in a matter where they are certainly competent witneſſes, is, that it ſtood at the northern angle of a great building of uncertain antiquity, and that four hundred of theſe pillars were ſtanding around it, with which it was ſo connected, that from them it received its popular appellation of *Amûd Iſſawâri*, or "the Column of the Pillars." They add, that here was the library which Amru deſtroyed by the command of the Khalif Omar. That library, as has been already proved, was a part of the ancient Serapeum; and therefore he concludes, upon the poſitive teſtimony of hiſtory, that the column ſtood within its precincts. The Roman Emperors he obſerves, from Auguſtus to Conſtantine, frequently deprived Egypt of her ſtately monuments, but none of them was likely to enrich a provincial city with ſuch an unparalleled ornament, nor is there one among them whoſe hiſtory or character affords the ſlighteſt pretenſions for aſſigning to him the origin of this column.

We are told by thoſe who have lately taken its dimenſions, and who in modern ages have had the beſt opportunity and means of examination, that its principal member, the Shaft, appears to be of Grecian architecture. If then we exclude the Roman Emperors, ſurely this internal evidence will juſtify our concluſion, that the æra of the column is to be found in ſome point of the Ptolemæan dynaſty; for till after the conqueſt of Alexander the arts of Greece were not introduced into Egypt. If we conſider the ſecond monarch of this race, his hiſtory, his diſpoſition, his ability; the connexion of the column with a building confeſſedly founded by him, and the ſameneſs of the character and materials; if we take each of theſe circumſtances diſtinctly, and weigh their accumulated force, there will be little occaſion to heſitate at reſtoring the honour of this magnificent monument to Ptolemy Philadelphus; an honour indeed which cannot juſtly be conteſted with him by any character in Greek or Roman hiſtory, either in remote or later ages. There yet remains to be mentioned one circumſtance in the life of this prince, which will give additional weight to the preceding concluſion. We are informed by Pliny, that he raiſed an obeliſk of eighty cubits, as a pledge of his affectionate regard for the memory of Arſinoë. As he exhibited in his capital this ſpecimen of Egyptian architecture, he might wiſh alſo to diſplay to his Egyptian ſubjects the architecture of his own country in its utmoſt magnificence, and to ſuperadd the decorations of a more graceful proportion, and a more appropriate ornament. The obeliſk was a naked memorial, but the column was certainly ſurmounted by the ſtatue of him to whoſe honour it was erected.

This conjecture, however ingenious and well ſupported, Dr. White advances with the modeſty which reſults from real learning and

and wiſdom. He had waited for certain facts till he conſidered the expectation hopeleſs, and then he gave to the world his rational deductions from the records of antiquity, and thoſe of the middle ages. In the courſe of this inquiry, he ſays, I have often felt the want of that evidence, which might ſtill be obtained, were the ſite of this renowned temple diligently inveſtigated by able men. In the miſſion of the national inſtitute I entertained a hope, that at leaſt ſome better knowledge of Alexandrian antiquities would reſult from the invaſion of Egypt. But this hope was not more fondly conceived than cruelly diſappointed. For, except a deſcription of the pillar, with a detail of its dimenſions, nothing has been performed, or even attempted. It had been doubted whether the eminence, on which it ſtands, be natural or artificial ground; and the judicious Pococke, who noticed certain ruins near it, hinted that they were the remains of ſome grand edifice. But theſe hints have been left unimproved, and theſe doubts ſtill remain unſatisfied. Profeſſors of art, and teachers of ſcience, have left muſeums crowded with the ſpoils of Florence and Rome—have received the *fiat* of the great nation to inſtruct as well as ſubdue the world—they have viſited this ſpot, with power to examine it without moleſtation, and certainly with no modeſt reluctance to claim the merit of diſcovery. Yet what new information, uſeful or curious, have they contributed on this ſubject? Certainly none. But whilſt the Antiquarian may regret the opportunity that has thus ſtrangely been loſt; whatever the wiſdom of divine Providence may have determined ſhall be its final iſſue, every friend of humanity can but lament the accumulated miſery which has hitherto reſulted from ſo treacherous an enterprize againſt this devoted country—an enterprize, which though it has eventually called forth the moſt brilliant and unparalleled exertions of Britiſh ſkill and valour, and magnanimity; yet has not tempered the horrors of war, and rapine, and maſſacre, by the production of one ſingle advantage, either to the cauſe of literature, to the ferocious invader himſelf, or to the wretched and unoffending victims of his faithleſſneſs and fury.

The Appendix is compoſed of extracts from various authors in illuſtration of the facts or opinions advanced. It begins with critical explanations of the paſſage of Abulfeda, which cauſed the column to be aſcribed to Severus; next are quotations from Macrobius, Clemens Alexandrinus, and others, reſpecting the ſite of the Serapeum, with the opinion of Dr. White himſelf on the ſubject; and laſtly, additional information reſpecting the pillar itſelf.

The work is in every reſpect worthy of the erudition of its author; the ſtyle is remarkably pure and elegant, and the arguments are advanced with a degree of forbearance which will ever be mentioned to the honour of the author. Still it appears that his deductions, however ingenious, are refuted, not by argument, but by an unexpected fact. The reconqueſt of Egypt by the Britiſh arms enabled the military officers to effect

fect that which the French men of learning, oftentatiouſly called *ſavans*, had not attempted, or at leaſt but ineffectually; and the inſcription, which Dr. White conſidered hopeleſs, has been ſufficiently decyphered to aſcertain that the column was erected by Pontius, Prefect of Egypt, in honour of Dioclefian.

The Poetical Works of John Milton, *in ſix Volumes, Octavo, with the principal Notes of various Commentators. To which are added Illuſtrations, with ſome Account of the Life of* Milton. *By the Rev.* Henry John Todd, M. A.

THE poetic fame of Milton is ſo inſeparably connected with that of the Britiſh nation, that every attempt to explain his ſenſe, illuſtrate his alluſions, or vindicate his reputation, is ſure to meet with attention and due conſideration from the public. The Rev. Mr. Todd, favoured by the circumſtances of his ſituation, which gave him acceſs to the ineſtimable library of the Duke of Bridgewater, had already offered a ſpecimen of the manner in which the preſent work would be executed, by publiſhing in 1798 the Maſk at Ludlow Caſtle, with notes, by ſome deemed too ample, but by the majority of readers conſidered only as a ſplendid ſample of a rich treat then in preparation.

In diſcuſſing the merits of this edition, the poetry, its author, and the editor, will occaſionally be conſidered, but with degrees of notice widely differing. On the poetry of Milton an almoſt univerſal opinion is formed. The concurrent judgment of all perſons of learning and good taſte has fixed it in the very higheſt region of celebrity. The objections which have been advanced with reſpect to certain allegories, incidents, and illuſtrations, and to the ſtructure of the verſe in Paradiſe Loſt, are not permitted to prevail againſt its exalted merits and numerous beauties. Paradiſe Regained, aided by judicious criticiſm, recovers from the neglect into which it had fallen. The minor poems, always highly eſteemed, are now confirmed in the public opinion as worthy relics of their great author, and, on the whole, no poet ever enjoyed with more univerſal aſſent, and leſs diminution, the admiration of his own country, and the good opinion of thoſe foreigners who by ſtudy of the original, or by the help of tranſlation, could be made to comprehend his works.

With reſpect to Milton himſelf, a greater diverſity of opinion muſt be expected to prevail. He was an active and pertinacious adherent to the cauſe of the republicans in the ſeventeenth century, from the commencement of their ſtruggle, through the whole term of their proſperity, and after their fall. His learning and eloquence were employed in defending their conduct, and in cenſuring, not to ſay, traducing, their opponents; royalty and epiſcopacy were objects of his inceſſant averſion, and his doctrines both in government and religion are characterized by a violent and implacable ſpirit. This temper and ſyſtem have gained him ſome friends, but they have alſo created, as they naturally might, many enemies. The former have been anxious to vindicate his principles, and palliate the

the faults in his private conduct; nay, ſome have even gone ſo far as to repreſent the points moſt ſtrenuouſly urged by his adverſaries, as proofs of merit, rather than as grounds of cenſure. As this controverſy has been maintained with ability and induſtry; no ſource has been left unexplored from which authentic information could be drawn, and the means of forming a correct deciſion, are in the hands of the public.

The induſtry and judgment of Mr. Todd, conſpicuous in all parts of his work, have preſented in the firſt volume an account of the life of Milton, from which the leading facts will be extracted, as the baſis of ſome opinions with reſpect to this great author, on matters not immediately connected with his celebrity as a poet.

John Milton, ſon of John and Sarah Milton, was born on the 9th of December, 1608, at the houſe of his father, who was then an eminent ſcrivener in London. His grandfather was a man of property and family in Oxfordſhire; but the father of the poet having, while at Chriſt Church, Oxford, abjured popery, was diſinherited. By his profeſſion of ſcrivener, called in theſe times conveyancer, he gained ſufficient property to beſtow on his children a liberal and careful education. The early bent of John Milton toward poetry was diſcerned, and not diſcouraged by his parent. His education was at firſt private, under the inſpection of Thomas Young, a puritan, in Eſſex. He was then placed at St. Paul's ſchool, of which Alexander Gill was maſter; and before he left that ſeminary had begun a courſe of intenſe ſtudy, which afterward occaſioned the loſs of his ſight. In the 17th year of his age, diſtinguiſhed as a claſſical ſcholar, and converſant in ſeveral languages, he was ſent from St. Paul's ſchool to Cambridge; and was admitted a penſioner at Chriſt's College on the 12th of February, 1624-5, under the tuition of Mr. William Chappel, afterwards Biſhop of Cork and Roſs, in Ireland. Here he attracted particular notice by his academical exerciſes, as well as by ſeveral copies of verſes, both Latin and Engliſh, upon occaſional ſubjects. He neglected indeed no part of literature, although his chief object ſeems to have been the cultivation of his poetical abilities.

Of the proofs of poetical genius which he gave during his reſidence at Cambridge, no doubt is entertained, but the cenſure or correction to which he was expoſed is the ſubject of ſome controverſy. Some maintain, on the authority of verſes written by himſelf, that he underwent flagellation, but the fair interpretation of the lines does not ſeem to warrant this inference, although there can be no doubt that he was ſentenced to baniſhment, or ruſtication. Moral irregularity is not imputed to him as the cauſe of this ſentence, but an abhorrence of reſtraint. Dr. Bainbridge, the maſter, Mr. Warton obſerves, is reported to have been a very active diſciplinarian; and this lover of liberty, we may preſume, was as little diſpoſed to ſubmiſſion and conformity in a college as in a ſtate. When reprimanded and admoniſhed, the pride of his temper, impatient of any ſort of reproof, naturally broke forth into expreſſions of contumely and contempt

tempt againſt his governor. Hence he was puniſhed. Whatever may have been his puniſhment, Milton did not finally leave the Univerſity in diſgrace, but took two degrees, and long retained a great eſteem for the fellows of his college. He was deſigned by his parents, and once by his own reſolutions, for the church, but to the diſappointment of his friends, who, though in comfortable, were yet by no means in great circumſtances, he declined both that calling, and the law, aſſigning, among other reaſons, his determination to lay up as the beſt treaſure and ſolace of a good old age, if God ſhould vouchſafe it, the honeſt liberty of free ſpeech from his youth. Having taken the degree of M. A. in 1632, he left the Univerſity, and retired to his father's houſe in the country, who had now quitted buſineſs, and lived on an eſtate which he had purchaſed at Horton, near Colnebrooke, in Buckinghamſhire. Here he reſided five years, in which time he not only, as he himſelf informs us, read over the Greek and Latin authors, particularly the hiſtorians; but is alſo believed to have written his *Arcades*, *Comus*, *L'Allegro* and *Il Penſeroſo*, and *Lycidas*. On the death of his mother in 1637, he prevailed with his father to permit him to viſit the Continent. One of his purpoſes was to form a collection of Italian muſic. At Paris he became acquainted with Grotius, and at Nice, Genoa, Leghorn, Piſa, and Florence, he was generally well received, and beloved on account of his compoſitions and converſation. Among his acquaintance was the celebrated Galileo, from whom, it is furniſed, he caught ſome of the philoſophical notions contained in Paradiſe Loſt. From Florence, he paſſed through Sienna to Rome, where he ſtayed two months feaſting both his eyes and his mind, and delighted with the fine paintings and ſculptures, and other rarities and antiquities, of the city. At Rome Milton was honoured with the acquaintance of ſeveral learned men; more eſpecially with that of Holſtenius, keeper of the Vatican library. By him he was introduced to Cardinal Barberini, the patron cardinal of the Engliſh; who, at an entertainment of muſic, performed at his own expence, waited for him at the door, and condeſcended to lead him into the aſſembly. Milton did not forget the extraordinary civilities of this accompliſhed cardinal. He next removed to Naples, in company with an hermit; to whom Milton owed his introduction to the patron of Taſſo, Manſo, Marquis of Villa, a nobleman diſtinguiſhed by his virtue and his learning. To this eminent perſon he was obliged in many important inſtances; and, as a teſtimony of gratitude, he preſented to him, at his departure from Naples, his beautiful eclogue, intitled *Manſus*; which Dr. Johnſon acknowledges muſt have raiſed in the noble Italian an high opinion of Engliſh elegance and literature.

From Naples Milton intended to proceed to Sicily and Athens; but hearing in Italy of the commencement of the national quarrel in England, he abruptly changed his courſe, and haſtily returned home to plead the cauſe of ideal liberty. He returnnd by way of Rome,

Rome, and if he did not incur danger, he certainly forfeited ſome kindneſs, by his want of caution in expreſſing his opinions againſt popery. He ſtaid at Rome, however, two months more without fear, and indeed without moleſtation. From Rome he proceeded to Florence, where he was received with the moſt lively marks of affection by his friends, and made a ſecond reſidence of two months. From Florence he viſited Lucca: then, croſſing the Apennine, he paſſed by the way of Bologna and Ferrara to Venice, in which city he ſpent a month. From Venice he took his courſe through Verona, Milan, and along the lake Lemau, to Geneva. After ſpending ſome time in this city, where he became acquainted with Giovanni Diodati, and Frederic Spanheim, he returned through France, and came home after an abſence of fifteen months.

His return happened about the time of the King's ſecond expedition againſt the Scots, in which his forces under Lord Conway were defeated by General Leſley, in the month of Auguſt, 1639. He now commenced ſchoolmaſter, firſt in St. Bride's Church-yard, Fleet-ſtreet, afterward in Alderſgate-ſtreet, two of his nephews being his firſt pupils. In 1641, he began his career as a profeſſed controverſial writer, with the view of aſſiſting the diſſenters in their attack on the eſtabliſhed church. He had before, though leſs directly, aſſailed the epiſcopal clergy, and even anticipated the execution of Archbiſhop Laud, in his *Lycidas*, written before he was twenty-nine years old. The antipathy, then clothed in an allegorick veil, now burſt into expreſſions of elaborate and undiſguiſed invective. It were in this place tedious and uſeleſs to recapitulate even the names of the various tracts which on this occaſion the rage of Milton poured forth againſt the eſtabliſhment. His attack on Laud does him no honour, his defence of Smectymnuus, may be aſcribed to a better motive, as his old puritanical tutor, Thomas Young, was one of the five who formed this junto, and lent the initials of their names to form its quaint and curious appellation. In this controverſy his antagoniſts were Biſhop Hall, and Archbiſhop Uſher. He was led to it, as he fondly imagined, by the deſire of vindicating eccleſiaſtical liberty. He knew that in that manner of writing, he was inferior to himſelf, and that he had, as it were, but the uſe of his left hand. This left hand, Mr. Todd remarks, has indeed recorded too many expreſſions which we muſt lament. By his aſperity the repulſive form of puritaniſm is rendered more hideous and diſguſting, and the cauſe which he would ſupport is weakened.

At Whitſuntide in 1643, and in his thirty-fifth year, he married Mary, the daughter of Richard Powell, a gentleman who reſided at Foreſt-hill, near Shotover, in Oxfordſhire, and was a juſtice of the peace for the county. He brought his bride to London; who, after living only a few weeks with him, obtained his conſent to accept the invitation of her friends to ſpend the remaining part of the ſummer with them in the country. He gave her permiſſion to ſtay till Michaelmas; but ſhe declined to return at the expiration of that period. The viſit to her friends was, in fact, only a pretence for conjugal

conjugal deſertion. This deſertion has been imputed by Philips, to the different principles of the two families. Her relations, he tells us, "being generally addicted to the cavalier party, and ſome of them poſſibly engaged in the King's ſervice, (who by this time had his head quarters at Oxford, and was in ſome proſpect of ſucceſs,) they began to repent them of having matched their eldeſt daughter of the family to a perſon ſo contrary to them in opinion; and thought it would be a blot in their eſcutcheon, whenever that court ſhould come to flouriſh again: however, it ſo incenſed our author, that he thought it would be diſhonourable ever to receive her again after ſuch a repulſe." The ſame biographer intimates, that ſhe was averſe to the philoſophick life of Milton, and ſighed for the mirth and jovialneſs to which ſhe had been accuſtomed in Oxfordſhire. And Aubrey relates, that ſhe "was brought up and bred where there was a great deal of company and merriment, as dancing, &c.; and, when ſhe came to live with her huſband, ſhe found it ſolitary, no company came to her, and ſhe often heard her nephews cry and be beaten. This life was irkſome to her, and ſo ſhe went to her parents.

This proceeding on the part of his wife gave a new turn to the controverſial talent of Milton, and he wrote ſeveral tracts maintaining, by proofs from ſcripture, the legality of divorce in almoſt as large an extent as it has been in our days eſtabliſhed by the antichriſtian, philoſophical, legiſlators of France. His doctrine was violently attacked by the preſbyterians, a circumſtance which inſpired him with a hatred to that ſect. The conduct of this conteſt ſhews Milton diſgracing himſelf by uſing the moſt virulent abuſe; it made him the friend of the Independants as oppoſed to the Preſbyterians, and raiſed him to the diſtinction of being head of a ſect, called *Miltoniſts*, or *Divorcers*. The poet himſelf was diſpoſed to prove his belief in his own doctrines by marrying a young lady, the daughter of Dr. Davis, but ſhe did not encourage his addreſſes, and at the time when the royal cauſe was becoming hopeleſs, his wife came to town, and preſenting herſelf before him, beſought forgiveneſs and reconciliation, which he not only granted, but, at a ſubſequent period, received into his houſe her father, who had never paid him a promiſed portion of 1000l. but whoſe eſtate was then ſeized by the triumphant rebels.

In 1644, before this reconciliation, he publiſhed his *tractate of Education*, which Mr. Warton and Dr. Johnſon concur in cenſuring, and his *Areopagitica*, or *ſpeech for the liberty of unlicenſed printing*, a tract on which Dr. Newton beſtows high and well-deſerved encomiums. But the candid critick adds, that it produced not the deſired effect, for the preſbyterians were as fond of exerciſing the licenſing power, when they got it into their own hands, as they had been clamorous before in inveighing againſt it, while it was in the hands of the prelates. In this period of conjugal ſeparation too, he ſent to the preſs his *early poems, both Latin and Engliſh*; they were publiſhed in 1645, by Humphrey Moſely, the general publiſher of the poets of his day.

In 1647, it is ſaid, a plan was entertained

entertained to make Milton an adjutant-general in ſir William Waller's army, but the account does not claim implicit belief. After the murder of Charles I, the poet reſumed his pen as a controvertiſt, to vindicate that deed of blood and horror, againſt the clamour of the preſbyterians. His tract was entitled, "*The Tenure of Kings and Magiſtrates*, proving that it is lawful, and hath been held ſo through all ages, for any, who have the power, to call to account a tyrant, or wicked king: and, after due conviction, to depoſe and put him to death, if the ordinary magiſtrate have neglected or denied to do it: And that they who of late ſo much blame depoſing, are the men that did it themſelves, 1649."

Beſide this pamphlet, he had written one on Iriſh, and another on Scotch affairs, and four books of a Hiſtory of England, when, without expectancy or ſolicitation of preferment, he was invited by the council of ſtate to be *Latin* ſecretary, as they had determined neither to write to others abroad, nor to receive any anſwers, except in that language, which was common to them all. Their choice could not have fallen upon a more perfect maſter of Latinity. Dr. Newton wiſhes that ſucceeding princes had followed this example of Latin correſpondence; becauſe in the opinion of very wiſe men, the univerſality of the French language will make way for the univerſality of the French monarchy.

His taſk as Latin ſecretary, Milton performed with his characteriſtical ability, and thoſe who moſt reverence his name, have reaſon to wiſh that in his official duty alone he had attempted to render ſervices to the Protector. His voluntary publication of *Eiconoclaſtes*, in anſwer to, or rather reprobation, and ſometimes ridicule, of, the murdered king's *Eikon Baſiliké*, pointed him out to the council as a fit perſon to anſwer Salmaſius, who had publiſhed in 1649, a vindication of the royal martyr, under the title of *Defenſio Regia*, Milton's anſwer, called *Defenſio pro Populo Anglicano*, did not appear till 1651. The controverſy was continued through other publications, but little to the credit of the poet. The purity of his Latin gained additional celebrity, but this was a repute of which he ſtood in no need. His character for humanity, candour, urbanity and veracity, ſuffered irrecoverably; his eagerneſs to purſue the conteſt in defiance of the advice of his phyſicians, accelerated his blindneſs, and he loſt by it, beſide the eſteem of the humane and juſt in general, the favour of his early friend the Earl of Bridgewater. That amiable and learned nobleman, who had been from youth, an admirer of Milton, and had acted the part of the firſt brother in Comus, now diſdained his acquaintance, and on the title-page of *Defenſio populi*, wrote, *Liber igne, author fureâ, digniſſimi*.

In 1653, his firſt wife, who had lived with him ever ſince their reconciliation, died in child-bed. In 1655, when he had been utterly blind two or three years, he eſpouſed Catherine, the daughter of Captain Woodcock, of Hackney, who alſo died in child-bed, within a year after their marriage. In conſideration of his blindneſs, an aſſiſtant ſecretary was allowed him, an employ which in 1657, was given to Andrew Marvell, and this

appears to have been their first connexion. Milton thus freed from some of the toils of office, had more leisure for his private studies, and wrote in the name of Cromwell, the celebrated Latin verses to Christina, queen of Sweden, and to Cromwell poems and epistles of adulation, both in Latin and English, with some few political tracts not immediately connected with any subject of controversy.

After the death of Oliver Cromwell, and during the short period of suspense which preceded the restoration, Milton employed his pen in endeavours to maintain the republican government, but experience had enlightened the people, and the effort was ineffectual. He continued struggling to the last, even when his cause was evidently hopeless, an obstinacy which exposed him to some contemptuous animadversions.

At the restoration, he quitted the house in Petty France, where he had lived eight years, visited and admired by many persons of distinction, both English and foreign. For a time he was obliged to conceal himself, but an act of indemnity soon quieted his fears, and the only injury he sustained from the royal family against which he had attempted so much, was the burning of his *Eiconoclastes*, and *Defensio pro populo* by the common hangman. Soon afterward, at the recommendation of Dr. Paget, he married his third wife, Elizabeth Minshull, of a good family in Cheshire. It is said he was offered the continuance of his employment as Latin secretary, and declined it, but the anecdote wants support.

In 1665, he finished his *Paradise Lost*, which appeared in 1667, after some opposition from the licenser, and under circumstances which will be noticed hereafter.

After the publication of Paradise Lost, Milton resumed his design of giving an history of his native country. But he proceeded only as far as the Norman conquest. Of this history the first printed copies were mutilated; for the licenser expunged several passages, which, reprobating the pride and superstition of the monks in the Saxon times, were understood as a concealed satire upon the bishops upon the reign of the second Charles. Milton, however, bestowed a copy of the unlicensed passages on the Earl of Anglesea; which were published in 1681, with a preface, declaring that they originally belonged to the third book of his history, and which have since been inserted in their proper places. The six books which Milton executed, appeared in 1670. In 1671 he published Paradise Regained, and Samson Agonistes. Of the former poem Philips has recorded Milton's opinion; not his preference of it to Paradise Lost, but his mortification to find it censured as infinitely inferior to his former epick production. In the Samson Agonistes there are so many severe strictures, clearly pointing at the restoration, and at the subsequent sufferings of Milton's party, that it has been often wondered it should have been sanctioned with an *imprimatur*. A learned antiquary thus endeavours to account for this indulgence in the licenser: "Hurt by the censures, to which he had subjected himself by his over-refined cavils at Paradise Lost, he might be unwilling to renew and increase the obloquy, by demurring at the appearance of another

another poem of unquestionable excellency. To his own sufferings also the Poet often alludes in this sublime and affecting tragedy.

In 1672, he published his *Artis Logicæ plenior institutio, ad Rami methodum concinnata.* He had, in 1661, given to the publick, for the service of youth, *Accidence commenced Grammar.* These pieces are proofs of that zeal for careful education, which Milton shewed throughout his life. To this zeal Dr. Johnson has paid a tribute of applause, not more honourable than just. "To that multiplicity of "attainments, and extent of com- "prehension, that intitle this great "author to our veneration, may "be added a kind of humble dig- "nity, which did not disdain the "meanest services to literature. "The Epick Poet, the Contro- "vertist, the Politician, having "already descended to accommo- "date children with a book of "rudiments, now, in the last years "of his life, composed a book of "Logick, for the initiation of "students in philosophy." In 1673, his treatise of true Religion, Heresie, Schism, Toleration, and what best means may be used against the growth of Popery, was published. In this discourse there are some passages, which show that Milton had altered his opinion, since his younger days, respecting certain points of doctrine. In 1674, the last year of his laborious life, he published his familiar Letters in Latin, to which he added some academical Exercises. His employment for the press closed for ever in a Translation of the Latin Declaration of the Poles, in favour of John the Third, their heroick Sovereign. He had now been a long sufferer by the gout; and in July, considering his end to be approaching, he informed his brother Christopher, who was then a Bencher in the Inner Temple, that he wished to dictate to him the disposition of his property. The recent discovery of this nuncupative will minutely illustrates the domestick manners of the Poet. Milton died on Sunday the 8th of November following. His death was so easy, that the time of his expiration was unperceived by the attendants in his room. He left several unpublished pieces, which have since been given to the world.

Such are the principal facts in the life of Milton, which are given to the world as means of judging his character as a controversial writer, both in matters of religion and politics, and as a man.

Religious controversy was the great passion of the age, and he was peculiarly predisposed to join in it, from the circumstances of his family. His father disinherited for renouncing Popery, gave him some cause to dislike that religion, and his early education under Thomas Young, a violent Puritan, most probably bent his mind with unalterable energy against all establishment. Hence arose his determination not to take orders, that he might preserve the freedom of speech; hence the want of forbearance which was supposed to have exposed him to danger at Rome. That his religious opinions were not free from the influence of his personal feelings, is evident, from his sudden defence of divorce, when he himself wished to renounce his wife, and from his hatred of the whole Presbyterian

ſect, for their oppoſition to his doctrines in this particular. That he was ſincere in the opinions he profeſſed, there is not the leaſt room to doubt; but the firmneſs of his conviction is all the apology that can be made for the maintenance of ſome doctrines adopted from improper motives; for controverſy conducted without Chriſtian charity, without liberality, and often without candour; and for a vehemence and irreconcileableneſs of temper, which, at laſt, left this great man, whoſe example might have been ſo beneficial to mankind, a ſolitary worſhipper, performing his religious duties in private, attached to no form of worſhip, inrolled as a member of no congregation in the whole Chriſtian community. How is it to be lamented, that he, whoſe name would have been a recommendation to any ſyſtem which he conſidered conformable with truth, ſhould have left his antipathies only indelibly recorded, while his adherence is unclaimed by any exiſting perſuaſion. There was once a ſmall ſect of Miltoniſts, but now, neither eſtabliſhment nor ſect owns the name of Milton.

In his political, as in his religious controverſies, Milton may have believed that the principles he maintained were founded in truth and juſtice; indeed, nothing leſs than ſuch a conviction, very ſolemnly received, can make it probable that he ſhould purſue a conteſt, when forewarned that the conſequence would be the extinction of ſight. Still his praiſe on this, as on the former account, muſt end here. To humanity, decency and candour, he forfeits every claim. The uncalled for, and needleſs defence of the King's murder firſt ſignalized him in this conteſt; duty as well as inclination led him afterward to contend with Salmaſius; but they who read with candour, either his works on this occaſion, or the anecdotes which attend them, will hardly think the expreſſive cenſure of the Earl of Bridgewater too ſevere. The account of a prayer from Sidney's Arcadia being interpolated, by his deſire, into the Eikon Baſilike is ſtrongly denied. It is, however, clear, that he aſſailed Morus, or Alexander More, with the whole force of his abuſe, as the author of a reply to *Defenſio Populi*, intitled *Clamor regii ſanguinis ad cælum*, although he knew that tract to be written by Du Moulin, and not by More. Milton, on being informed, Mr. Todd ſays, that Du Moulin, and not Morus, was the author of the *Clamor*, is ſaid to have replied, "Well! that was all one, he having "writt it [his *ſecond defence*] it "ſhould goe into the world; one "of them was as bad as the "other."

Thoſe who entered againſt Milton into the field of religious and political controverſy, are reproached with having meanly triumphed in his blindneſs, and in other reſpects treated him with unwarrantable indignity. That forbearance and good temper ſhould ever be abſent from the writings of ſcholars is much to be lamented, and even provocation cannot be admitted in juſtification of abuſe. The meanneſs of triumphing over perſonal calamity is without excuſe. Man cannot inveſtigate, more than he can avert, the judgments of Heaven. When they fall on himſelf, it is his duty to receive them with ſubmiſſive reſignation, and with thankfulneſs

that

that a reſpite is yet allowed him for repentance and amendment; but when he ſees heavy viſitations afflict others, to triumph is profane and preſumptuous, to revile, unmanly and loathſome. Equal cenſure is therefore due to thoſe who audaciouſly aſſerted that the blindneſs of Milton was a judgment from Heaven, and to thoſe who made it a ſubject of ridicule, as L'Eſtrange did, when he entitled his anſwer to one of the Poet's political tracts, "No *Blind* "Guides."

Of theſe opinions the juſtice will be little conteſted in theſe days, when the features of diſputation have loſt ſo much of their ruggedneſs, but in Milton's time the general ſentiment was widely different. He lived very near the period, when in religious and political debate, it was the aim of the diſputant to ſubject his antagoniſt to the faggot, the block, or the gibbet. Conſiſtently with ſuch views it was not deemed ſuperfluous to introduce into the conteſt every topic of a perſonal nature which could place an adverſary out of the reach of pity or reſpect; to diminiſh his power of inflicting evil, if victorious, and to prevent a party from rallying around his remains if he were vanquiſhed and a ſufferer. This ſyſtem of perſonal obloquy diſgraced the writings of diſputants long after Milton's time, and even now, it is not ſo intirely reformed as good manners and ſound judgment would require. If the feelings of the Poet were ever hurt by it, his friends, when they make it a matter of complaint peculiarly applicable to him, ſhould, at leaſt, make ſome deductions from their cenſures, by conſidering how far his example ſanctioned the illiberal violence which cauſes their indignation. If Milton only ſhared the fate, common to all diſputants in his days, no peculiar complaints ſhould be made on his account; if by example or retaliation he ſanctioned ſo bad a practice, to prefer them would rather lead to an inference that he was defeated at his own weapons, than that the arms themſelves were uſed in defiance of the laws of honourable warfare. If cuſtom warranted abuſe, Milton availed himſelf of the charter to its full extent. If a reform was to be effected by example, to whom ſhould the eye of expectation be directed, but the man of genius, the ſcholar, and the traveller; to him whom the graces crowned, the muſes loved, and the learned and the great, while religion and politics were yet out of conſideration, honoured and careſſed. From him, however, no example of humanity, no ſpecimen of forbearance ever proceeded. The clergy and biſhops, whom he firſt attacked; the Preſbyterians, and anti-divorcers, who next incurred his diſpleaſure; the friends of the murdered King, whoſe boſoms he ſo unfeelingly harrowed; his opponents in that controverſy, from Salmaſius down to Morus; all had equal reaſon to aſſert, that whether provoked or not, the gall of Milton's pen flowed in a tide which knew no abatement, and which received its ſupply alike from their public opinions and their private vices or misfortunes; from fact and from fiction; from conjecture and from invention. That in all theſe writings the author only diſcloſed his mind, is a de-

fence which, at leaſt, ſuperſedes all right to complain; for his antagoniſts have equal right to credit on the ſame point, and perhaps the love of freedom, by which he was inſpired, may be rather admitted as a fact, than emulated as a model. He who could contemn and explode royalty, as exerciſed by Charles, was not the perſon from whom the world had a right to expect the panegyric of tyranny, as practiſed by Cromwell.

Still it has been ſaid that the reverence due to the genius of Milton ſhould have procured for him that lenity which he, in the ſtrength of his mind, and the vigour of his indignation did not diſplay toward others. In all matters of reſpect, human judgment or human feelings cannot ſee any thing above thoſe which the laws and cuſtoms of the age and nation have conſecrated as higheſt and moſt venerable. They who had witneſſed the overthrow of the hierarchy, the plunder and deſecration of churches and altars, the excluſion of nobility, the ſubverſion of the throne, and the judicial murder of a lawful Sovereign, preceded by diſguſting indignities; they who obſerved theſe events, whether with exultation or regret, were not likely to perceive, in ſuch a general ruin, any peculiarly ſacred quality in the character of a man of genius, which ſhould exempt him from the common lot that awaited every thing dignified, or entitle him to aſſail his opponents with unreſtrained ſcurrility, without fear of retaliation. But, perhaps, this argument againſt the adverſaries of Milton proceeds on the falſe grounds of allowing him credit for that which appeared after the conflict between him and them had ceaſed. Little or no offenſive animadverſion was made on him after the reſtoration; and before that period he was little known but as a proſe writer. The proſe of Milton, even his Latin proſe, would hardly have kept his name alive, except in the memory of a ſelect few; and his greater poems, Paradiſe Loſt, Paradiſe Regained, and Samſon Agoniſtes, were not in being till ſeveral years after the time in queſtion. The ſuppoſed veneration which was to raiſe the Poet above the ſphere of kings, nobles, and prelates, muſt therefore be exacted in favour of proſe, which was in itſelf the very ſubject of controverſy, or of a collection of ſmall poems, the moſt conſiderable of which was, the Maſk at Ludlow Caſtle. Let no enthuſiaſt here exclaim, that the ſmalleſt of theſe effuſions, but much more the divine Poem of Comus, ought to have guaranteed its author from obloquy for ever: ſuch an obſervation is not true, if applied to religious or political immunity, and had the muſe of Milton produced no more, he would not have occupied the diſtinguiſhed rank at this day aſſigned to him, but would have been commemorated as one, whoſe exquiſite perfection in minute attempts, only left reaſon to regret that he had not applied his vigorous mind and mighty genius to a taſk worthy of its efforts.

In fact, Milton does enjoy, in this reſpect, all the advantages that can be derived from an illuſtrious name. The topics on which he treated have frequently been diſcuſſed ſince his time, without

any

any invidious attempt to make the worſt doctrines more odious, by ſhewing that even he had laboured in vain in ſupport of them. The religious and political character of Milton are little conſidered when his poetry is brought to view. To his great genius, where fully and properly exerciſed, individuals of every rank and ſtation pay unfeigned homage; and among thoſe who have conſecrated their days and nights to the illuſtration of his poetry, and the diffuſion of his fame, are found ſome eminent divines, and many ſtrenuous ſupporters of thoſe eſtabliſhments, which it was his delight to vilify, and his labour to ſubvert. Among theſe names, as enumerated by the preſent editor, may be mentioned Mr. Addiſon, Dr. Bentley, Dr. Pearce, Dr. Warburton, Dr. Newton, Dr. Jortin, Dr. Hurd, the Rev. Mr. Meadowcroft, the Rev. Mr. Calton, Mr. Warton, Dr. Joſeph Warton, Dr. Dampier, and laſt, though not leaſt in labour or in ability, the Rev. Mr. Todd himſelf. In this liſt, the name of Dr. Johnſon is not included, becauſe ſome have, with more captiouſneſs than juſtice, ranked him among thoſe, whoſe labours have tended rather to depreſs, than to exalt the eſtimation of the Poet.

Adverting to the domeſtic character of Milton, it will be found, that much ingenuity, and no ſmall portion of vehemence have been employed in endeavours to palliate or to vindicate that which can never be denied, his harſhneſs and unſocial auſterity. The return of his firſt wife to her parents, has been blamed without reſerve; and as no vice could be imputed to her, ſome pains have been taken to make her appear guilty of the meanneſs of ſhunning her republican huſband, becauſe her royaliſt father was more likely to be proſperous. Such a charge ſhould not have been made without the ſupport of poſitive proof, or at leaſt of ſome very cogent appearances; but in the preſent caſe, neither is offered. A young lady of good family, and with the promiſe of a handſome fortune (for a thouſand pounds formed a very handſome fortune in thoſe days) and living in a ſtyle ſuited to affluence and reſpectability in her own country, liſtened to the addreſſes of a handſome and engaging ſcholar. He had no fortune, nor at that time any proſpects, conſequently, neither intereſt nor ambition could guide her views. Her parents conſenting, ſhe was married, and went to live with her huſband; but to her great mortification, ſhe found the place of her abode, different, in all reſpects, from the mode of life to which ſhe had been accuſtomed; ſociety baniſhed, pleaſure forbidden, and inſtead of the gay ſounds of innocent mirth, nothing heard but the ſcreams and ſobs of children, ſuffering under the harſh correction of a rigid ſchoolmaſter. Her deſertion was the conſequence; a meaſure, by no means to be juſtified, but certainly to be accounted for, without making any charge againſt her honour, or aſcribing to her ſo much meanneſs as ſome Biographers have thought ſhe exhibited. Milton's reconciliation with her is an act which does him the higheſt honour; and his affording an aſylum to her father, was an exemplary inſtance of benevolence and generoſity. But

even this tranſaction has been praiſed for merits which do not belong to it. When it is conſidered, Mr. Todd ſays, that Milton cheerfully opened his doors to thoſe who had treated him with indignity, and breach of faith; to a father, who according to the poet's nuncupative will, never paid him the marriage portion of a thouſand pounds; and to a mother, who according to Wood, had encouraged the daughter in her perverſeneſs; we cannot but accede to Mr. Hayley's concluſion, that the records of private life exhibit not a more magnanimous example of forgiveneſs and beneficence. The liberality and beneficence which Milton diſplayed are not to be queſtioned, but it does not appear that his father-in-law was at that time to blame in withholding from him the fortune he had promiſed. If it had been payable abſolutely to the uſe of the huſband, the money, or an adequate ſecurity, would moſt probably have been given to him before the marriage; but if, which is far more likely, it was to have been ſettled on the wife and her children, the ſeparation, which took place in a few weeks after their union, prevented the ſettlement from being made at the time; and the triumph of the rebels afterward diveſted Mr. Powell of power to execute his original intention. As to the magnanimity ſhewn in receiving back a mother who had encouraged the daughter in her perverſeneſs, it is difficult to treat it with ſeriouſneſs. If the eldeſt of his daughters was born at the time, ſhe was not more than three years old, and could never have ſeen her father, or had any opportunity of diſplaying her perverſeneſs; but it is moſt probable that neither of Milton's children was born till after the return of his wife. How ſhe afterward merited the title of unkind wife, or the offspring of their marriage that of unkind children, no means are left of aſcertaining, except the nuncupative will above alluded to, and the depoſitions in ſupport of it, and they make no impreſſions in Milton's favour. This ſuppoſed teſtament was tendered to the Prerogative Court in behalf of the poet's widow, on the depoſition of his brother Chriſtopher, who was a papiſt, a circumſtance of conſequence in no other way than as it illuſtrates the misfortune of the children, whoſe father is ſaid to have diſliked them for going to church, and whoſe uncle, though of an oppoſite faith, did not love them for the ſame reaſon.

According to the depoſition of Chriſtopher, the will was uttered in July 1647, the year of his brother's death, in theſe words. The portion due to me from Mr. Powell, my former wife's father, I leave to the unkind children I had by her, having received no part of it: but my meaning is, they ſhall have no other benefit of my eſtate than the ſaid portion, and what I have beſides done for them; they having been very undutiful to me. All the reſidue of my eſtate I leave to the diſpoſal of Elizabeth my loving wife.

Theſe children were three in number; Anne, Mary, and Deborah. The firſt was deformed and lame, and had an impediment in her ſpeech; no literary inſtruction was beſtowed on her, but it appears

appears that her father had her taught the trade of making gold and ſilver lace. She deſcribes herſelf as almoſt helpleſs, and after her father's death married a builder, and died in child-birth, together with her infant. Of Mary, little is known, but that ſhe died ſingle. Deborah was her father's greateſt favourite; her reading occaſionally beguiled the hours of his darkneſs, but as neither ſhe nor her ſiſters had been taught to write, it is reaſonable to ſuppoſe that the expreſſion in the will, what I have beſides done for them, was interpolated by Chriſtopher. From a father, even though angry, ſo bitter a mokery could ſurely never proceed. Deborah had a good underſtanding, and manners not inelegant, but before the death of her father, ſhe went to Ireland as companion to a lady, and afterward married a weaver in Spitalfields, by whom ſhe had ſome children, to one of whom the public bounty was ſparingly extended. Theſe were the helpleſs and unfortunate children whom Milton, when he had no others, is ſaid to have diſinherited, with a general allegation of unkindneſs, leaving them no other reſource than a litigious application to their maternal grandfather, plundered and impoveriſhed as he was, for a payment of 1000l. in purſuance of a promiſe which they could not prove. Except the high crime of going to church, what is alleged againſt them? The tattle of tale-bearing ſervants, encouraged by an artful ſtep-mother, and too readily believed by an irritable and credulous father. Elizabeth Fiſher, one of the witneſſes, depoſed that the ſuppoſed teſtator had related to her, the information he had received from a former ſervant, that one of his daughters, hearing of his intention to marry, ſaid, that was no news, but to hear of his death would be ſomething. The ſame ſervant, he ſaid, informed him, that his daughters adviſed her to cheat him in their marketings, and that they had made away with ſome of his books, and would have ſold the reſt to the dunghill-woman. This converſation was the only pretence offered to the Court as a reaſon for terming all his children unkind, and leaving them pennyleſs. The widow is repreſented by the biographers of Milton, who lived neareſt his time, as an artful termagant, who, by the alternate uſe of harſhneſs and coaxing, ſeems to have moulded him to her own views. The depoſitions ſhew this unfortunate huſband in a continued ſtate of ſtipulation for, and acknowledgment of ſmall obſervances, and ſtimulating his wife to kindneſs by reminding her of his promiſes to leave her all he poſſeſſed at his death. His words were on one occaſion at dinner, "Make much of me as long as I live, for thou knoweſt I have given thee all when I die at thy diſpoſal." And at another time, when ſhe had provided him a dinner, which he liked, he ſaid, "God have mercy, Betty, I ſee thou wilt perform according to thy promiſe, in providing me ſuch diſhes as I think fit whilſt I live, and when I die thee knoweſt that I have left thee all."

Such is the view which is afforded by authentic documents of Milton's domeſtic ſtate. The picture is neither honourable to him, nor conſoling to human nature.

Rigour,

Rigour, harſhneſs, and abſtinence from all ſocial joys marked his early days, and at a later period, pain and ſuſpicion, deſires unſatisfied, and fears unappeaſed were his principal diſtinctions. Milton's habits, till he fell into weakneſs, ſeem to have been auſtere, and his diſpoſition not very ſocial. Few who have written ſo much, it is ſaid, have beſtowed ſo little praiſe; and no man who approached the eminence on which his talent placed him, ever, in modern times, left his family ſo unprovided for, and ſo friendleſs. Theſe circumſtances may be recorded without derogating from the well-earned fame of the poet; indeed the preſervation of them is one of the principal duties of the biographer; the knowledge of them prevents the formation of a falſe eſtimate of human life, which would ever be the caſe, if the indiſcretion of friendſhip, or the zeal of hatred omitted to record the "fears of the great, and follies of the wiſe."

From the man we turn to the poet, and in this part of the view, if unmixed praiſe cannot be beſtowed, the alloy of cenſure is hardly to be perceived. The name of Milton, after ſo much inveſtigation as his poetry has undergone, is celebrated with the higheſt encomiums from the greateſt literary characters, while the few blemiſhes which are found in his performances, are exhibited with a caution belonging rather to the character of reverential veneration, than of enterprizing criticiſm. The taſk of Mr. Todd has been to collect all that has been written by numerous commentators in illuſtration of Milton, whether as eſſays or notes; to combine in his work ſo much of them as can be deemed uſeful, and to add obſervations of his own, calculated to reduce to certainty that which was unſettled, to rectify miſapprehenſion, and to eſtabliſh truth. His taſk has been performed with great ability, and from abundant reſources, both printed and written, he has formed an edition of Milton's Poetry, which will probably never be rivalled, and can only be improved by himſelf.

After the Life of the Poet, Mr. Todd gives the teſtimonies of authors in his favour, beginning with the Latin verſes by Dr. Barrow, and concluding with ſome lines, publiſhed in 1799, by Mr. Weſt. Theſe are followed by Mr. Addiſon's celebrated criticiſm, by Dr. Johnſon's remarks on the verſification of the author, and by ſome obſervations of the Editor on the ſame ſubject. To theſe are ſubjoined an ingenious and ſatisfactory eſſay, under the title of an Inquiry into the origin of Paradiſe Loſt.

In this edition, where the chronology of publication has not been regarded, Paradiſe Loſt, the great work of Milton, the maſter-piece of Britiſh, if not of human genius, is firſt preſented. To praiſe the poem were now ſuperfluous and tedious; the editor is eminently intitled to applauſe for his induſtry, taſte, and judgment; and the reader of Milton muſt be uncommonly endowed, or extremely unjuſt, who does not feel and acknowledge himſelf aſſiſted and obliged. In fact, the ſame general remarks with reſpect to the editor may be applied to every piece throughout theſe volumes. In the greater poems his learning and

and judgment preſent many original, and aſſemble many other ſatisfactory elucidations, and even the ſmalleſt pieces are not without the illuſtrations which biography, hiſtory, and criticiſm can beſtow."

Paradiſe Loſt is ſeldom mentioned without expreſſions of indignation at the ſmall price for which it was ſold. Five pounds on the day of publication, and a ſimilar ſum when thirteen hundred copies ſhould be diſpoſed of, form a remuneration too contemptible to be annexed to ſuch a work, unleſs for the ſake of wantonly inſulting the author. This indeed would be true if ſaid of a royal or noble patron, and it would be a diſgrace to the nation had ſuch a ſum been the profit of a publication by ſubſcription. But Milton neither had, nor perhaps deſired, a patron; and the appeal to public munificence in the way of ſubſcription, which Pope found ſo advantageous, was little uſed, and almoſt unknown at the time. The bookſeller, if he were to be tried by a jury of the trade at this day, would be condemned for having made an injudicious bargain. He was to incur the whole expence and riſque of printing fifteen hundred copies of a book, not likely to be popular; of a religious poem to be publiſhed in a licentious age, with the name of a man whoſe political and religious principles were out of vogue on the title page. The book when plainly, but neatly bound, was to ſell for three ſhillings; but if he diſpoſed of the whole edition in ſheets at two ſhillings a copy, which would be a liberal price, the whole ſum which would paſs through his hands would be only one hundred and fifty pounds. Deducting from this the expences of printing and paper, and making the moſt moderate allowances for riſque, and the advance of money, it will be found that Simmons paid for the poem quite as much as he could reaſonably afford. A proof that he had no reaſon to think his bargain very beneficial is, that after he had paid eighteen pounds to Milton and his widow, and the reputation of the work was eſtabliſhed by the publication of three editions in thirteen years, the copyright was ſold in 1680 for twenty-five pounds, nor did the price bear any conſiderable advance till after the revolution, when Jacob Tonſon, who previouſly poſſeſſed half the copyright, purchaſed the other moiety in 1690 at an augmented rate. Theſe calculations, however minute, derive ſome importance from being connected with the name of Milton; and the fact ſhould never be abſent from the mind of the poet or artiſt who works for future ages. They who direct their ſteps toward the temple of immortality, muſt not be diſcouraged if they do not find that the path is ſtrewed with gold.

Paradiſe Regained, it is well known, owed its origin to the obſervation of Ellwood, a young Quaker, whoſe love of learning made him fond of the company of Milton; and who, when ſhewn the great poem in MS. ſaid to the author, "Thou haſt ſaid much of Paradiſe Loſt, but what haſt thou to ſay of Paradiſe Found?" Some time afterward Milton ſhewed him his new poem, ſaying, this is owing

ing to you. Paradiſe Regained has been too much depreciated from a compariſon with Paradiſe Loſt, and perhaps from the too eaſy credit given to a report that Milton thought it a more perfect poem. Availing himſelf largely of the previous labours of Mr. Dunſter, the preſent editor has done as much for its reputation as it is poſſible to effect.

Samſon Agoniſtes is preceded by the criticiſm of Dr. Johnſon, taken from the Rambler; and that of Mr. Cumberland, from the Obſerver; ſubjoined are Milton's plans of other Tragedies, from Holy Writ, and from profane Hiſtory.

Theſe poems, with the life and eſſays, occupy the firſt four volumes; the two which remain are filled with the ſmaller effuſions of Milton, among which Comus holds, as it deſerves, the moſt conſpicuous rank. Every part is illuſtrated with great care, and there is no room to hope that the poetry of Milton will ever be better underſtood, or more rationally admired than it may be by thoſe who avail themſelves of the labours of Mr. Todd.

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